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NICEC STATEMENT

The Fellows of NICEC agreed the following statement in 2010.

'The National Institute for Career Education and Counselling (NICEC) was originally founded as a research institute in 1975. It now plays the role of a learned society for reflective practitioners in the broad field of career education, career guidance/counselling and career development. This includes individuals whose primary role relates to research, policy, consultancy, scholarship, service delivery or management. NICEC seeks to foster dialogue and innovation between these areas through events, networking, publications and projects.

NICEC is distinctive as a boundary-crossing network devoted to career education and counselling in education, in the workplace, and in the wider community. It seeks to integrate theory and practice in career development, stimulate intellectual diversity and encourage transdisciplinary dialogue. Through these activities, NICEC aims to develop research, inform policy and enhance service delivery.

Membership and fellowship are committed to serious thinking and innovation in career development work. Membership is open to all individuals and organisations connected with career education and counselling. Fellowship is an honour conferred by peer election and signals distinctive contribution to the field and commitment to the development of NICEC's work. Members and Fellows receive the NICEC journal and are invited to participate in all NICEC events.

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CO-EDITORS OF THE JOURNAL

April 2021 issue:

Michelle Stewart
MStewart1918@outlook.com
Lyn Barham
lynbarham@gmail.com

October 2021 issue:

Phil McCash
p.t.mccash@warwick.ac.uk

EDITORIAL BOARD

Lyn Barham, Anthony Barnes, Alison Dixon, Charles Jackson, Phil McCash, Claire Nix, Peter Robertson and Michelle Stewart.

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The NICEC journal publishes articles on the broad theme of career development in any context including:

- Career development in the workplace: private and public sector; small, medium and large organisations, private practitioners.
- Career development in education: schools, colleges, universities, adult education, public career services.
- Career development in the community: third age, voluntary, charity, social organisations, independent contexts, public career services.

It is designed to be read by individuals who are involved in career development-related work in a wide range of settings including information, advice, counselling, guidance, advocacy, coaching, mentoring, psychotherapy, education, teaching, training, scholarship, research, consultancy, human resources, management or policy. The journal has a national and international readership.



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Membership of NICEC is also available (£75 pa or £50 pa for full-time students). Members receive the journal, free attendance at NICEC events and other benefits.

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EDITORIAL

- 2 Manifestations of change
Michelle Stewart

ARTICLES

- 3 Access and partnership: How schools in England responded to changes in career guidance services in the first two decades of the 21st century
David Andrews
- 10 The (faltering) renaissance of theory in higher education careers practice
David Winter and Julia Yates
- 18 The development of career guidance roles and their professionalism: 1999–2020
John Gough
- 25 What has digital technology done for us and how can we evolve as a sector to make best use of what it has to offer?
Nicki Moore
- 32 Career Development and Coaching: Straddling two worlds and bringing them together
Gill Frigerio and Stephanie Rix
- 39 Career development and older people
Lyn Barham
- 47 Supporting career development in organisations: Drivers, practices and challenges
Wendy Hirsh

NEWS

- 56 Memories of Bill Gothard
- 58 Call for papers
- 59 Forthcoming events

Manifestations of change

Welcome to this issue of the Journal of the National Institute for Career Education and Counselling. As 2020 arrived several NICEC Fellows realised that twenty years had passed since David Peck's publication 'Careers Services; history, policy and practice in the UK,' and thought it was an opportune moment to consider the changes since. Hence, this edition explores some of the many manifestations of change between 1999-2020 within careers: education, career theory, professionalism, digital technology, career coaching and guidance, older workers and the world of work. Each article reflects the authors' expert knowledge and offers critical reflections and analysis from a personal perspective. Thank you to all who have contributed.

We also pay tribute to the late Bill Gothard, former Director of the Career Studies Unit at the University of Reading, and seminal figure who pioneered the bridging of counselling and educational traditions in career development work.

First among the articles, we have the authoritative voice of **David Andrews** who provides a discerning analysis of how schools in England responded to the many changes in career guidance services since 1999. Next, **David Winter and Julia Yates** take us on a didactic journey to reveal the challenges of bringing together theory and practice within higher education. This is followed by a carefully considered critique of the development of career guidance roles and their professionalism between 1999-2020 by **John Gough**, and aligns with the enlightening article by **Nicki Moore** on the proliferation in the use of information technology and digital skills development within the sector. We move on to share in an exploratory narrative that informatively brings together career development and coaching by **Gill Frigerio and Stephanie Rix**, before turning our minds to career development and older workers: a well-researched, reflective critique by **Lyn Barham**. Finally, like many a successful career journey, we arrive in the world of work where **Wendy Hirsh** delights us with her captivating insights into careers from the employers' perspective.

The articles reveal much has changed in the last twenty years while many of the same challenges remain. Flung into a pandemic by March 2020 new innovative ways of working have been quickly identified with digital resources and online platforms taking centre stage. But it remains valuable to reflect on how we arrived and the journey that brought us here.

Michelle Stewart, Editor

Access and partnership: How schools in England responded to changes in career guidance services in the first two decades of the 21st century

David Andrews

Over the past 20 years career guidance services for young people in England have undergone two major changes: from privatised careers companies to Connexions, followed by the dismantling of the national service. This article examines how schools responded to these changes. It argues that, while schools have been given more responsibility for making sure pupils have access to career guidance, the range of provision has become wider, in terms of type of provider, level of support and quality. The article concludes with an analysis of the impact on the partnership between schools and providers of career guidance services, and poses questions about the lack of support for young people not in school.



Before Connexions: a national careers service delivered locally and available to all young people

The 1973 Employment and Training Act established, for the first time in England and Wales, a truly national career guidance service, delivered through local education authorities (LEAs) and available to all young people. It is important to remember that the service was set up as a service for young people, not a service to educational institutions. In practice almost all the LEAs chose to operate through schools and colleges, basing their staff in offices in town centres and other community settings but conducting careers interviews with young people on school and college premises.

Most services adopted the approach of careers officers visiting schools for one or two days each week while also remaining available to young people in their careers offices, including out of school hours and in the holidays. The professional staff in the service included not only mainstream careers officers but also specialist roles such as older leaver careers officers, special needs careers officers and unemployment specialist careers officers.

