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1 Guidelines for Integration of Vocational Psychology  
2 into Professional Psychology Practice  
3 (working title)

4 *These guidelines are currently under review within APA as required by the Board Of*  
5 *Professional Affairs Guidelines for Practice Guidelines*

6 **Executive Summary/Introduction**

7 Work and related vocational activities hold a central role in the lives of most adults and  
8 adolescents (Blustein, 2008; Fouad, 2007; Juntunen, 2006). This centrality has been  
9 documented in many ways, from the simple fact that most adults will spend more time engaged  
10 in work than in any other single waking activity to examining the ways in which work influences  
11 individual and family lives across multiple domains. A person working full-time for 40 years,  
12 assuming a 40-hour work week and two weeks of vacation, will spend 80,000 hours in  
13 vocational activities. With the trend toward longer work weeks (Kuhn & Lozano, 2005) and the  
14 potential for many people to work longer than 40 years, that is probably a conservative estimate  
15 of the time spent at work. It is evident that work involves a major investment of time and energy  
16 over the lifetime. Moreover the centrality of work is evident not only in the amount of time one  
17 spends on work, but also the intensity of emotion and personal identity individuals often derive  
18 from it.

19 Work is also central in the various functions it plays and the multiple needs it meets for  
20 individuals, families and society at large. Clearly, work is essential and employment  
21 compensation often provides the means for meeting basic life necessities such as food and  
22 shelter. Work also has important psychological meaning. As articulated by Blustein (2006),  
23 work (a) provides people with a sense of identity, (b) has unique personal meaning to each

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1 individual, (c) allows individuals to contribute to the welfare of their social and cultural groups,  
2 and (d) is a constant that connects us to other human beings. However, the role of work in  
3 psychological theory, practice, and research has had a complex history (Blustein, 2006. 2008;  
4 Richardson, 1993) where work related issues are often dismissed or disregarded.

5         Because of the pervasive nature of work across one’s life, it is imperative for both applied  
6 psychologists and researchers to adopt a stance that incorporates vocational considerations in the  
7 broader context of lifespan development (Cohen-Scali, 2003; Fouad & Brynner, 2008; Hartung,  
8 Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2005; Kosine, Steger, & Duncan, 2008; Lent & Brown, 2006;  
9 Gottfredson, 2005; Richardson, 1993; Whiston & Keller, 2004). This necessitates that  
10 psychologists approach clients holistically, considering not just vocational factors, but also  
11 personal psychosocial adjustment (Wehying, Bartlett, & Howard, 1984). Vocational issues have  
12 implications for one’s quality of life and overall well-being. Because work is embedded in the  
13 context of school, family, community, and culture, psychologists must develop competencies  
14 that recognize the interplay across these domains and allow the provision of the best possible  
15 care to their clients.

16         Work also has substantial influence on subjective well-being, contributing to life  
17 satisfaction and serving a protective function for risk behaviors (Baron, 2001; Moser & Schuller,  
18 2004). Vocational psychology interventions are therefore consistent with the increased attention,  
19 across specialties in psychology, on individuals’ assets and strengths in addition to their  
20 limitations and pathologies (Savickas, 2003; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). Furthermore, substantial  
21 numbers of adolescents, young adults, and older adults consistently express a need for assistance  
22 in career planning, vocational decision-making, and in addressing work issues; yet, only a small  
23 percentage of these individuals report receiving the assistance they seek (Herr, Cramer & Niles,

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1 2004). It is difficult to understand an individual's current occupational situation without some  
2 understanding of vocational development. Super (1942) was one of the first to espouse a  
3 developmental perspective in which occupational choice was viewed as not a single event, but  
4 rather an unfolding, lifelong process. According to Super, vocational development is a sequential  
5 process similar to other aspects of human development in which each step has a meaningful  
6 relationship to those that precede and follow it.

7         Although it is clear that work and vocational development play a critical role in the lives  
8 of the general population, the relationship between working and psychology has not always been  
9 clear (Richardson, 1993). The substantive empirical and theoretical work in the field of  
10 vocational psychology often is not fully integrated into psychological training programs outside  
11 of industrial organizational and counseling psychology. Given the centrality of work to the lives  
12 of individuals, it is essential that psychologists in all applied fields develop the skills necessary to  
13 work effectively with vocational issues and acquire knowledge of the empirical support for  
14 vocational interventions. In fact, to overlook the impact of work and vocational development is  
15 inconsistent with the basic ethical principle of Beneficence and Nonmaleficence (Principle A)  
16 and the Ethical Standard of Competence (Standard 2) of the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists*  
17 *and Code of Conduct* (American Psychological Association, 2002), as both require that  
18 psychologists use their established base of knowledge to provide the best service possible.  
19 Given the rich support for vocational interventions (Whiston & Rahardja, 2008), and the  
20 evidence that vocational well-being heavily influences emotional well-being (Blustein, 2008),  
21 vocational factors must be considered in the interests of the welfare of clients.

22 *Definitions in Vocational Psychology*

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1           Since the early 1900's (Parsons, 1909) vocational interventions have focused primarily  
2 on the role of work in the lives of individuals (Blustein, 2006). During the first half of the 20th  
3 century, many of those interventions focused on helping individuals identify the best fit between  
4 their own abilities and the requirements for a certain job (O'Brien, 2001). This emphasis was  
5 codified in national policy related to economic and security needs, as exemplified by finding  
6 work for the unemployed during the Depression of the 1930's and the test batteries developed  
7 during World Wars I and II (Herr, 2003).

8           In the 1950's, the emphasis shifted toward the idea of career, defined as “a sequence of  
9 positions held during the course of a lifetime (Super, 1980, p. 282).” This conceptualization of  
10 vocational activity emphasized the role of work across the life span, and placed career-related  
11 decisions in a developmental context. Crites (1969), for example, defined vocational psychology  
12 as "the study of the individual's vocational behavior and development through the years of  
13 choice and adjustment (p. 23)." In 2001, Savickas defined vocational psychology as “the study  
14 of vocational behavior and its development in careers, particularly emphasizing issues of  
15 occupational choice and work adjustment (p. 167).” These definitions reflect an emphasis on  
16 career choice across the lifespan, including the need to adjust to changes and problems that might  
17 arise.

18           Recently, several theorists have identified some limitations to previous definitions of  
19 vocational psychology and career, particularly noting that the emphasis on choice and the  
20 assumption of lifelong development might ignore the reality of people who do not have the  
21 access to resources that might afford such choices (e.g., Blustein, 2006). Consequently, recent  
22 definitions have focused more attention on contextual issues, including labor market factors and

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1 work-related barriers such as discrimination and lack of role models.. Walsh and Savickas  
2 (2005) proposed that vocational psychology be re-defined as  
3 a field, comprised of theory, intervention, and research practices, that is  
4 committed to the importance of work and relationships in people’s lives, to  
5 helping people live healthy and productive lives, and to social justice, especially  
6 with respect to providing access to opportunity for those marginalized or  
7 disadvantaged due to social locations such as gender, race, and class (p. 59).

8  
9 Additionally, other vocational psychologists (Blustein, 2006; Richardson, 1993)  
10 have suggested that “working” may be a more universal construct than “career”, which  
11 implies choice and opportunity. In contrast, working can be defined as energy, activity,  
12 and effort in tasks that contribute to the economic and social welfare of society, including  
13 both paid and non-paid work (Blustein, 2006). From this paradigm shift, the psychology-  
14 of-working perspective has emerged. Psychology-of-working strives to be inclusive of  
15 individuals with limited choice or access to resources, and to promote knowledge that  
16 will support policy changes relative to education, the labor market, and un/employment  
17 (Coutinho, Dam & Blustein, 2008).

18 For the purposes of these guidelines, both career and work are identified as critical  
19 components of competency in professional psychology. While work may be more universally  
20 experienced than career, many clients will present concerns about both, and there exist rich and  
21 informative literature on both that can guide the practice of professional psychologists. The use  
22 of the more inclusive term work throughout these guidelines recognizes that career, as a lifelong

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1 and choice-driven developmental activity, is for many a valuable component of the overarching  
2 activity of work.

### 3 *Work and well-being*

4         One of the reasons that psychologists need practice guidelines regarding work is that  
5 there exists significant evidence that job satisfaction is positively related to satisfaction in other  
6 areas of life, including family, intimate relationships, and subjective well-being. Multiple studies  
7 conducted over the last 50 years have found consistent relationships between job satisfaction and  
8 life satisfaction (Moser & Schuler, 2004; Rice, Near & Hunt, 1980; Tait, Padgett & Baldwin,  
9 1989). Furthermore, individuals who report a satisfying work life also report greater happiness  
10 and fewer psychological problems (Fritzsche & Parish, 2005; Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002;  
11 Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Watson & Slack, 1993). More recently, researchers have attended to  
12 life satisfaction in the context of work-family interference, with indications that difficulties at  
13 work can negatively impact family well-being (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005). Such work-family  
14 interference issues have also been found to occur across cultures (Bellavia & Frone, 2005; Hill,  
15 Yang, Hawkins, & Ferris, 2004). Although work can influence family and family can affect  
16 work, individuals are significantly more likely to experience negative spillover from work to  
17 family as compared to family problems spilling over to work (Eagle, Miles & Icenogle, 1997;  
18 Frone et al., 1992; Grzywacz, Almeida & McDonald, 2002; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

19         Work also promotes well-being by serving a protective function for aversive life events  
20 and experiences. The attainment of work has been shown to correlate negatively with criminal  
21 activity (Crutchfield & Pitchford, 1997; Sampson & Laub, 1993), substance abuse (Bellair &  
22 Roscigno, 2000), and other mental health concerns (Keyes & Waterman, 2003; Pearson, 1998).  
23 This is particularly critical for youth, a group for which unemployment is associated with several

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1 risk factors (Baron, 2001). For adults, positive spillover from work to family has been correlated  
2 positively with enhanced mental and physical well being, lower levels of problem drinking  
3 (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), greater organizational satisfaction and  
4 effort (Wayne et al., 2004), as well as decreased depression (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, &  
5 Shafiro, 2005)

6 The evidence supports the thesis that work is fully integrated with other psychological  
7 issues and is therefore a domain requiring the attention of all psychologists. This argument has  
8 been addressed by several counseling and vocational psychologists (Betz & Corning, 1993;  
9 Davidson & Gilbert, 1993; Hackett, 1993; Krumboltz, 1993; Richardson, 1996; Swanson, 1995),  
10 who emphasized that the separation of vocational and other “personal” issues in counseling and  
11 psychotherapy is a “false dichotomy (Hackett, 1992).”