This era is often characterised as the time when the partnership approach to careers education and guidance was established in England, with schools and colleges setting up careers libraries and developing programmes of careers education and the careers service being principally responsible for providing individual career guidance. A study by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), commissioned by the Department of Employment in 1995, identified three levels of partnership working between the Careers Service and schools. In the first, *parallel* model there was little joint planning between the school and the Careers Service: the two elements of the careers education and guidance programme ran alongside each other with limited interaction. In the second, *pyramidal* model the guidance interview was seen as the culmination of the process and the role of the school was to prepare pupils for this 'event'. In turn the Careers Service would provide some support to schools with planning and delivering the careers education programme. In the third level of partnership, referred to as the *guidance community* model, the interview was viewed as an integral part of the overall provision and the outcomes were used to inform the future development of the careers education programme (Morris et al., 1995).

These approaches and working practices remained fundamentally the same throughout the twenty or so years of the LEA-based service and continued when the Careers Service was privatised in the 1990s. The 66 private careers companies that delivered the career guidance service for young people were still funded by the Department of Employment and their duties were set nationally by the Secretary of State. At the local level the working arrangements between the schools and the Careers Service were formalised in, firstly, service level agreements (SLAs) and, later, partnership agreements. The Careers Service Unit in the Employment Department published detailed annual planning guidance, which set out the requirements and standards for the service, and the local services were inspected by the Unit's Careers Service Inspectorate.

In summary the situation that existed in England at the end of the 20th century was that young people had access to a national career guidance service, delivered primarily through their school but which they could also access through local careers offices. The service was specified and funded by national government and available to all young people. Schools and colleges worked in partnership to ensure that young people could gain access to the support they needed, at the time they needed it. Before going on to look at what happened in response to replacing the Careers Service with Connexions, and subsequently closing the service, it is necessary to explore further the principles and practice of universal access.

Throughout the 1970s and for most of the 1980s schools could be confident that the local careers service was sufficiently well resourced to meet the guidance needs of their pupils. All fifth year pupils [now Year 11] could have an interview as could all sixth form students who requested one, and there was usually enough capacity for the careers officers to also see some younger aged pupils. This was the era of what some have called 'blanket interviews', when careers officers simply worked through the lists of pupils, sometimes by form or alphabetically. However practice soon evolved to determining the interview schedule by guidance need, while still retaining access for all. Towards the end of the 1980s this more targeted approach to interviewing became more common. A reduction in LEA budgets for the careers service may have been a factor, but adopting a more

differentiated approach was seen mainly as better professional practice, recognising that some young people needed more help than others.

This approach continued into the 1990s and privatisation, but this decade eventually saw the return of blanket interviewing, now termed entitlement interviews. It came about because of the need of central government to find a straightforward means of determining the budgets for the private careers companies and monitoring their contracts to deliver the service. The Treasury settled on the simple approach of counting interviews: each company was set the target of interviewing every Year 11 pupil in their area and the contract was monitored by scrutinising the number of action plans produced as a result of the interviews. Thus, by the mid-1990s, schools had become accustomed to all their Year 11 pupils being entitled to a careers interview, but the schedule of interviews was determined by priorities of need.

This situation changed at the end of the decade, after the 1997 General Election saw the Conservative government replaced by New Labour. The new administration made tackling social exclusion a policy priority and, having inherited a privatised careers service whose duties it could direct, the government required the service to refocus its work on the disadvantaged. An updated version of the annual planning guidance required the Careers Service to focus its interviews on those young people with greatest need and, at the same time, to help schools build their capacity to support pupils (DfEE, 1998). While schools understood the principle behind this move they became concerned that decisions about which pupils would fall into the priority groups were made on the basis of factors set for the Careers Service by the Department of Employment, and that a consequence of the change would be that some pupils who needed guidance might not be able to gain access to a careers interview. This presaged not only the change from the Careers Service to Connexions, but also the schools' further concerns about access to career guidance for all young people.

It should also be noted that schools did not all respond to what became known as 'the focusing agenda' in the same way. Research commissioned by

the DfEE from the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) in 2000-01 found that, while many schools with good provision of careers education and guidance improved their support further as the Careers Service focused on a small number of pupils, several that had weaker provision reduced their support as the Careers Service lowered its level of interviews (Morris et al., 2001). As reported later, this tendency for a change in the external provision to trigger different responses within schools continues to the present day.

Connexions: a universal career guidance service and a targeted youth support service

At the turn of the century the Careers Service for young people in England was replaced by the Connexions service. The intention of the New Labour government was to establish a youth support service that could provide information, advice and guidance (IAG) on the full range of issues faced by young people and thereby make a major contribution to tackling the problems of social exclusion. The former Careers Service was required to work closely with other services such as the youth and community service, social services and various health agencies, to provide joined up support for young people, particularly those identified as disadvantaged, disengaged and disaffected. The former careers advisers became personal advisers and worked alongside personal advisers from other partner organisations to provide the new service.

The duty on central government to provide career guidance support for young people, set out in the 1973 Employment and Training Act, remained in place and the Secretary of State for Education and Skills moved responsibility from the former privatised careers companies to the 47 Connexions partnerships covering England. The role of Connexions was therefore twofold: to provide both a targeted youth support service and the universal careers guidance service (Connexions Service National Unit, 2001). The former Careers Service had always recognised that some young people needed more support than others, and that there were a significant minority who

faced various personal, social and economic issues that required attention before they were ready to think about their futures in learning and work. Consequently, the service had already worked with other agencies to provide support to young people. Moving into Connexions the concern was not providing the wider support service but whether it could continue to provide the universal career guidance service alongside the more targeted support.

This concern was shared by the schools. Many schools, particularly those with higher proportions of pupils in the priority groups for the targeted support, welcomed the new service but questions remained about whether Connexions would be able to provide the level of career guidance support they had previously received. The original intention was that staffing levels of personal advisers in the new service would be sufficient to provide both arms of the service but once the partnerships were established it became clear that the budgets would not be adequate. A further cause for concern was the headline target that the service was given and how this determined the priorities for its work. The main target that the Connexions partnerships were held accountable for was reducing the number of young people who were NEET (not engaged in education, employment or training). Understandably this led to Connexions focussing its resources on the targeted youth support service, and moving young people off the NEET register, despite the argument that investing in a universal career guidance service could help prevent young people falling into the NEET category in the first place. Some personal adviser time was taken out of schools, to provide support for young people disengaged from the education system, and the allocation of adviser time to schools was determined by the level of potentially NEET young people in the school.