#### 12 Definitions of Terms Used Throughout this Paper

13  
14 Work: The expenditure of energy, activity, and effort in tasks that contribute to  
15 the economic and social welfare of society, including both paid and non-paid  
16 work (Blustein, 2006).

17  
18 Vocation: The work in which a person is employed or the sense of being  
19 committed or called to a certain kind of work (adapted from Merriam-Webster,  
20 2010)

21  
22 Occupation: The specific kind of work in which an individual engages (adapted  
23 from Merriam-Webster, 2010)

24  
25 Vocational development: Acquiring skills, knowledge, and experience across the  
26 lifespan, that together contribute to or result in work activity and vocational  
27 achievement.

28  
29 Career: A sequence of work or vocational positions held during the course of a  
30 lifetime (Super, 1980)

31  
32 Career counseling: Interactions between client(s) and practitioner(s) that include  
33 interventions designed to support or enhance vocational development, resulting in  
34 a career or a plan to obtain and maintain a career.

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1 Vocational psychology: The study of vocational behavior and its development in  
2 careers, particularly emphasizing issues of occupational choice and work  
3 adjustment (Savickas, 2001)

4  
5 Vocational counseling: Interactions between client(s) and practitioner(s) that  
6 includes intervention designed to support or enhance vocational development  
7

## 8 Goals and Scope of the Vocational Guidelines

9 The term "Guidelines" refers to pronouncements, statements or declarations that suggest  
10 or recommend specific professional behavior, endeavors or conduct for psychologists (APA,  
11 1992). Guidelines differ from standards in that standards are mandatory and may be  
12 accompanied by an enforcement mechanism (APA, 2001). They are intended to facilitate the  
13 continued systematic development of the profession and to help assure a high level of  
14 professional practice by psychologists. Guidelines are not intended to be mandatory or  
15 exhaustive and may not be applicable to every professional and clinical situation. They are not  
16 definitive and they are not intended to take precedence over the judgment of psychologists.  
17 Guidelines are intended to be consistent with ethical practice, as defined in the Ethical Principles  
18 of Psychologists and Code of Conduct of the American Psychological Association. In the event  
19 of a conflict the Ethics Code adherence to ethical conduct takes priority. In addition, federal or  
20 state laws may supersede these Guidelines.

21 The interventions, assessments, and theories of vocational psychology are rooted in a  
22 substantive and empirically-supported knowledge base that can inform professional  
23 psychologists across specialty areas. There are several meta-analytic studies that have  
24 documented the effectiveness of vocational counseling (Brown & Ryan Krane, 2000; Oliver &  
25 Spokane, 1988; Spokane & Oliver, 1983; Whiston, Sexton, & Lasoff, 1998). In combining the  
26 findings from these meta-analytic studies, it appears that the average weighted effect sizes for

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1 career interventions tend to fall in the range of .30 to .50. This indicates that the average client  
2 who receives career counseling scores between a third to a half of standard deviation above an  
3 individual who not receive career counseling on a wide range of career outcomes.

4 Furthermore, Whiston, Brecheisen, and Stephens (2003) found that counselor-free  
5 interventions (e.g., individuals using computer or the internet without professional assistance)  
6 were ineffective and interventions that involved professional assistance were significantly more  
7 effective than counselor-free interventions. Hence, substantial research has been conducted  
8 regarding vocational interventions that can serve as a foundation for clinical work. Consistent  
9 with the goal of integrating empirically-supported interventions into the repertoire of practicing  
10 psychologists, the following Guidelines are based on extant effectiveness studies and provide  
11 recommendations for psychological practice. These Guidelines accompanied by an introduction  
12 to the empirical support for recommended interventions.

13 The specific goals of these Guidelines are to provide psychologists with: (a) the rationale  
14 and needs for addressing vocational development and the meaning of work in professional  
15 practice; (b) an introduction to the major issues in understanding vocational development and the  
16 world of work; and (c) specific recommendations for working effectively with work and  
17 vocational issues as they interface with multiple aspects of human behavior and functioning.  
18 This document is comprehensive but not exhaustive in scope. The goals above are addressed  
19 through presentation of six categories, each of which consists of specific recommendations for  
20 practice. The Guidelines have been developed through the collaborative efforts of many  
21 specialists in vocational psychology, but are not assumed to have addressed every possible  
22 situation or important variable. This is a dynamic document that can be expected to change and  
23 evolve over time, as new research, practice, and theoretical implications emerge.

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## The Guidelines

3 Guideline #1: Psychologists strive to have an awareness of the pervasive impact of work on an  
4 individual's quality of life.

5 Guideline # 2. Psychologists are encouraged to be aware of the influence work has on mental  
6 health, as well as the influence of mental health on work.

7 Guideline 3: Psychologists are encouraged to understand the role of work transitions across the  
8 lifespan.

9 Guideline # 4: Psychologists strive to understand how socio-culture factors, such as gender,  
10 ethnicity, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, disability status, and urban/rural residence,  
11 may influence the pursuit and experience of work.

12 Guideline # 5: Psychologists strive to understand how the individual negotiates multiple life  
13 roles, including that of the worker.

14 Guideline # 6: Psychologists strive to understand how economic and social factors (including  
15 labor market, access to education, globalization) impact opportunities for and barriers to  
16 employment, and subsequently alter one's career trajectory.

17

18 **Guideline #1: Psychologists strive to have an awareness of the pervasive impact of work on**  
19 **an individual's identity and quality of life.**

20 *Rationale:*

21 Values and beliefs about work have been identified as an essential aspect of life from  
22 both psychological and anthropological perspectives (Drenth, 1991; Furnham et al, 2001).

23 Blustein (2008) argued that the nature of working is inextricably linked to human's evolutionary  
24 past, in which our survival was, and to an extent still is, dependent on our abilities to secure food,

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1 shelter, support, and protection. The centrality of work in the United States has been enforced by  
2 the historical and culture influences of the “Protestant-work-ethic” (Weber, 1930), and recent  
3 cross-cultural comparisons have noted the centrality of work across numerous countries  
4 (Furnham et al, 2001; Hatrup, Ghorpade, & Lackritz, 2007). A number of distinguished  
5 vocational psychologists (e.g., Richardson, 2002; Schultheiss, 2006) have noted the degree to  
6 which vocational and work-related issues are embedded in many individuals’ lives. There is a  
7 need for psychologist to understand that vocational factors have a pervasive impact on  
8 individuals’ development and quality of life and interact with other domains in particularly  
9 influential and significant ways (Fouad, 2007). As an example, satisfying employment is related  
10 to both mental and physical health (Jin, Shah, & Svoboda ,1995; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg,  
11 & Kinicki, 2005).

12         The extent to which individuals value work as central is recognized as an attitude that  
13 influences decision-making in both work and non-work life domains (Hirschfeld & Feild, 2000).  
14 In Diener, Suh, Lucas, and Smith’s (1999) seminal discussion of subjective well-being, one of  
15 the domains of satisfaction is work. Therefore, for some workers, their work provides  
16 satisfaction and meaning, as well as economic rewards. Blustein (2006, 2008), however, artfully  
17 argued that the opportunity for selecting meaningful employment is a luxury afforded to only a  
18 few people, and he encouraged psychologists to advocate so that everyone has equal  
19 opportunities in regard to education, employment training, and vocational opportunities. .

20         Adults’ occupational attainment and current vocational situation can typically be traced  
21 through a series of events and opportunities, which fall under the rubric of vocational  
22 development. Despite the centrality of work and the importance of vocational development,  
23 many applied psychologists and developmental psychologists have limited knowledge of theories

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1 and research related to vocational development (Vondracek, 2001). Richardson (2002) asserted  
2 that career development is an essential component of lifespan development and that human  
3 development cannot be understood without awareness of vocational development. Consistent  
4 with life-span psychology developmental perspectives, there is substantial evidence that  
5 vocational development constitutes a lifelong process from infancy through childhood,  
6 adolescence, and adulthood (Gottfredson, 1981; Super, 1957; Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996;  
7 Vondracek, Lerner, & Schulenberg, 1986).