In several respects schools welcomed the wider, more integrated support provided by Connexions and set up mechanisms for pastoral staff to work together to determine how best to work with the new service. But counter to this many schools, particularly those with lower numbers of disadvantaged and disaffected pupils, were concerned about the reduction in the volume of career guidance interviews available, and feared that not all young people would be able to access support

when they needed it. To compensate for the lack of access to careers advisers, schools invested more of their own staff time in providing career guidance to their pupils, often with staff who were not qualified in career guidance. A few schools also purchased additional careers adviser time from private providers. These concerns did not go away and eventually the Connexions partnerships were dissolved. In 2008 responsibility for providing the service was transferred to local authorities (LAs). The LAs were still expected to provide both the targeted service and career guidance, and encouraged to retain the Connexions brand, but they were left to determine the appropriate balance between the two parts of the service at the local level. In some areas this change led to what schools perceived as an improved career guidance service but not necessarily at the level they wanted for their pupils.

By the end of the first decade of the 21st century responsibility for career guidance had been returned to local authorities but as part of a wider IAG service. Schools continued to work in partnership with the service but had concerns about the level of career guidance support available and sometimes supplemented the service provided by the local authority from their own resources. However, because the amount of careers adviser time available was limited, schools had put in place better mechanisms for identifying pupils' guidance needs, through establishing guidance forums comprising the key members of staff involved, including the careers coordinator, pastoral managers and the SENCO, and by developing more integrated approaches to tutoring, mentoring and guidance. This was to prove to be good preparation for the next change in the national service – its dismantling.

The closure of the national service: responsibility for career guidance transferred to schools and colleges

In 2010 the New Labour government was replaced by the Conservative-Liberal Democrat Coalition. In the very early days the new administration set out proposals to introduce an all-age, national careers

service similar to that which Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland had each established following devolution in the 1990s, and building on the best of the Connexions service for young people and the Next Steps service for adults. However, this failed to materialise as the Department for Education (DfE) decided not to fund the new National Careers Service to provide face-to-face career guidance for young people. Instead the Connexions/IAG service provided by local authorities was reduced to the targeted youth support service only and the Secretary of State's responsibility for ensuring access to career guidance for young people was transferred to individual schools and colleges with effect from 2012. While responsibility for providing the service was transferred to schools, none of the funding that local authorities had spent on the career guidance part of Connexions was passported to schools. For almost 40 years young people in England had had access to career guidance from a national service, locally delivered and funded by central government. From 2012 this access would only continue if schools met their new statutory duty 'to secure access to independent careers guidance' (Education Act 2011) and found the money to pay for this service from within their existing budgets.

The legislation that introduced this change in provision defined independent as delivered by services external to the school (DfE, 2012). This was viewed as a means of ensuring impartiality, and required schools to buy in career guidance services. By the early 2010s schools had had almost 30 years' experience of devolved budgets and purchasing resources and services, but they had never before had to commission career guidance support. Furthermore, careers services had only limited experience of selling their services. The market for career guidance for young people was under-developed, from the perspective of both parties. Nevertheless, schools had to put something in place from September 2012, not just because they had a legal requirement to do so but also because they wanted to make sure their pupils continued to have access to career guidance.

The arrangements that schools set up were determined in part by the providers that were available in the local area. Some LAs continued to provide the universal career guidance service, alongside the targeted youth support service that

they were required to provide, but now on a traded basis and a few more enterprising LAs also offered their services to schools in neighbouring authorities. Many LAs, however, simply closed down their career guidance service and schools were forced to look elsewhere. Similarly, some of the careers companies that had provided the career guidance service to LAs under a commissioning arrangement moved to selling their services to individual schools, while others opted out of the careers guidance business, or went into administration when they found they were unable to maintain a viable business model.

A range of models emerged. Schools bought in services from the following different external sources:

- local authority traded services
- private careers companies
- sole traders (mainly qualified career advisers made redundant following the closure of Connexions)
- education business partnerships (some EBPs recruited careers advisers and extended their services beyond support for work-related learning and enterprise, to include the provision of career guidance)
- new social enterprises, set up by groups of careers advisers

(Andrews, 2012).

A few FE colleges and universities also made their careers services available to schools and in at least one area of the country with 11-16 schools and sixth form colleges the headteachers and principals got together to set up an arrangement whereby careers advisers employed by the sixth form colleges provided the career guidance service in the 11-16 schools.

This patchwork of provision emerged from 2012 onwards. An early survey found that in the first year of the new policy only one in five schools were effective in ensuring that all pupils in Years 9, 10 and 11 were receiving the level guidance they needed, (Ofsted, 2013). Two years later research commissioned by the DfE found that although the situation had improved, one in three schools were not meeting their statutory duty to secure access to independent career guidance for all pupils who needed it (Gibson et al., 2015).

Some schools chose not to buy in services from an external source but decided instead to provide career guidance support internally, using their own staff. Although the legislation stated that guidance should be provided by an external source, the subsequent statutory guidance for schools offered more flexibility by indicating that schools could continue with internal arrangements as long as these were supplemented by access to an external source as well. Schools either recruited a qualified careers adviser on to the staff or trained a member of staff in career guidance. Later versions of the statutory guidance became more permissive of this arrangement and by the time the Gatsby benchmarks (Gatsby, 2014) were endorsed by the DfE there was a clear statement that career guidance interviews could be provided by a career adviser who was internal or external (DfE 2018).

The statutory guidance to schools sets out the legal duties placed on the governing body to provide independent careers guidance but it does not go into anything like the level of detail found within the former Requirements & Guidance for Providers planning guidance for careers services. Schools are not provided with a set of standards to follow and have been left to determine for themselves how to meet the statutory duty. Consequently the level and quality of career guidance provided to pupils continues to vary from school to school and this situation is likely to persist while there remains no detailed specification of the service nor any rigorous monitoring to schools' adherence to the statutory duty.

The professional institute for careers professionals, the Career Development Institute (CDI), has played an important role in helping to support schools and to promote professional standards by publishing a guide to commissioning career guidance services (CDI, 2014), which recommends that schools should work with services that meet the matrix standard, and establishing both a Code of Ethics and a Professional Register of Career Development Professionals. The Institute also lobbied both the DfE and the Gatsby Foundation about the need for career guidance interviews to be provided by appropriately trained and qualified careers advisers. The benchmark schools are now expected to follow states that while the careers adviser can be internal or external, they should be qualified to at least Level 6 in career guidance.