8         Related also to vocational development is the concept of identity formation, and several  
9 researchers have found that vocational issues play an important role in identity development  
10 (Blustein, 1994; Blustein, Devenis, & Kidney, 1989; Savickas, 1985). There are indications that  
11 identity development and vocational exploration are significantly related to each other, such that  
12 well-developed career interests are associated with a strong sense of identity (Blustein, Devenis,  
13 & Kidney, 1989; Wehying, Bartlett, & Howard, 1984). In one of the few adolescent/young adult  
14 developmental theories that addresses vocational development, Marcia (1966, 1980) posited that  
15 there are various routes to the selection of a self-chosen identity (including an occupational  
16 identity), which involve four identity statuses (see Guideline 3). The intertwined nature of  
17 vocational and human development and, in particular, identity development, further reflects the  
18 pervasive impact of work on individuals' lives across the lifespan.

19         For many individuals, work is the fodder of dreams and the root of many disappointments  
20 (Blustein, 2006, 2008). In a discussion of the meaningfulness of work, Blustein (2006) has  
21 suggested that work plays a significant role in social connectedness and self-determination (Deci  
22 & Ryan, 2002), as well as survival and power. There are people for whom work provides a sense  
23 of purpose and identity; whereas, for other individuals work is unsatisfying and physically

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1 grueling. Some individuals struggle with the absence of connectedness and meaningful  
2 relationships in the workplace which results in a sense of isolation and alienation (Schultheiss,  
3 2006). Furthermore, researchers have indicated that one’s social connections and affect may  
4 carry-over from work into non-work domains and vice versa (Lent, 2008). For example, negative  
5 spillover from one’s work to non-work areas is related to the increased likelihood of  
6 psychological problems, such as mood, anxiety, and substance disorders (Frone, 2000).

7         The normalcy of working is often an aspiration of individuals with significant mental or  
8 physical illnesses. Although holding either a full or part-time job may be difficult for those with  
9 severe mental or physical illnesses, there is evidence that work continues to be a stated priority  
10 for these individuals (Auerbach & Richardson, 2005; Kirsh, 1996). In fact, for the majority of  
11 adults, employment is desired; however, unemployment is an undesirable reality for many. In a  
12 meta-analysis comparing unemployed workers to employed individuals, McKee-Ryan, Song,  
13 Wanberg, and Kinicki (2005) found that unemployed individuals had significantly lower mental  
14 health ( $d = -.57$ ) and life satisfaction ( $d = -.48$ ) than those who were employed. Clearly, people  
15 who are unemployed frequently face substantial challenges and unemployment is related to  
16 problems with both mental and physical health (Beland, Birch, & Stoddart, 2002).

17         An understanding of the interplay among vocational factors and other psychological  
18 domains is an essential competence for all psychologists and is particularly relevant to applied  
19 psychologists. Understanding the pervasive impact of vocation on an individual provides  
20 valuable information, but a practitioner must also be knowledgeable and skilled regarding the  
21 specific interventions relevant to the client’s presenting concern.

22 *Strategies for Implementation*

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- 1       • When initiating psychotherapy with adults, explore the clients’ current work situation,  
2       past employment history, and vocational aspirations. As both employment and  
3       unemployment contribute to both mental and physical health, psychologists need to  
4       assess thoroughly vocational factors.
- 5       • Develop an understanding of vocational development. As more fully explicated in  
6       Guideline 3, given the pervasive influence of work, psychologists need knowledge of  
7       vocational development and methods for facilitating vocational development with  
8       children, adolescents, and adults. Furthermore, clients will need skills to cope with the  
9       rapidly changing labor market. This rapidly changing economic system requires career  
10      adaptability and psychologists should be familiar with current perspectives on career  
11      adaptability (see Savickas, 2002, 2005).
- 12     • Understand issues related to vocational identity development and the role that vocational  
13      decision-making plays in the development of identity. As indicated earlier, research  
14      studies indicate that occupational exploration plays a significant role in vocational  
15      identity development. As will be discussed in Guideline 4, psychologists should also  
16      advocate for equitable exploration activities for diverse groups, for whom work may have  
17      different meanings or for whom work decisions are made within the context of family  
18      decisions. In addition, whereas occupational exposure and exploration is an important  
19      foundation to vocational identity, psychologists must also be aware of strategies for  
20      assisting individuals in clarifying their vocational identity or self-concept. Tokar, Hall,  
21      and Moradi (2003) defined vocational self-concept crystallization as the “extent to which  
22      one has a clear sense of one’s own, vocationally relevant aptitudes or abilities, interests,

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1 and attitudes” (p. 26). Therefore, psychologists are encouraged to be proficient in clinical  
2 skills related to the exploration of abilities, interests, and attitudes.

- 3 • Practitioners must attend to the importance of clients’ attributions regarding self and the  
4 world of work (Blustein, 1994; Dik & Duffy, 2009; Meijer, 1998; Schultheiss, 2006).

5 Practitioners can reshape a client’s work conceptualization (Schultheiss, 2006), reframe  
6 expectations for work, and help clients find purpose and meaning in the work that is  
7 available to them (Dik & Duffy). Dik and Duffy (2009) suggested that the meaning one  
8 attributes to his/her vocation has a strong impact on overall life satisfaction. The  
9 meaningfulness of work can also be assessed with individual clients. There is evidence  
10 that the perception of work as meaningful has been linked to psychological well-being  
11 (Arnold, Turner, & Barling, 2007; Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001). Identifying the goal of  
12 obtaining or maintaining meaningful work is therefore likely to be relevant to many  
13 treatment plans.

- 14 • Understand and be able to identify sources of work satisfaction as well as targets for  
15 interventions for those who are experiencing work-related dissatisfaction. Brown and  
16 Lent (2006, 2008) identified several common factors associated with work  
17 dissatisfaction, such as failure to attain expected work outcomes, exposure to adverse  
18 working conditions, and low self-efficacy related to work achievement. Upon assessing  
19 work factors contributing to work dissatisfaction, practitioners can design interventions  
20 that assist individuals in ameliorating their unique struggles. For example, an individual  
21 dealing with distressing working conditions may benefit from preparing specific coping  
22 strategies or identifying advocacy opportunities that may assist in managing his or her  
23 difficult conditions.

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- 1       • Given the reciprocal relationship between job and life satisfaction, psychologists are  
2       encouraged to be aware of factors that may be contributing to the interplay between job  
3       and life satisfaction. Watson and Slack (1993) suggested that one’s affective disposition  
4       leads to job satisfaction which leads to life satisfaction which leads to one’s overall  
5       adjustment (e.g., positive or negative affect). Judge and colleagues (Judge, Parker,  
6       Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2002; Judge & Larsen, 2001) found that dispositional factors  
7       may contribute simultaneously to work and life satisfaction. They noted that this may be  
8       due to an individual’s typical disposition rather than specific environmental  
9       circumstances. Therefore, psychologists are encouraged to be skilled in assessing both  
10      positive and negative affectivity and analyze how these dispositions related to both work  
11      and life satisfaction.

12  
13      **Guideline # 2. Psychologists are encouraged to be aware of the influence work has on**  
14      **mental health, as well as the influence of mental health on work.**

15      *Rationale.*

16           The separation and integration of work and “personal” issues has been thoroughly  
17      examined in counseling psychology, with most scholars agreeing that treating work and personal  
18      issues separately creates an artificial dichotomy (Hackett, 1993). Yet practicing psychologists  
19      often overlook work concerns in their treatment and case conceptualization (Axelrod, 1999;  
20      Blustein & Spengler, 1995). Although the reasons for such oversight are not completely clear,  
21      several contributing factors have been identified. Pinkney and Jacobs (1985) found  
22      psychologists in-training tended to rank both their preference for professional titles and  
23      willingness to work with career concerns significantly lower than personal concerns.  
24      Psychologists and doctoral students in psychology may lack adequate training in career or

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1 vocational counseling strategies (Warnke et al., 1993). There may also be a perception among  
2 psychologists and students that work issues are not as important or “serious” as personal issues  
3 (Blustein & Spengler, 1995; Gelso et al, 1985; Heppner, O'Brien, Hinkelman, & Flores, 1996).  
4 Finally, some have had perceptions of vocational counseling as being a “test-and-tell” exercise,  
5 rather than meaningful psychological work (Brown & Ryan Krane, 2000). Such perceptions and  
6 assumptions can impact the quality of services provided to clients. For example, both Gelso et  
7 al. (1985) and Vargo-Moncier and Jessell (1995) found the quality of clinicians’ intake reports  
8 was lower for clients presenting with vocational concerns as compared to the reports of clients  
9 reporting personal problems.

10         These perceptions of vocational issues as less serious and less worthy of attention are  
11 inconsistent with research highlighting the importance of work in people’s lives (Whiston &  
12 Oliver, 2005). Fouad and Brynner (2008) argued that given the central role of work in the larger  
13 landscape of human functioning, life and occupational transitions have major mental health  
14 implications. In fact, individuals seeking assistance related to vocational issues do not differ  
15 from those seeking other types of psychotherapy in terms of the types of problems they are  
16 experiencing (Lucas, 1992), levels of emotional discomfort (Gold & Scanlon, 1993), or degree of  
17 adjustment (Lewis, 2001). Furthermore, Multon, Heppner, Gysbers, Zook, and Ellis-Kalton  
18 (2001) found the majority of individuals seeking vocational counseling reported significant  
19 psychological distress.

20         One contributing factor to these levels of distress is the fact that many work transitions  
21 are involuntary. For example, the loss of employment is a common involuntary transition. Since  
22 the classic Marienthal study of the 1930’s (Johoda, Lazarsfeld, & Zeisel, 1933) the impact of  
23 unemployment on mental health and quality of life has been examined repeatedly (Jahoda, 1992)

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1 at both the individual and aggregate level (McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005).  
2 Both individual and aggregate studies suggested that unemployment has a deleterious impact on  
3 psychological and physical well-being (, McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). In a  
4 review of the impact of unemployment on well-being, Jin, Shah, and Svoboda (1995)  
5 demonstrated that studies at the aggregate level associated unemployment with poor mental  
6 health and mortality. At the individual level, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have  
7 demonstrated a negative impact of unemployment on both physical and psychological well-being  
8 (McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). In a meta-analysis of 237 cross-sectional and  
9 87 longitudinal studies, Paul and Moser (2009) concluded that there are significant mental health  
10 consequences of unemployment, based on medium effect sizes (ranging  $d = .40$  to  $d = .51$ ) for  
11 differences in depression, anxiety, subjective well-being, and self-esteem between employed and  
12 unemployed individuals. In addition, a small effect size ( $d = .11$ ) for psychosomatic symptoms  
13 suggests some influence on physical health.

14         However, employment does not yield automatic health benefits for all workers. Broom et  
15 al. (2006) found people in poor quality jobs (i.e., those that lacked security and high levels of  
16 strain) had higher odds of poor health than employees in better jobs. Furthermore, workers in  
17 these poor quality jobs had similar rates of mental health problems as those who were  
18 unemployed. In addition, Dooley, Prause, and Ham-Rowbottom (2000) found that young adults'  
19 symptoms of depression increased when they were employed in low wage or involuntary part-  
20 time jobs. In unpredictable economic conditions, many workers may either be in or transitioning  
21 into occupations that lack security, are low wage, and are psychologically debilitating. Therefore,  
22 strategic psychological interventions designed to assist these workers find more secure and  
23 satisfying employment could assist in ameliorating these psychological symptoms. Such

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1 interventions can be supported by the use of vocational assessments, an increasing number of  
2 which are being developed to help clients respond to vocational transitions (i.e., the Transferable  
3 Skills Index, Bolles & Bolles, 2005).

4 In addition to addressing the negative impact of unemployment or under-employment, a  
5 growing body of research highlights the association between job satisfaction, work-related  
6 issues, and psychological well-being (Whiston & Rahardja, 2008). In general, there is a  
7 significant positive relationship between work satisfaction and life satisfaction (Heller, Watson,  
8 Ilies, 2006; Moser & Schuler, 2004; Tait et al., 1989). Specifically, job satisfaction is linked to  
9 various health-related outcomes, including length of life (Palmore, 1969), burnout, psychological  
10 health, and physical health (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992). In fact, just the circumstance of being  
11 employed is related to positive indicators of mental health and well-being. Paul and Moser  
12 (2009), in an analysis of longitudinal studies, determined that people who find employment for  
13 the first time, are re-employed after a period of unemployment or are continuously employed  
14 have decreased indicators of distress at follow-up assessment points. These findings provide  
15 strong support for the integration of vocational assessments and interventions into the repertoire  
16 of competencies for all professional psychologists. Specific examples of each are provided in the  
17 following section.

18 Work has been found to have both a positive and negative influence on mental health;  
19 yet, as noted earlier, some psychologists perceive psychotherapy and vocational counseling as  
20 being distinct and exclusive activities (Axelrod, 1999; Blustein & Spengler, 1995; Heppner,  
21 O'Brien, Hinkleman, & Flores, 1996). The separation of work from personal issues that  
22 influence mental health seems counterintuitive to a holistic perspective of psychotherapy.  
23 Numerous scholars (Blustein, 2006; Hackett, 1993; Swanson, 2002; Whiston & Oliver, 2005)

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1 have argued that treating work and personal issues separately creates an artificial dichotomy that  
2 does not reflect the intertwined nature of people’s lives. According to Meara and Patton (1994),  
3 “[clients] cannot compartmentalize their concerns related to self, relationships, or work in order  
4 to satisfy some arbitrary definition of a disciplinary subspecialty or a very narrow  
5 conceptualization of help-giver expertise” (p. 161), thereby challenging all psychologists to be  
6 prepared to address the holistic set of concerns presented by clients, including work and  
7 vocational needs.

#### 8 *Strategies for Implementation.*

9         Given the demonstrated relationship between work and both mental health and well-  
10 being, psychologists are encouraged to understand and explore the role of work, or planning for  
11 work, in the lives of clients. This includes the specific benefits, stressors, supportive factors and  
12 risk factors associated with work or the lack of work. Inherent in this expectation is an  
13 understanding of the mental health consequences of under-employment, unemployment or loss  
14 of work. To achieve that understanding of the interface of work and mental health, psychologists  
15 are encouraged to consider the following strategies as guidelines for practice.

- 16         • Include work-relevant information in the clinical assessment (and on any pre-intake  
17 forms or paperwork), to establish the expectation that work issues will be considered in  
18 conjunction with clinical or mental health concerns (Blustein & Spengler, 1995). Such  
19 information may include questions regarding difficulties with work, work-based  
20 relationships, satisfying aspects of work, the perceived relationship between work and  
21 other sources of support and stress and related questions, beyond simply querying about  
22 employment status.

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- 1       • Include work satisfaction and workplace stressors in the development of treatment goals.  
2       Change that occurs through treatment may impact work behaviors. Conversely, work and  
3       workplace factors can either support or hinder treatment change. Such potential  
4       interactions can be discussed with clients as part of the treatment planning process,  
5       thereby identifying more sources of support and more potential barriers to consider in  
6       treatment. It may be particularly useful to consider career salience (Savickas, 2002) as  
7       part of treatment planning, as it will assist in locating the value of work roles relative to  
8       other life roles (Swanson & D’Achiardi, 2005).
- 9       • Select interventions that focus on self-awareness, self-knowledge (Holland, 1996), and  
10       self-in-relationship (Gysbers, Heppner, & Johnston, 2003), recognizing how these  
11       contribute to career development and work satisfaction, as well as satisfaction in other  
12       aspects of life. Using assessment instruments designed to assess knowledge of self,  
13       including vocational interests (Hansen, 2005), work values (Rounds & Armstrong, 2005)  
14       and abilities (Ryan Krane & Tirre, 2005) provides information that is accessible to clients  
15       and can be readily integrated into treatment planning.
- 16       • Attend to individual risks such as high work-role centrality, low levels of personal coping  
17       resources, and high degrees of stress appraisal when working with clients who have been  
18       laid off and are in need of re-employment or are at risk for unemployment (McKee-Ryan  
19       et al., 2005). Upon noting individual risks, interventions may target threats to personal  
20       identity, bolster coping resources, and minimize negative appraisal of job loss.
- 21       • Use empirically-supported interventions related to assisting individuals with issues  
22       related to vocational choice. Specific examples include providing individualized feedback  
23       on vocational assessments, written exercises focused on vocational process, modeling of

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- 1 vocational behaviors, and strengthening of support networks (Brown & Ryan Krane,  
2 2000), as well as working with clients to clarify their values and assets (Healy, 2001),
- 3 • Consider the range of variables relevant to both work and life satisfaction when  
4 conducting assessments and planning interventions. Various empirically-supported  
5 measurements of interests (Hansen, 2005), abilities (Ryan Krane & Tirre, 2005), needs  
6 and values (Rounds & Armstrong, 2005) have a long history of application to vocational  
7 concerns and may also be relevant to other life domains, such as subjective well-being,  
8 decision-making, and planfulness. In addition, the assessment and integration of  
9 variables such as personality, self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers, and decision-  
10 making (Swanson & D'Achiardi, 2005) can inform work and interpersonal functioning.
  - 11 • Identify stressors and the resources the client has for coping with and overcoming them,  
12 including the interactive effect of multiple stressors across multiple life roles (Barnett &  
13 Hyde, 2001; Welbourne, Eggerth, & Hartley, 2007). This kind of assessment will again  
14 contribute to acknowledging the role of work as a source of support or a source of stress,  
15 and as an integrated part of the client's overall well-being.

16

17 **Guideline 3: Psychologists are encouraged to understand the role of work transitions across**  
18 **the lifespan.**

19 *Rationale*

20 Career development is an essential component of lifespan development and human  
21 development cannot be understood without awareness of vocational development (Richardson,  
22 2002; Vondracek, 1992). This argument is grounded in a body of literature that identifies the  
23 pervasive role of vocation across the entire lifecycle (Cohen-Scali, 2003; Hartung, Porfeli, &

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1 Vondracek, 2005; Kosine, Steger, & Duncan, 2008; Lent & Brown, 2006; Richardson, 1993;  
2 Super, 1980; Whiston & Keller, 2004). Researchers have highlighted the importance of attending  
3 to vocational development in childhood (Gottfredson, 2005; Hartung, Porfeli, & Vondracek,  
4 2005; Vondracek, 2001), adolescence (Savickas, 2005; Turner & Lapan, 2005), and in adulthood  
5 (Super et al, 1996). Psychologists are encouraged to understand how individuals learn how to  
6 make career decisions (Krieshok et al., 2009), how they make transitions from school to school,  
7 school to work, work to non-paid roles (home care, unemployment, retirement), and non-work to  
8 work (e.g., welfare-to-work, unemployment to employment, retirement to employment). It is  
9 also important to note the differences in psychological functioning when transitions are voluntary  
10 vs. involuntary.