It is worth noting that the arrangement for career guidance for young people in state schools in England is now the same as it has been for independent schools for many years. The original LEA-based careers services, and later the privatised services, did provide a service in partnership with independent schools, because the service was for young people not for schools, but it was at a significantly lower level than in state schools. Consequently independent schools had for some time recruited their own careers advisers or purchased a service from private providers such as the Independent Schools Careers Organisation (ISCO, later to become Inspiring Futures). The provision is now the same in both the public and private sectors. Schools buy in services from their own budgets, with no additional resource, or provide career guidance using their own staff. The only difference is that state schools are required to make the service available to pupils.

The range of delivery models continues, although schools keep their programmes under review and some have changed their approach over the years. Another more recent development is that more schools are now commissioning services as a group, often as a multi-academy trust (MAT), rather than individually. This brings economies of scale and enables careers advisers to move between schools to meet peaks and troughs in demand, and cover for absences.

Access

This article has described how schools have responded to changes in the provision of career guidance for young people in England over the past 20 years. In essence the national service, delivered locally, has been replaced by a patchwork of several thousand different services based on individual schools. With no designated funding allocated to schools and limited monitoring of provision access for young people is patchy. The Careers Strategy (DfE, 2017) expects all schools to adopt the Gatsby benchmarks and benchmark 8 states that every pupil should have at least one interview by the age of 16, and the opportunity for another by the age of 18, but the most recent analysis of data, based on a sample of 3,296 schools and colleges, shows that by March 2020 only 63% of institutions had managed to fully achieve that

benchmark (The Careers & Enterprise Company, 2020). Work is underway to research best practice in relation to the delivery of career guidance and identifying pupils' guidance needs, but it remains questionable whether all pupils will have access to career guidance without an increase in funding to schools.

The Careers Service that was established in the 1970s was for all young people, and delivery was through a combination of work in schools and access to high street careers offices. The current policy assumes that all young people are in a school or college, but this is not the case. A significant minority of young people are not in school, for a variety of reasons including the tens of thousands who are home-educated. These young people have no access to career guidance. The problem has been highlighted by the Covid-19 pandemic, and while the budget for the National Careers Service has been increased to provide additional support to adults affected by the health crisis, the remit of the service has not been extended to cover young people not able to access a school-based service.

Partnership

Some commentators have referred to the introduction of the school-based model of career guidance in England as the end of a partnership approach, but schools cannot deliver a comprehensive careers programme in isolation. As the Gatsby benchmarks illustrate, to provide young people with the full range of experiences necessitates the school working with several different external partners, including employers, colleges, universities, apprenticeship providers and, indeed, guidance providers. In this sense, the partnership with careers services continues but in a different form. It takes on a client-contractor arrangement, with the school commissioning a provider to deliver the personal career guidance element of the programme, and replacing the former SLA or partnership agreement with a contract.

The introduction of a new statutory duty to provide access to independent careers guidance passed responsibility direct to schools. The careers strategy built on this approach by requiring all schools to have a named careers leader, responsible for leading and managing the whole careers programme but

orchestrating the contributions of all players, including external partners. Reference was made earlier to three levels of partnership working. The current approach can be viewed as a further development of the *guidance community* model, with the school leading the community of partners and managing all the elements into a coherent programme of support for young people.

The Future?

The challenges for the immediate future are to find ways of resourcing the provision of career guidance at a level sufficient to meet the needs of all pupils and to make provision for young people who are not in school. In January 2021 the DfE published outline details of the next phase of its strategy for improving the provision of career guidance in England and tackling the fragmentation of the service (DfE, 2021, pp. 44-47). The proposals include a longer-term review of the delivery system but it remains to be seen if this will lead to the changes needed to ensure that all young people have access to career guidance when they need it.



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For correspondence

David Andrews,
NICEC Fellow
davidandrews_ceg@hotmail.com

The (faltering) renaissance of theory in higher education careers practice

David Winter & Julia Yates

This article charts the changes in career development theory and practice within UK higher education over the past two (and a bit) decades. We outline some of the social, economic and political drivers that have influenced both theory and practice over this time and examine the extent to which theory and practice have influenced each other - revealing a paucity of dialogue between theory and practice at a strategic service delivery level. We end with some suggestions for bringing these two strands closer and a call for further evaluation of the potential for theory to inform practice and vice versa.



Defining career theory

For careers practitioners in higher education (HE), theory was for a long time viewed as something that one struggled with as part of a qualification but then forgot about as one started work. There was little dialogue between careers practitioners and careers academics. As a result, if theory was considered, it was likely to be limited to older theories of career choice and development and a counselling approach to guidance practice.

From the mid-1990s onwards a number of policy initiatives have transformed HE careers practice and caused it to diverge from the trends apparent in the development of career theory. However, the continued emphasis of the importance of graduate employability as a measure of the quality of HE has led to a focus on the effectiveness of careers interventions and a motivation to embed careers within mainstream academic activities. These developments have stimulated a greater strategic interest in research and

the academic underpinning of careers practice, although there are still many obstacles to the integration of theory and practice in HE careers.

In discussing the relationship between theory and practice in higher education we consider a wide range of activities included within career development practice and adopt a broad definition of career theory which includes:

- definitions of career and theories of career success
- theories of career choice and development
- theories of the purpose of career development support
- theoretical models of the practice of career development support.

The mid-1990s to the early 2010s

In 2001, the much-awaited Harris Report (DfEE 2001) damningly described higher education careers provision as a 'Cinderella service', which offered high quality support, but operated at the margins of the institutions with little influence or presence in students' lives. At this time, the hour-long one-to-one guidance interview was still a major feature of careers service provision but, in response to the increasing ratio of students to careers staff, services had already begun to introduce career interventions that would better suit the requirements of mass higher education. Services were offering shorter one-to-one interventions (10–20 minutes) and there was a move towards increased groupwork and teaching. This led to a growing interest in careers education or career development learning, although resistance from academics meant that groupwork in departments often

took the form of occasional and optional sessions which were not always well attended.