11 A number of researchers have found that vocational development begins in childhood and  
12 children's experiences influence later development (Hartung Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2005;  
13 Schultheiss, 2008; Watson & McMahon, 2005. Hartung et al. (2005) reviewed research on  
14 children's vocational development and found that children as young as 3 to 5 years of age  
15 possess rudimentary knowledge about occupations, and this knowledge of occupations typically  
16 becomes more comprehensive and detailed as they age (Watson & McMahon, 2005). Hartung et  
17 al. (2005) also found that children employ intrapersonal and interpersonal strategies to explore  
18 the world-of-work, which results in the development of early vocational aspirations and goals.  
19 Second, children demonstrate a developmental shift in their exploratory behavior as they  
20 approach adolescence in which the early exploration activities facilitates more a focused  
21 exploring of vocational options. Children's occupational aspiration, however, seem to be  
22 influence stereotypes and factors such as gender, socioeconomic status, and ethnic/racial

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1 differences influence occupational aspirations (Porfeli, Hartung, & Vondracek, 2008;  
2 Schultheiss, 2008).

3           Researchers have found that both family structure variables (e.g., parents' occupation)  
4 and family process variables (e.g., warmth, support, attachment, and autonomy) influenced a  
5 number of career constructs across the lifespan (Schulenberg, Vondracek, & Crouter, 1984;  
6 Whiston & Keller, 2004). Whiston and Keller (2004) found that, in childhood, parents have  
7 occupational expectations for their children and these expectations influence their children's  
8 vocational development and occupational attainment in adulthood. Familial factors also  
9 influence the early development of career interests, which involves both genetic factors and  
10 relatives exposing children to activities that the family members find interesting (Betsworth et  
11 al., 1994; Betsworth, & Fouad, 1997).

12           Staff, Messersmith and Schulenberg (2009) argued that the larger field of adolescent  
13 development has paid insufficient attention to work and career development during adolescence.  
14 Whereas in childhood, socialization for work often involves exploration and play related to  
15 different occupations, in adolescence, vocational development becomes progressively more  
16 complex and contextual and environmental factors become increasingly more influential. Turner  
17 and Lapan (2005) documented the importance of career-development preparation in adolescence;  
18 specifically, they suggested the need to consider adolescents' career related self-efficacy  
19 expectations, learning effective social, prosocial, and work readiness skills, understanding one's  
20 self in the larger work context, and crystallizing personally valued vocational interests. While in  
21 childhood, socialization for work may involve exploration and play related to career, in  
22 adolescence and young adulthood this socialization entails more concrete tasks such as  
23 professional training. During adolescence, individuals take steps toward the clarification and

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1 crystallization of identity development and career orientation, which are embedded in one's  
2 social and historical contexts (Savickas, 2005; Waterman, 1988). An understanding of the  
3 importance of these steps and the importance of students' learning about the process of career  
4 decision-making has led to career related learning standards being integrated into K-12  
5 curriculum and in many state and national standards for school counselors (Niles & Bowsbey,  
6 2009).

7         One of the major social contexts that influence adolescents' vocational development is  
8 their family (Schulenberg, Vondracek, & Crouter, 1984; Whiston & Keller, 2004). Bordin (1984)  
9 suggested that one's vocational development, particularly career choice, is not simply a product  
10 of an individual's exposure to parents' occupations. In their review, Whiston and Keller (2004)  
11 concluded that family structural variables, such as socioeconomic status and parental  
12 achievement tend to influence adolescents' career aspirations and expectations. They further  
13 found that higher occupational expectations are associated with a supportive family environment  
14 that entails high parental expectations for the adolescent.

15         The interplay between vocation and development continues through adolescence into  
16 adulthood. Whiston and Keller (2004) highlighted a family's impact on vocational development  
17 in adults. For instance, Whiston and Keller reviewed the vocational literature and found support  
18 for the influence of families-of-origin on young adult career development and maturity,  
19 occupational exploration, vocational identity, assessment of career related abilities, career  
20 commitment or decidedness, and occupational selection. In addition, they found that family  
21 demographic variables, such as socioeconomic status as well as family dynamic variables, such  
22 as attachment, emotional support, autonomy support, encouragement, and boundaries appear to  
23 play an important role in vocational development of adults. This is in concert with Blustein

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1 (1994), who argued for the centrality of early parent-child relationships in vocational identity  
2 development, particularly connectedness, attachment, and the notion of secure-base between  
3 parents and their children.

4 Adults' career development is also influenced by current contextual factors and  
5 socialization by their immediate working environment (Cohen-Scali, 2003). This process entails  
6 an individual's integration into the world or work and the crucial role of social interaction in the  
7 workplace. Fouad and Brynner (2008) discussed work transitions across the lifespan such as  
8 school to work, work to other work, work to non-work, and non-work to work. Based on the  
9 developmental perspective of Erikson (1963, 1968), Fouad and Brynner (2008) noted the  
10 importance of adulthood development as individuals negotiate the critical task of being  
11 generative during midlife. Individuals often achieve generativity and avoid stagnation through  
12 positive work activities and community involvement. Work transitions are inevitable and  
13 inexorably linked to transitions in other life domains (e.g., building intimate relationships,  
14 building occupational relationships, starting a family) and adults are often able to cope with these  
15 transitions when they marshal personal and familial resources.

16 *Strategies for implementation:*

17 Psychologists are encouraged to adopt a developmental perspective in helping their  
18 clients understand the development of career decision-making skills and the ability to  
19 appropriately navigate transitions through the life span. Psychologists are further encouraged to  
20 draw from both therapeutic and psychoeducational strategies to help children, adolescents,  
21 parents, and adult clients consider the emotional and psychological aspects of vocationally-  
22 relevant transitions. Specific strategies may include:

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- 1     • Provide suggestions to parents regarding ideal behaviors and intentions that produce  
2         positive career outcomes in children as well as providing them with psychoeducational  
3         consultation (Whiston & Keller, 2004).
- 4     • Develop direct intervention programs for parents to facilitate their children’s vocational  
5         development. At the elementary level, tasks should be discrete, concrete, and short when  
6         working with early elementary children, and may include field trips, career days,  
7         experience kits, personal portfolios, and exposure to a variety of workers and  
8         occupations. At later stages this may include expanding the variety of occupational role  
9         models to which adolescents are exposed, providing concrete informational help in career  
10         decision making, and encouraging a variety of exploration activities. (Young, Valach, Ball,  
11         Paseluikho, McLean, & Turkel, 2001; Young & Friesen, 1992; Young, Valach,& Marshall,  
12         2008).
- 13    • Utilize interventions that help children and adolescents recognize the ways in which gender-role  
14         socialization influences the vocational options they might consider (Corrigall & Konrad, 2007;  
15         Gottfredson, 2005; Tokar & Jome, 1998). Such interventions might include challenging sex- or  
16         gender-typed descriptors of people holding specific jobs (i.e., police officer vs policeman) and  
17         educating children, adolescents and parents about the influence of gender-role expectations  
18         (Corrigan & Konrad, 2007).
- 19    • Include exploration of personally meaningful career options and foster vocational identity  
20         while attending to the broader social fabric, specifically the interaction of individual  
21         vocational development with cultural factors such as gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity,  
22         social status, ability, and geographic location (Kosine, Steger, & Duncan, 2008).  
23         Adolescents could be engaged in structured group activities and dialogues that focus on  
24         evaluating career concepts and exploring the meaning that students attribute to personal,

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1 social, and work-related constructs. Psychologists may also use biographies, exemplars  
2 in novels, simple jobs in the community, extracurricular activities, and school service  
3 projects as means of adding to an adolescent’s vocational knowledge (Gysbers, Johnson  
4 & Heppner, 2010; Hartung & Taber, 2008; Niles & Bowlsbey, 2009; Savickas, 2005).

- 5 • Psychologists may help adolescents to explore life goals, personal strengths and  
6 weaknesses, family expectations, potential barriers, and goal setting related to work.

7 Tasks could include community service, job shadowing, coop, extern and internships, and  
8 summer jobs as well as formal assessments related to interests, values, and personality  
9 (Gottfredson, 1981). Psychologists may foster exploration of adolescents’ self  
10 knowledge, degree of commitment, familial factors, and sociocultural factors when  
11 considering vocation (Blustein, 1994). Psychologists may help adolescents explore their  
12 personal vocational aspirations which will be influenced by the adolescents’ unique  
13 identity embedded in their context and culture, including both vocational and non-  
14 vocational identity (Blustein, Devenis, & Kidney, 1989). Psychologists may explicitly  
15 ask adolescents about their personal values, beliefs, and goals, as well as strive to  
16 understand his/her family, friends, and community by asking direct questions relating to  
17 relationships and culture (Blustein, 1994; Blustein & Noumair, 1996).

- 18 • Psychologists who are helping a client with work-related issues are encouraged to  
19 consider the client holistically rather than focusing exclusively on career development  
20 (Richardson, 1993; Weyhing, Bartlett, Howard, 1984).

21 **Guideline # 4: Psychologists strive to understand how socio-culture factors, such as**  
22 **gender, ethnicity, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, disability status, and**  
23 **urban/rural residence, may influence the pursuit and experience of work.**

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1 *Rationale*

2           Psychologists are encouraged to consider that the context in which individuals make  
3 work-related decisions strongly influences both the process and content of those decisions.  
4 Consider, for example, that the work choices made by two individuals in their senior year in  
5 college, one an African American, middle class, Southern, Christian, heterosexual male, and the  
6 other an Asian American young woman, who is lesbian, deeply traditionally Buddhist and living  
7 with her parents in California. Both of these individuals may be expected to make decisions that  
8 will help them transition from college to either graduate training or to work. But, the contexts in  
9 which their decisions are being made are very different, and their ultimate decisions, and indeed  
10 their adjustment to that transition will be shaped by that context, including their families, their  
11 socioeconomic status, the opportunity structure of the labor market around them, and their  
12 exposure to racism and discrimination.

13           All clients, racial/ethnic minorities as well as European Americans, operate within a  
14 cultural context and their behavior (including work decisions) is influenced by their gender,  
15 racial identity and background, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, and the presence or  
16 absence of disability. These contextual influences help to form their environments and their  
17 responses to the environment. To be most effective, psychologists are encouraged to explicitly  
18 incorporate those contextual factors into their work with clients, approaching each client from an  
19 understanding that they may belong to one or more cultures, some of which may be more salient  
20 at one time, and less salient at another. The Asian American woman in the above example may  
21 make decisions based more on her religion than sexual orientation at some points, more on her  
22 race/ethnicity at others. At the same time, though, it is important to note that belonging to a  
23 particular culture does not automatically mean that a client will display stereotypic

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1 characteristics of that culture. Certainly there is often more within group heterogeneity than  
2 differences between groups. Psychologists are encouraged to understand which cultural variables  
3 are salient to the client (Sue & Sue, 2007).

4 Psychologists also need to be aware of several environmental factors that may influence  
5 the work decisions of many minority group clients, such as racism, social class, discrimination,  
6 acculturation, and immigration status. Psychologists are also encouraged to understand the role  
7 of family in career decision-making, because in some cultural groups, family plays a significant  
8 role in determining the appropriate career for an individual (Fouad et al, in press). Psychologists  
9 are also encouraged to understand the various meaning of work for some clients. For some,  
10 work may be a means to survival, a paycheck that pays the rent/mortgage and buys food. For  
11 others, work may be a means to create and sustain relationships. And for still others (including  
12 many psychologists), work may be a means to achieving an identity (Blustein, 2006).  
13 Psychologists are encouraged to help clients approach career decision-making from within the  
14 clients' own cultural contexts.

15 Racial discrimination and social class have had a strong influence on the career behavior  
16 of racial/ethnic minorities in the United States, often circumscribing the options that individuals  
17 have considered, as well as restricting access to some careers (Fitzgerald & Betz, 1994).  
18 Psychologists are encouraged to understand the role that discrimination has played in the choices  
19 of their clients and help their clients realize how discrimination may have limited their  
20 perceptions of opportunities, as well as barring them from opportunities. Poverty, poor academic  
21 training, and the psychological factors related to feeling powerless and unable to plan for the  
22 future are realities for many clients (Blustein, 2006; Fitzgerald & Betz, 1994; Smith, 2006)  
23 Acculturation and immigration status also are important variables to assess, since these factors

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1 may affect clients' consideration of various career choices (Flores, 2009; Miller & Kerlow-  
2 Meyers, 2009).

3 Psychologists are also encouraged to consider that many racial/ethnic minority clients  
4 will place more emphasis on collectivistic values rather than individual variables. While  
5 traditionally, psychologists have helped clients make work decisions based on their own interests  
6 and skills, assuming that their decision making is independent, many clients will make decisions  
7 based on their family's expectations. For these clients, family expectations may be more  
8 important than their own interests and values (Fouad et al., 2008).

9 Early research on contextual influences in career decision making focused on how gender  
10 (Astin, 1984; Betz & Hackett, 1981; Farmer, 1985) and race/ethnicity (Fouad, Cudeck, &  
11 Hansen, 1984; F. T. Leong, 1985; Smith, 1980) shape work decisions. Indeed, gender influences  
12 the interests that individuals express, the careers men and women consider, and the outcomes of  
13 those decisions (e.g., pay, satisfaction) (Cook et al 2002). From a very early age, children  
14 express a preference for a gender-stereotypic occupation (Miller & Budd 1999), and this  
15 continues through high school when choices begin to be implemented (Farmer, et al, 1995).  
16 While there have been some changes in the gender-stereotyping of occupations, some areas, and  
17 particularly engineering occupations, continue to be grossly underrepresented by women  
18 (National Science Foundation) and many areas, such as nursing, continue to be underrepresented  
19 by men (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009).

20 Researchers have consistently found that race and ethnicity does not influence career  
21 aspirations (e.g., their career dreams), but does influence the expectations of career (Fouad &  
22 Byars-Winston, 2005), as well as their perceptions of opportunities and barriers (Fouad &  
23 Walker, 2005; McWhirter, 1997). Here, too, the occupations chosen indicate significant

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1 differences across racial/ethnic groups, with more African Americans and Hispanics  
2 overrepresented in lower paying and semi-skilled occupations, while European Americans are  
3 more overrepresented in engineering and professional occupations (BLS, 2009)

4 More recently, scholars have examined additional contextual factors on work decisions,  
5 such as social class (Blustein, 2006; M. T. Brown, Fukunaga, Umemoto, & Wicker, 1996;  
6 Diemer & Ali, 2009) family (Schultheiss, Palma, Predragovich, & Glasscock, 2002; Whiston,  
7 1996), relationships (Flum, 2001; Schultheiss, 2003), and geographic location (Ali & Saunders,  
8 2009; (C. Brown, Darden, Shelton, & Dipoto, 1999; Chaves et al., 2004). In addition, several  
9 scholars (Blustein, 2006; Fouad, 2007; Fouad & Kantamneni, 2008) have urged the field to  
10 examine multiple dimensions (e.g., race *and* gender *and* social class) of context.

11 Thus, research in vocational psychology has increasingly emphasized the role of  
12 contextual factors in work-related decision-making, attainment, achievement, maintenance, and  
13 transitions. From a theoretical perspective, developmental contextualism (Vondracek & Fouad,  
14 1995) has supported the need to attend to a multitude of contextual factors across life domains  
15 and the lifespan (Fouad & Kantemneni, 2008). Social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown &  
16 Hackett, 1996) has also identified the importance of distal and proximal contextual factors,  
17 including family influences, previous learning, and sociocultural variables. The specific role of  
18 gender (Fitzgerald & Betz, 1990; others), culture (Byars-Winston & Fouad, 2005; Fouad &  
19 Bingham, 1995; Leong & Chou, 1994; Swanson & Fouad, 2010;), sexual orientation (Fassinger;  
20 Chung; others) and, more recently, socioeconomic status (Blustein; Phillips et al, Richardson,  
21 1993; Diemer, Wang, Moore et al, 2009) have been addressed in a number of empirical studies.  
22 Together, these findings provide significant information about the potential for contextual factors  
23 to serve as both barriers to and facilitators of vocational development.

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1           Psychologists are also encouraged to examine their own assumptions about helping  
2 clients make work related decisions. Traditional career or work counseling assumed that the  
3 individual was the decision maker. Flores (2009) outlined six central tenets that are hallmarks of  
4 traditional career counseling against which counselors must guard as they work from a  
5 multicultural perspective. The first is the tenet of universality, which assumes that career theories  
6 apply to all individuals regardless of their cultural context. More empirical studies are needed to  
7 validate theories across cultures. The second is an assumption of individualism and autonomy,  
8 but, as noted earlier, the family unit may be the decision maker. The third assumption is that  
9 clients have the luxury of time to spend making a career decision. However, many clients will  
10 need to make work decisions to find a job that pays for necessities, and in fact, for many working  
11 poor, their salaries do not even cover basic needs (Blustein, 2006). A fourth assumption is that  
12 hard work pays off and opportunities are available for all who try to find them. However, this is  
13 not true for individuals restricted in choices due to racial and sexual discrimination, as well as  
14 discrimination based on sexual orientation or social class. A fifth assumption is that work is  
15 central in people’s lives, but this may not be the case for all clients, for whom other life roles are  
16 more important. Finally, the sixth assumption is that helping clients make career decisions is a  
17 linear, lock-step process, focusing on rational decision-making. But some clients may benefit  
18 from a more intuitive approach than a linear one (Krieshok, 2009).

### 19 *Strategies for Implementation*

20           Given that evidence that contextual factors have a significant impact on work life,  
21 psychologists are encouraged to:

- 22           • Develop the understanding and skills to work with clients, students, and research  
23 participants from diverse groups (APA, 2003; Fouad & Kantamneni, 2008; Chronister,

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- 1           2006). This includes gaining an understanding of the role that culture may play in  
2           different groups, how various groups may express cultural values through work, and how  
3           work is perceived in various groups.
- 4           • Examine their own contextual factors that may impact their reaction to clients, students,  
5           research participants and others from diverse groups (Arredondo et al., 1996; Brewer &  
6           Brown, 1998; Fiske et al., 1998; Fouad & Brown, 2000; Smith, 2006)
  - 7           • Consider contextual factors in initial assessment of the client's current concerns (Subich,  
8           2005). Psychologists are encouraged to consider that some individuals may rely more on  
9           their family than themselves for career choices (Fouad & Bingham, 2005; Leong &  
10          Chou, 1994). In other cultures, career concerns may be an acceptable area to explore  
11          with a psychologist, and an opening to other areas of concern.
  - 12          • Be knowledgeable about the role of gender stereotyping in responses to interest  
13          inventories, and be able to help clients consider work and career options that go beyond  
14          the gender traditional (Betz, 2006; Perrone, 2009)
  - 15          • Examine with clients their perceptions and/or understanding of the impact of contextual  
16          factors on their current work aspirations, expectations, access, and attainment (Fouad &  
17          Byars-Winston, 2005). Examine the meaning of work to clients, such as survival,  
18          relationships or identity (Blustein, 2006). Help clients understand how racism may have  
19          influenced their perceptions of opportunities, and how cultural values may influence  
20          career aspirations (Diemer, Kauffman, Koenig et al 2006).
  - 21          • Integrate culturally-competent practices into work-related interventions (Byars –Winston  
22          & Fouad, 2006). This includes explicitly examining cultural influences on career  
23          decisions, on the career counseling goals that clients have, on their perceptions of

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1 problems, and the assessment process (Fouad & Bingham, 2005; Leong & Hartung,  
2 1997). Schultheiss (2006) emphasized the role context and culture in working with  
3 clients on work-related issues. Specific attention should be paid to dominant themes  
4 about work that emerge in a client’s narrative. Major themes might include self-  
5 affirmation, deprecation, and self-definition. Further, implicit messages about race,  
6 gender, family relationships are important areas of inquiry for practitioners. Counselors  
7 need to consider the notion that society often attributes individualism and separateness to  
8 maturity and success (Schultheiss, 2006).