During this period there were two policy initiatives which had a significant impact on the university landscape and the work of careers services. From 1987 to 1996, the Enterprise in Higher Education (EHE) initiative of the then Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) incentivised the development of a range of activities within universities aimed at developing student entrepreneurship, helping students to develop and record workplace skills and support them in developing and applying career self-management skills (Butcher, 2007; Watts, 2006). The second policy initiative was the Dearing Report (National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education, 1997) which paved the way for the introduction of student tuition fees in the UK. This has led to an increasingly commoditised view of HE with a strong focus on value for money, which has been primarily equated with universities equipping students for successful graduate careers by enhancing their *employability*. This was measured by defining a set of acceptable occupational and further study outcomes for graduates as recorded in the Destination of Leavers of Higher Education (DLHE) survey and publicised through university league tables. Whilst this political focus brought additional resources to careers services, it also brought with it an ideological tension. The liberal ideology traditionally espoused by careers professionals, influenced by the principles of non-directive counselling, began to give way to a practice driven by a progressive ideology focused on transforming graduates to better suit the needs of the labour market (Watts, 2002, 2007).

As the notion of graduate employability began to dominate within HE, there was increased investment in and diversification of university careers services, with particular growth in the provision of placements and other forms of experience thought to enhance employability. A number of new roles were created in this area as well as those focusing on increasing engagement with employers and students. The presence of graduate employability on the agendas of university senior management meant that academic departments were increasingly willing (albeit sometimes grudgingly) to engage with careers professionals and it became more common for career

development learning to be included in the curriculum (AGCAS, 2005; Yorke & Knight, 2006).

Career service practice was being heavily shaped by policy but these new ways of working were not generally supported or guided by developments in the career literature. One-to-one guidance in practice was shifting away from long guidance interviews but, in contrast, the literature was focusing on time-consuming narrative approaches which, although attractive to practitioners, were not always practical within the HE context (Reid & West, 2011). Literature provided nearly no theoretical or empirical basis for the shorter, drop-in interventions which had become ubiquitous in HE careers services (Osborn et al., 2016). Careers services were increasingly being expected to get more involved in work in the curriculum, but reference to mainstream pedagogical theories was all but absent within the career literature (Yates, 2015).

Even though the concept dominated HE careers at this time, there was no broadly agreed theoretical articulation of what graduate employability was, other than as some form of human capital (Becker, 1993) until the latter half of this period (Dacre Pool & Sewell, 2007; Gilworth, 2018; Yorke, 2006). Many institutions developed employability strategies and, although only a few of these made reference to explicit theoretical concepts, they could be defined by three primary perspectives on employability which pointed towards implicit theoretical assumptions (Holmes, 2013):

- ‘possessive’ – focusing on students’ acquisition of desired workplace skills or graduate attributes;
- ‘positioning’ – focusing on students’ accumulation of various forms of human, social and psychological capital; or
- ‘processual’ – focusing on the development of attitudes and behaviours that increase students’ chances of making successful career transitions.

For many practitioners, during this time, career theory played an insignificant role in their professional practice, in part because the theories bore such little relevance to career practitioners’ everyday work but also in part due to a culture that did not value or prioritise academic research. Yet here and there,

there were the germs of a renaissance in interest in theory. In the absence of many usable insights from the career theorists, some careers guidance practitioners began to look to areas such as positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Yates, 2013) and to incorporate new approaches from therapy and coaching into their career guidance practice, especially those which could be more readily incorporated into shorter interactions (Law et al., 2014; Rochat & Rossier, 2016; Yates, 2014).

During this period, the authors started working as HE careers professionals and developed a strong interest in theories. They developed training for colleagues in applying theory to reflective practice (Winter, 2012) and David started a blog on the subject which brought together careers professionals across the HE sector with a similar interest (Winter, 2011). Career guidance training courses began to increase their focus on theories and considered ways to integrate theory in practice. In order to make it more relevant to this widening range of career professional roles, much of the content related exclusively to one-to-one guidance was eventually removed from the Career Development Theories module of the qualification course provided in collaboration by the Association of Graduate Careers Advisory Services (AGCAS) and the University of Warwick.

The mid-2010s to the present day

The position of universities as competitors within a commercial marketplace whose product is employment-ready graduates was further reinforced in this period by more policy initiatives: the removal of student number controls from English universities in 2013 (Hillman, 2015), the creation of the Teaching Excellence and Student Outcomes Framework in 2016 (Office for Students, 2019) in which graduate employment outcomes are a key metric, and the creation of the Office for Students (OfS) as the 'market' regulator for HE. All of this has continued to focus attention on graduate outcomes and put pressure on universities to demonstrate a return on investment for students. In 2017 student records were combined with data from HM Revenue & Customs and the Department for Work & Pensions

to produce Longitudinal Educational Outcomes (LEO), which focuses primarily on the earnings of graduates one, three or five years after graduation. Despite its much-publicised limitations, this data has received a lot of attention from policy makers (Universities UK, 2019). This focus on graduate outcomes, with particular attention being paid to earnings, increasingly emphasises the value of objective career success, defined by prestige and salary, to the exclusion of other measures of success (Mayrhofer et al., 2016; Ng et al., 2005). Once again, we see a mismatch between the policy-driven emphasis of careers practice and the preoccupations directing the development of theory. Whilst the policy upholds the idea that a good graduate outcome can be measured by salary, the career literature is becoming increasingly interested in more subjective interpretations of career success with in-depth exploration of the idea of work as a calling (Duffy et al., 2018), a recognition of the value of meaningful work (Lysova et al., 2019) and focus on constructivist approaches to career practice (McMahon, 2016).

Elsewhere there are more encouraging examples of closer links between theory and practice. This spotlighting of graduate employability has led to more widespread attempts to integrate careers, employability and enterprise into core teaching. This, in turn, has led to more interest by careers professionals in pedagogical theories (AGCAS Curriculum Design Task Group, 2019; Artess et al., 2017; HEA, 2016; QAA, 2018) and an increased number of HE career practitioners undertaking post-graduate qualifications in learning and teaching. There has also been some interest in a more structured theoretical approach to understanding graduate employability capital with, for example, Tomlinson's (2017) model forming the basis of employability strategies or career development curricula at a number of UK universities.

As the role of the careers service becomes increasingly central in HE institutions, the impetus to engage in evidence-based practices grows. In 2012, the University of Leeds introduced Careers Registration (CR) – the inclusion of two simple questions into the annual mandatory student enrolment registration. The first question was a self-reported assessment of the student's level of career decidedness and readiness

to engage in career planning. The second question collected information on the extent to which a student had undertaken work experience or activities aimed at enhancing their career development and their attractiveness to employers. For the first time this gave university careers professionals an opportunity to track the career thinking of all students during their time at university and subsequently allowed them to link that to their progression beyond their studies. At the time of writing, over 80 UK HE institutions have adopted versions of CR and it has also been implemented at institutions in Australia and New Zealand. It is beginning to have a profound impact on the design, delivery and evaluation of careers and employability activities in universities as well as placing new demands on careers professionals and provoking a certain amount of interest in practitioner research and scholarship (Cobb, 2019; Winter, 2018). The ability to demonstrate a relationship between a student's career decidedness and their eventual employment outcomes has begun to provide careers professionals with ammunition to promote the importance of supporting students' career decision making as well as enhancing their employability capital.

Further tentative signs of a gradual alignment of practice to theory have emerged. Beverley Oliver's reworking of the widely-accepted Yorke (2006, p. 8) definition of graduate employability includes an explicit reference to '*meaningful* paid and unpaid work' (Oliver, 2015, p. 59). The new Graduate Outcomes survey, designed to replace DLHE, shifts the survey date to 15 months after graduation, acknowledging the fact that it may take graduates more than six months to establish themselves in relevant employment. It also includes so-called 'student voice' questions about the relevance and meaningfulness of the graduates' employment (Kernohan, 2020). This raises the potential for focusing more on subjective elements of career success for graduates. However, the usefulness and impact of these changes are still undetermined.

Past, present and future challenges to the marriage of theory and practice

If careers practitioners are to retain or improve their status in HE, they need to be able to claim the position

of experts in graduate careers and employability within their institutions (Thambar, 2018). Amongst other things, this necessitates having a strong grasp of relevant theoretical developments in order to promote informed and evidence-based practice. Professional bodies, heads of services and career practitioners generally share the view that this is important but there are several barriers that stand in the way.

First there are practical challenges. As universities have expanded and employability has taken a more central role in HE institutions, workloads have increased. More recently, the outbreak of the global Covid-19 pandemic in early 2020 has seen many careers services frantically adapting their various services for remote delivery (Hammond et al., 2020). The impact of the pandemic on global economies and labour markets is likely to put further pressures on careers services to support a lost generation of graduates at a time when a significant proportion of services are facing cuts to budgets and staffing as a result of uncertain incomes for universities (AGCAS, 2020a). When you are struggling to respond to changes in political and institutional priorities as well as major social and economic traumas, engagement with theory can be seen as a luxury even if an understanding of the realities of post-Covid employment and careers service delivery are likely to be in need of structured theoretical input.

There are also issues with accessibility — many university libraries do not subscribe to key career journals making it hard for staff to access them, and it takes time and effort to wade through the thousands of career-related articles that are published each year to identify those that are of interest. The struggle to find literature that is relevant and applicable to modern career development practice in HE may, in part, be the fault of policy on research funding skewing the publishing behaviours of academics. The choice of research topic and approach is limited by the priorities of the funding organisations or the impetus to produce research that is published in the highest quality journals in order to support the submission of a high quality return to the Research Excellence Framework (REF). This has led to a narrow focus, in which academics' activities are dictated by the REF guidelines and a culture in which conducting research is given a higher priority than engaging with

The (faltering) renaissance of theory in higher education careers practice

practice. Researchers are generally not free to conduct research simply because it is useful to practitioners. Even when academics attempt to apply their theory to practice, we have already noted their tendency to disregard the resourcing pressures and limitations of practice delivery.

Over the period covered in this article, it is apparent that career development practice has more often been directed by political ideologies and practical necessities than by academic thinking and research. There are some indications of a positive direction of travel, but progress is slow. Careers qualification providers now teach a wide range of up-to-date theories and attempt to link them to various aspects of career development practice. This offers a strong evidence-base for those who undertake these courses, but increasing proportions of staff working in HE careers services in various roles do not acquire a professional qualification and there is currently no universal requirement of continuing professional development.

AGCAS, the professional body for HE careers services, is playing an important role. As part of its strategy, AGCAS has stated the aim of being 'experts in HE student career development and graduate employment' and of developing a professional pathway competency framework for all HE career professionals (AGCAS, 2020b, p. 2) and AGCAS's commitment to research can be seen through their annual research conference and the frequent references to research articles in *Phoenix*, the professional journal of the association. Other organisations such as NICEC play a valuable role in attempting to bring together researchers, practitioners and policy experts in the field of careers and employability through conferences, seminars and of course this journal.

However, to make a significant change — to get to where we need to be — more work needs to be done. The articles that are published need to be more relevant and more accessible to practitioners. There must be increased opportunity and motivation for practitioners to engage with the literature by embedding up-to-date theoretical understanding into continuing professional development and progression frameworks. A stronger culture of collaboration between career practitioners and academics could help, as exemplified by the publication *Graduate careers in context* (Burke & Christie, 2018), which featured

contributions from both academics and practitioners. Academics should be encouraged to mentor careers service staff and students on careers qualifications to help them to produce and publish relevant, practical, high quality research. But this is of course only half the story and whilst academic career research could be more useful to practitioners, HE careers service policy in the UK too should be influenced by the existing empirical evidence base. Perhaps careers services should be more assertive in insisting that scarce resources be invested in activities for which there is clear evidence of effectiveness rather than acquiescing to the less well-informed impulses of policy-makers and HE senior management. Whilst it would be valuable for academics to provide better guidance for current practice, it is also important that policy should be evidence based, and should take into account the latest theoretical and empirical developments.

The role of university careers services has changed dramatically over the last two decades, shifting from small, marginalised pockets of expertise to more substantial and significant aspects of university provision. There is an irony in the fact that universities, whose currency is new knowledge, are not facilitating evidence-based policies or services, and this may be in part a consequence of the pace of change we have witnessed. But an evidence-based careers and employability service is our best chance for an effective, credible and sustainable offer and, to this end, changes need to happen on three fronts. First, HE policy needs to take account of the existing research in the field to ensure that changes to strategy are likely to work. Secondly, services and practitioners need to engage more with the existing literature to make current provision as effective as it can be. Finally, researchers need a clearer understanding of current practice to explore the most effective ways of working. Attitudes and practices are changing. Across the UK, there are many services and practitioners who are interested in and committed to learning about and implementing the recommendations from the academic literature or conducting research themselves, but a stronger emphasis on evidence-based practice and collaborative partnerships will help to push this agenda forward and ensure that our profession is the best it can be.