9  
10 **Guideline # 5. Psychologists strive to understand how the individual negotiates multiple**  
11 **roles, including that of the worker.**

12 *Rationale*

13 Freud (1930) contended that success in work and love is the hallmark of mental health. In  
14 the past, however, the domains of work and love often have been researched separately.  
15 Researchers are increasingly attending to the importance of work and social connectedness.  
16 Often individuals meet their needs for connectedness through their work and families. Blustein  
17 (2001) contended that this separation of the worlds of work and family is not consistent with the  
18 experiences of people in which aspects of their lives are not neatly cordoned off into distinct  
19 segments. In the last 30 years as demographics within the workforce changed, particularly  
20 dramatic increases in women having paid employment, researchers began to examine the  
21 interface between work and family (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Belliva &, Frone, 2005; Halpern,  
22 2005).

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1           A prominent vocational psychologist, Donald Super (1980), was one of the first  
2 psychological theorists to focus on constellation of roles individuals experience across the life-  
3 span including the role of worker. The benefits of multiple roles for both men and women have  
4 been well-documented, with research findings showing that those who engage in multiple roles  
5 as compared to few roles tend to report lower levels of stress-related mental and physical health  
6 problems and higher levels of subjective well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 1981; Barnett & Marshall,  
7 1993; Crosby & Jaskar, 1993; Thoits, 2003). Frequently, the multiple roles assumed by  
8 individuals involve commitments to work and family. Paradoxically, although there is substantial  
9 research findings that support the benefits of multiple roles, the majority of research related to  
10 the interface among work and family has focused on conflict between the work/family domains.

11           Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) definition of work-family conflict had a significant  
12 influence on research in this area. Greenhaus and Beutell defined work-family conflict as "a  
13 form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are  
14 mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made  
15 more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (p. 77). Consistent with  
16 Greenhaus and Beutell, other prominent work-family researchers (e.g., Frone, Russell & Cooper,  
17 1992; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997; Parasuraman, Purohit & Godshalk, 1996) have argued  
18 that a focus on conflicting roles implies a bi-directional perspective (i.e., work-to-family conflict  
19 and family-to-work conflict) and recommended that the directionality of the conflict needs to be  
20 identified in order to understand the underpinning of the conflict. Furthermore, Frone (2003)  
21 contended that a lack of conflict does not necessarily equate to work-family balance and  
22 extended his model based on research (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992) to  
23 include the facilitatory effects work or family can have on the other domain. As with work-

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1 family conflict, he proposed that work-family facilitation or enrichment is bi-directional and that  
2 family can facilitate work life (family-to-work facilitation), just as work can have a positive  
3 influence on family (work-to-family facilitation).

4 In the United States, between 25 to 50% of individuals aged 25 to 54 who work half-time  
5 or more and reside with some form of family member(s), experienced some degree of work-to-  
6 family conflict (WFC). Family-to-work conflict (FWC) is less frequently reported with studies  
7 indicating that from 9.9% to 13.6% adult workers report FWC (Bellavia & Frone, 2005).  
8 Moreover, WFC and FWC are not exclusive to workers within the United States, as they are also  
9 evident within various international populations (e.g., Aryee, Fields & Luk, 1999; Cinamon &  
10 Rich, 2002; Demerouti, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2005; Kinnunen & Muano, 1998; Spector et al.,  
11 2005).

12 The outcomes of WFC and FWC have been the focus of considerable scholarly attention  
13 (see Eby et al., 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007) and these outcomes are relevant to  
14 practice guidelines for psychologists. WFC is negatively related to both life satisfaction and job  
15 satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Hughes and Galinsky (1994) found  
16 WFC was predictive of psychological distress and MacEwen and Barling (1994) found both  
17 WFC and FWC were positively related to anxiety and depression. This phenomenon does not  
18 appear to be exclusive to the United States; Dutch researchers (Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh, &  
19 Houtman, 2003) found with a large sample of Dutch workers that work-to-home conflict played  
20 a crucial role in the relationships between workload and both depressive mood and health  
21 complaints. These researchers suggested that demanding and arduous work can be mediated by a  
22 home that facilitates recovery; however, if the spillover from work to home is negative, then  
23 recovery time at home is reduced resulting in more health complaints and depressive symptoms.

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1 Frone, Russell, and Barnes (1996) found that WFC was related to depression, poor physical  
2 health, and heavy alcohol use. Frone (2000) found that individuals who reported experiencing  
3 work-to-family conflict often as compared to those who indicated no WFC were 3.13 times more  
4 likely to have a mood disorder, 2.46 times more likely to have an anxiety disorder, and 1.99  
5 times more likely to have a substance dependence disorder. It is not yet possible to assign  
6 causality, and future research should more fully examine whether characteristics such as  
7 resilience, optimism or temperament, may in fact result in more or less WFC.

8         Although less prevalent than WFC, FWC also is associated with some notable outcomes.  
9 FWC mainly affects the work domain and predicts dissatisfaction with work and work  
10 malfunction (e.g., Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992a, Frone, Yardley, &  
11 Markel, 1997; MacEwen & Barling, 1988), low levels of job performance (e.g., Aryee, 1992;  
12 Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), burnout (e.g., Cinamon & Rich, in press) and turnover  
13 intentions (e.g., Frone et al., 1992a). Frone (2000) found that FWC was also associated with  
14 anxiety disorders, mood disorders, and substance abuse. Moreover, individuals who often had  
15 FWC were 29.66 times more likely to have a mood disorder, 9.46 times more likely to have an  
16 anxiety disorder, and 11.36 times more likely to have a substance dependence disorder as  
17 compared with participants who reported that they did not experience FWC. There also seems to  
18 be some gender difference as Frone (2000) found relationship between FWC and anxiety  
19 disorders was stronger among men than among women. In addition, Hammer, Cullen, Neal,  
20 Sinclair and Shafiro (2005) also found as FWC increased, so did depressive symptoms for men,  
21 but not for women.

22         The interface of work and family does not simply produce negative outcomes as both  
23 work and family can positively influence the other domain. Researchers have found that work-to-

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1 family facilitation (WFF) is related to enhanced mental and physical well-being, lower levels of  
2 problem drinking (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), and greater  
3 organizational satisfaction and effort (Wayne et al., 2004). FWF appeared to assist clients in  
4 coping with anxiety disorders (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) and decreasing depressive symptoms  
5 (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005). Furthermore, WFF has an influential effect  
6 on decreasing WFC (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). In terms of family-to-work facilitation,  
7 Greenhaus and Powell (2006) noted that support received from a family member was related to  
8 career success, career development, and satisfaction at work.

9       Even though there is some research that WFC and FWC may affect men and women  
10 somewhat differently, there is substantial research that indicates there are no gender differences  
11 in terms of prevalence of either WFC or FWC (e.g., Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997; Frone,  
12 2000; Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Grzywacz and Marks (2000)  
13 found some gender differences in that women reported higher levels of positive spillover from  
14 work-to-family in contrast to men. FWF than WFF (Cinamon & Rich, in press; Grzywacz &  
15 Bass, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004). Consistently, researchers have found that family serves as a  
16 facilitatory agent toward the work domain more than work does toward the family domain  
17 (Cinamon & Rich, in press; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004).

### 18 *Strategies for Implementation*

19       Psychologists are encouraged to integrate family relationship dimensions and broad-  
20 based conceptualizations of work and vocational development so that psychological practice  
21 reflects the interwoven nature of work and family relationships. It is suggested that  
22 psychologists:

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- 1 • Discuss the interaction of work and other life roles with the client (Frone, 2000; Moser &  
2 Schuler, 2004), recognizing that these may vary across developmental stages (Super &  
3 Branimir, 1995). Super's (1990) concept of role saliency may be germane as Super  
4 emphasized the individuals have a constellation of life roles during their lives and the  
5 saliency of roles may vary depending on clients' values, contextual factors, and career  
6 stage. Super (1990) and Super, Savickas, and Super (1996) encouraged clinicians to assist  
7 clients in exploring the degree to which certain work and life roles are salient to their  
8 clients at that point in time.
- 9 • Recognize multiple life roles and inclusive definitions of work (i.e., paid work in the  
10 occupational structure and personal work that people do for themselves, their families  
11 and their communities). With many clients, there needs to be an understanding of family-  
12 based work responsibilities and commitments. Schultheiss (2009) documented that even  
13 with the increasing interest in work-family research, and its origins in feminist thought,  
14 crucial aspects of women's experiences have remained invisible. Schultheiss (2006)  
15 encourage psychologists to identify and validate multiple life roles and use an inclusive  
16 definition of work, thereby empowering clients to counter the risks of marginalization as  
17 it relates to personal or unpaid work in their lives.
- 18 • Integrate clients' work lives into psychotherapeutic practice. Blustein (2006, 2008) and  
19 Richardson (2009) advocated for counseling and psychotherapy that integrates work and  
20 relationships. These authors encouraged clinicians to consider a holistic rubric that  
21 includes a shift from away from focusing on occupations to more comprehensive  
22 conceptual view of work and a focus on relationships across personal and occupational  
23 domains.