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For correspondence

David Winter,
Head of Research & Organisational Development,
The Careers Group, University of London

david.winter@careers.lon.ac.uk

Dr Julia Yates,
Programme Director, MSc Organisational Psychology,
City, University of London

julia.yates.l@city.ac.uk

The development of career guidance roles and their professionalism: 1999-2020

John Gough

Between 1999-2020, career practitioner roles in England have rapidly morphed. Entry routes, and qualification frameworks have changed too. But one significant factor features consistently: the lack of a legal requirement for an accredited qualification to practise. In the face of major political and structural changes to the profession this article explores how guidance and its practitioners have sought to re-define and re-claim their sense of professionalism.



Introduction

Confronted by ever changing government directives and organisational restructuring, the career guidance sector and its practitioners in England have sought to re-define and re-claim their sense of professionalism as their roles have rapidly developed in schools, FE colleges, higher education institutions and adult guidance settings. The major policy shifts have included: the advent of Connexions in 2001; the Education Act (2011) and subsequent revised statutory guidance for schools and colleges; the introduction of full HEI tuition fees in 2012; Augar Review (2019); and various governmental concerns with workforce skill levels and employment (e.g., Leitch Review, 2006; National Careers Service, 2012).

As noted by Neary et al. (2014), there is a multiplicity of role names within career guidance, particularly within Higher Education (HE). For schools, and colleges, examples include the Connexions Personal Adviser, replaced by the return to the term 'careers adviser' (or variations thereof) in the wake of the Education Act (2011). This multiplicity may be indicative of the ways in which such roles are

organisationally defined and accountable, and perhaps show the ways in which practitioners' sense of professionalism is more individually and/or organisationally defined, rather than orientated towards a professional body (or bodies). In HEIs, the multiplicity of role-titles reflects the individual institutions' strategic concerns with employability. For the National Career Service (NCS), and the Department of Work and Pensions (DWP) or local and regional initiatives, roles can also vary dramatically, from careers advisers, job coaches, mentors and so on. In addition, the entry routes, and qualification frameworks have changed too, but with one consistent significant feature: the lack of a legal requirement for an accredited qualification to practise. The author's central argument is that, as a result of this contingent, fractured picture of the profession and its roles, professional bodies, such as the Career Development Institute (CDI), and individual practitioners, have had to recover their professionalism and esteem.

This article discusses the ways in which career guidance roles in England have changed significantly over the last two decades or so, and the impact these changes have made on practitioners' sense of professionalism – however this may be defined: structurally, functionally or subjectively.

Professionalism?

Professions, professional and professionalism are terms that are used regularly when the basis and nature of jobs is debated, not least by those who link the growth of professions to the rapid changes in Western economies since the late nineteenth century (Perkin, 1989). That said, these terms can resist neat and commonly-agreed meanings. Professionalism is a

widely-used in relation to professions, careers, jobs, even the conduct of employees, but as suggested by Birden et al. (2014), this term lacks an over-arching definition. For example, does professionalism mean 'being professional'; and if so, what does the latter term mean? To help clarify these issues, it is beneficial to consider four aspects of professionalism.

The first one is based in the identifiable traits of professions that separate them from jobs (Millerson, 1964). The second concerns the ways in which societies recognise and even uphold these traits as deserving special status, e.g., legal requirements to practise as a professional within an esteemed profession. This is called the regulatory bargain (MacDonald, 1995), where professional bodies have been successful in lobbying governments for exclusive rights to set entry and practice requirements. Larson (1977, p. x) has a neat way of encompassing both the trait, functional and structural aspects of a profession as follows:

Professions are occupations with special power and prestige. Society grants these rewards because professions have special competence in esoteric bodies of knowledge linked to central needs and values of the social system, and because professions are devoted to the service of the public, above and beyond material incentives.

From the above, the third aspect links professionalism and greater societal expectations of professionals, most notable in relation to trust. As Banks (2004) notes, professionals who traduce ethical codes, and so break trust, are held to account by professional bodies on behalf of society. Thus, a professional who cannot be trusted should no longer have the legal or moral authority to practise – hence the reason why doctors and lawyers can be struck off.

The fourth aspect concerns the subjective aspects of professionalism: the extent to which practitioners believe themselves to be professional, especially in the ways they act for clients, often in the face of managerial diktats, where practitioners are meant to be organisationally and not 'professionally' accountable (Evetts, 2005). This aspect is explored more fully later in the article.

Schools in England

A leading area where career guidance roles and professionalism has been most debated since 1999 concerns provision in schools. It is hard to over-estimate the impact made by the introduction of Connexions in England on roles and the sense of practitioners' professionalism.

One major impact was that 'career guidance' as a term was 'replaced' – a move that indicated New Labour's view that such provision only benefitted those whose were already socio-economically advantaged (Watts, 2001a). Instead came a new role – the Personal Adviser – which shifted the focus of practitioners' work away from clients' career transition points to offering an holistic service aimed at tackling barriers to aspiration, engagement and achievement (Watts, 2001b). Clearly, the functional role of this new service was to tackle social disadvantage. Subsequent policies, such as Every Child Matters (2003) and Youth Matters (2005), together with the new Integrated Youth Support Services (IYSS) (Watts and MacGowan, 2007), strengthened New Labour's belief that the new service's role should continue to address the life chances of young people.

The impact on practitioners' sense of professionalism appeared significant, and was couched in bleak terms, as exemplified by Colley et al. (2010). This research most starkly identified the practitioners' sense of unbecoming, where their previous sense of professionalism - based on experience, expertise and professionally-accredited training - was stomped all over by this new order. Indeed, those practitioners who undertook the Diploma in Career Guidance (DipCG) had to undergo what amounted to a re-programming for the new service. The rapidly-morphing qualification framework, e.g., NVQ level 4 in Advice and Guidance being replaced by QCF levels 4 and 6, demonstrated the lack of any regulatory bargain that the former Institute of Career Guidance (ICG) may have felt it had achieved when developing and accrediting the previous DipCG.