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- 1       • Assess the meaning of work in people’s lives and how it interfaces with family lives.  
2       Using a constructivist approach, Savickas (2002, 2005) posited that individuals construct  
3       their careers by imposing meaning on their vocational experiences and behavior. Hence,  
4       psychologists may want to consider the client’s perceptions and definitions of work,  
5       family, and the interaction between work and family.
  
- 6       • Explore the degree to spillover from one domain in life (e.g., work) may spillover to  
7       another domain. This exploration should include both positive and negative spillover and  
8       the impact of this spillover on mental health and well-being.
  
- 9       • Intervene to assist individuals and families to navigate the challenges posed by the  
10      intersection of work and family. This could include collaborating with clients in  
11      identifying strategies for increase WFF and FWF. Interventions could also be  
12      preventative. For example, Cinamon (2006) examined the effectiveness of an  
13      interventions program designed to increase adolescents’ self-efficacy in managing work  
14      and family roles, in which preliminary analyses suggested that participants reported  
15      increased self-awareness and understanding of the importance of work-family planning.
  
- 16     • Understand the important role that a secure emotional base, provided through  
17      multidimensional support and the availability of others, can play in preparing individuals  
18      to deal more effectively with stressful situations, such as those encountered at work and  
19      in the vocational development process across the lifespan.
  
- 20     • Develop knowledge of diverse family structures and their influence on client’s career.  
21      For example, Stephens, Franks, Martire, Norton, and Atlenza (2009) concluded that it is

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1 often difficult for women who are attempting to balance their parent-care responsibilities  
2 with the challenges of their mother, wife, and employee roles.

- 3 • Lucas (1997) held that practitioners may need to approach the issue of family  
4 relationships differently for men and women. Specifically, practitioners may need to  
5 attend to feelings of guilt, anxiety, and need for approval with men, while women may  
6 benefit from a focus on self clarification and self confidence in work-related issues.
- 7 • Schultheiss (2006) suggested that when psychologists consider the meaning of work  
8 embedded in people’s lives, that cultural and national origin be considered. As stated  
9 above, researchers have found WFC and FWC in numerous countries; however,  
10 clinicians need to consider differing cultural influence on the manifestations of WFC and  
11 FWC. For example, Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that that WFC was relatively  
12 infrequent among immigrant Latino(a)s, but both the level and antecedent of WFC  
13 differed by gender.

14  
15 **Guideline # 6: Psychologists strive to understand how economic and social factors impact**  
16 **opportunities for and barriers to employment, and subsequently alter the career trajectory.**

17 In the last decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the world-of-work underwent complex changes,  
18 and these changes have become even more rapid and challenging in the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup>  
19 century (DeBell, 2006). Economic, political, and social forces have resulted in significant  
20 changes that will influence all participants in the work force, and their families, either directly or  
21 indirectly. Globalization and the ability to work across great distances through the use of  
22 technology are changing how, when, and where people engage in work (Van Esbroeck, Herr, &

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1 Savickas, 2005). Rapid changes, often accompanied by new technology and related skills sets,  
2 are contributing to an increased demand for workers who are highly adaptable and engaged in  
3 lifelong learning. Such changes are consistent with a long history of vocational practices being  
4 both influenced by and influential in social change, public policy and even legislative mandates  
5 (Herr, 2003). Such changes occur on global, national, and local levels, and are often well outside  
6 the control of the individual client and psychologist. Nonetheless, it is critical for psychologists  
7 to both be aware of and understand the impact these shifts have on individuals.

8         Thomas Friedman (2005), in a discussion of the impact of globalization, identified  
9 numerous changes to the world labor market that have or will impact all aspects of society.  
10 Although he identifies numerous opportunities for growth and prosperity, he also points out that  
11 ideas such as economic security are no longer accessible in the way they once were. This lack of  
12 security can contribute to increased levels of work stress (Spielberger, Vagg, & Wasala, 2003),  
13 which can increase vulnerability in individuals who might already be experiencing psychological  
14 stress at work (Jacobs & Blustein, 2008).

15         Periods of economic stress, such as recessions or depressions, also have a significant  
16 impact on employment and on well-being. During a time of recession, dissatisfaction and  
17 distress have been shown to increase significantly. In a national repeated-measures sample of  
18 more than 1,400 persons employed at the beginning of the mid-1970's recession in the US,  
19 Tausig and Fenwick (1999) found mean distress and dissatisfaction scores increased by half and  
20 a quarter of a standard deviation, respectively. Importantly almost 80% of the change in  
21 dissatisfaction and over half of the change in distress were related to labor market experiences,  
22 including job restructuring, insufficient pay, and changing job demands.

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1           Interestingly, in their meta-analysis of unemployment and mental health, Paul and Moser  
2 (2009) found that a favorable labor market made only a small contribution to differences in  
3 mental health as a function of employment. However, differences across countries on several  
4 related factors, including support for unemployed workers, relative wealth of the county (as  
5 measured by the Gross Domestic Product) and wealth disparities in the county, all influenced  
6 mental health indices. Specifically, in those countries with limited unemployment benefits,  
7 lower GDP, and greater wealth disparities, the mental health effects of unemployment were  
8 greater. In addition, trades (or “blue-collar”) workers, particularly men, were more likely to  
9 experiences greater mental health concerns than were others. In times of recession and economic  
10 strain, these individuals may be particularly vulnerable to negative mental health outcomes.

#### 11 *Strategies for Implementation*

12           Psychologists who work with diverse clients (which may include adolescents, adults,  
13 parents, and others in a variety of settings, including government, schools, business, and  
14 industry) are encouraged to have a fundamental understanding of the labor market, or the world  
15 of work, and its interaction with the development and well-being of and opportunities for  
16 individuals and groups (DeBell, 2006). Vocational psychologists have recognized the impact of  
17 these labor market changes by examining concepts such as career adaptability (Savickas, 1997)  
18 and career transitions. This research acknowledges that the average worker is entering into the  
19 workforce with much less likelihood of having a single “career” or “job” than any previous  
20 generation. Given that this circumstance is increasingly more common, psychologists are  
21 encouraged to:

- 22           • Recognize that the lack of work impacts individuals, communities, and organizations,  
23           from the local to the global level (Fouad, 2006). Inherent in this expectation is the ability

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1 to recognize how the community in which an individual lives might support or hinder his  
2 or her vocational goals and how economic changes contribute to community and  
3 individual well-being.

- 4 • Become familiar with the world of work, and with resources designed to help clients  
5 access work opportunities or pursue career advancement, appropriate to all stages of  
6 career and life development (Holland, 1996). Such resources might include guidance  
7 services for adolescents, job service or re-training offices in most communities, or  
8 programs that help older workers prepare for retirement.
- 9 • Help clients prepare for career transitions in response to changing technology and  
10 changing labor force demands. Work with clients to foster a stance of adaptability  
11 (Goodman, 1994; Savickas, 1997) and to use mindfulness interventions (Jacobs &  
12 Blustein, 2008). Adjustments to changes in work expectations might be addressed by  
13 helping clients understand their essential work-related needs and values, as well as the  
14 workplace demands that they are capable of fulfilling (Dawis, 2005).
- 15 • Develop skills in interventions designed to meet the needs of clients with limited  
16 opportunities for choice. Blustein, Kenna, Gill and Devoy (2008) recommended that  
17 psychologists work with clients in four specific ways: 1) develop a sense of  
18 empowerment that includes assertiveness and confidence to meet work aspirations; 2)  
19 increase critical consciousness and awareness of sources of privilege and oppression that  
20 impact vocational choice; 3) enhance skills that are relevant for employability in a  
21 changing labor force; and 4) use multiples sources of intervention, including case  
22 management and social advocacy, to support clients who encounter barriers to vocational  
23 aspirations.

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- 1     • Advocate for organizational and policy changes that reduce the barriers to sustaining and  
2       rewarding work, including those that are external to the individual. Specifically,  
3       psychologists can educate policy-makers about how the economic and political structure  
4       of a nation-state influences opportunities and diversity in work, as well as how changes  
5       and anticipated future trends in the economic or political structure impact the labor  
6       market and affect workers (Herr, 2003; 2008)).
- 7     • Examine how globalization has impacted work around the world in both developed and  
8       emerging economies, paying particular attention to their ability to serve as agents of  
9       social change in developing economies where workers earn less than a living wage as a  
10      matter of course (Blustein, McWhirter, & Perry, 2005; Sloan, 2005).
- 11    • Attend to and be aware of the factors that have created and sustain globalization, as well  
12      as the predictions about the impact of a global economy on future work and workers  
13      (Friedman, 2005). Included in this awareness is the need to attend to how specific re-  
14      training (such as increasing technology skills) may help individual clients identify and  
15      take advantage of the opportunities that are emerging in a changing labor market.  
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