It may be argued that the picture that has emerged since 2010 has been as profound in its impact on roles and sense of professionalism. This is despite what appeared to be a positive development in 2010,

when the Silver Review argued that career guidance had to re-claim its professionalism – or, to use the parlance of the day, to re-professionalise (DfE, 2010). This proposition came without any governmental or structural support, at least initially, as exemplified by the Education Act (2011). Whilst the term ‘career guidance’ was taken out of the ‘forbidden section’, schools (and colleges) were left without any particular funding for its provision, least of all for face-to-face guidance. Subsequent revised statutory guidance did recognise what commentators had identified, not least the inconsistent and patchy nature of provision in England (Hughes, 2013). However, if Colley and colleagues had identified the ways in which practitioners had felt that their professionalism was being undone, then Roberts (2013) was scathing in his view of government’s ‘attempted murder’ of the career guidance in schools.

There have been some more positive developments which have reinforced the important role of career guidance in young people’s futures. The most notable of these has been the ways in which the Careers and Enterprise Company (CEC), established in 2014, have adopted and promoted the Gatsby Benchmarks (2014) to schools (and colleges) in England. This development has introduced a new role: that of careers leader which has the responsibility for leading and managing career guidance provision so that the benchmarks can be met. The CEC has also been funding training for this new role, which has been offered at levels 6 or 7. Further, the most recent OFSTED inspection framework (2019) makes much explicit reference to the importance of career guidance; and it appears that schools can expect greater scrutiny of this provision.

At the same time, these developments stress the important role of career guidance and not necessarily of practitioners; and any workforce development strategy for face-to-face career guidance is simply not on government’s agenda. One could argue that the CEC, the Gatsby Benchmarks, and the most recent statutory guidance (which stresses the importance of having level 6 qualified practitioners for career guidance) is a classic piece of neo-liberal policy. Standards are set, for which organisations are accountable, but set against a backdrop of persisting austerity in relation to career guidance funding.

The choice for existing practitioners may be to define, develop and pursue their professionalism subjectively. This theme also emerges when considering the picture in colleges, HE and adult guidance settings.

Further and Higher Education

The development of career guidance roles in Further Education (FE) colleges follow a similar pattern to those in schools. From the advent of Connexions, colleges often worked with this service to have Connexions Personal Advisers sat alongside college-employed careers advisers, with the former focussing on 16-to-18 learners, especially those at risk of becoming NEET (not in education, employment or training); and the latter providing services to the wider student body. The pattern of delivery in FE, its roles, and services’ organisational location, as depicted by Hawthorn (1996) has largely persisted since 1999. That is, careers services located in wider student services provision, or within registry-based services where careers advisers were allied to the recruitment, retention and progression of students. The latter emphasised careers services’ role in retaining students, e.g., where advisers would be expected to steer learners who were considering a course change to other courses within the college. In both cases, this work was usually augmented by Connexions advisers who would be co-located with college-employed careers advisers. The extent to which careers services in FE were directly involved in the skills agenda, especially in relation to the Leitch Review (2006), is unclear, though the increasing importance of employability as a strategic concern in Higher Education (HE) was also mirrored in FE.

As the effects of the Education Act (2011) rippled through to FE, the Association of Colleges (2012) commissioned a report which considered existing models of provision in FE and the extent to which the new National Careers Service (NCS) could plug the gap left by Connexions. The professional experience of the author in placing QCG (Qualification in Career Guidance) students in FE colleges in the Midlands (covering counties such as Warwickshire, West Midlands, Northamptonshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire and Oxfordshire) from 2008 to 2018, tended to show

how services were having to make do with the same college-based staffing complement that existed when Connexions was co-located in the organisation. This usually resulted in a keen focus on supporting certain college priorities, such as recruitment, progression and achievement; and thus the services were expected to be organisationally orientated (Evetts, 2005), even if – as Gough (2017) shows – practitioners may adopt ethically subversive tactics (Artaraz, 2006) to promote client-centred services.

What is also clear is that such anecdotal evidence, whilst in some respects rich and rooted in professional practice, highlights the need for more comprehensive and rigorous research into careers provision in colleges – especially as the latest statutory guidance from the DfE (2018) expects them to secure independent and impartial careers guidance. And, FE colleges also have adopted the careers leader model in the same way as schools have, but within larger and arguably more complex environments.

Careers guidance within HE has experienced a number of apparently fundamental changes caused by far-reaching government policies and sectoral developments. These include: the massification of HE, and the continuing impact of globalisation on the nature of graduate opportunities (Elias and Purcell, 2004); and the ways in which the advent of the Browne Review (2010) made employability a central strategic concern of HE. The importance of the latter had been gradually increased during the 2000s, with Yorke and Knight (2006) noting both an emerging definition of employability, and the ways it was becoming an increasingly integral part of students' learning.

In response, there were further developments concerned with the professionalism and professionalisation of HE careers advisers. The historical nature and purpose of HE services – being predicated on a Milkround, appointments' styled model – had been changing from the mid-1990s onwards. For example, Watts (2007) noted practitioners with the DipCG had been moving into HE services in increasing numbers, bringing with them perspectives that reflected careers guidance and education training. The Association of Graduate Careers Advisory Services (AGCAS) established its own set of careers guidance qualifications for HE staff initially at the University of

Reading, and which now reside at the University of Warwick. In addition, AGCAS offered an extensive regional and national training provision to support advisers as they faced challenges from an expanding and increasingly diverse student body, changing patterns in graduate employment and the impact of technology on service provision.

What these changes helped to demonstrate was a conundrum faced by career guidance practitioners in schools and FE – that is, what and who defined their roles and professionalism, and to what extent could they walk the fine line between managerial accountability and professional values (whatever they were)? The multiplicity of career guidance roles as noted by Neary, Marriott and Healy (2014) applies particularly to HE, where job titles often reflect a wide variety of combinations from a lexicon that includes career guidance, development, employability, adviser, consultant, student success and so on. These combinations in turn are shaped by the need for services and practitioners to define distinctive and value-adding provision, particularly where academic faculties and departments often manage their own employability/placement/work experience arrangements and advisers, in parallel to the centrally-based service.

Worthy of further consideration is the professionalism (and professional orientation) of faculty based employability advisers (or similar). Anecdotal evidence would suggest this varies, e.g., with staff focussed entirely on placing 'their' students according to employability targets, or with others seeking support and training from organisations such as AGCAS. For the employability agenda itself, practitioners (especially heads of services) often face a challenge, since the agenda may not be directly owned and driven by a centrally-based career guidance (or similar) service. Instead, it may sit with a pro-vice chancellor, or other role in the senior management team; or may be given to someone whose role encompasses enterprise and employability. The latter may be seen as an indicator of the ways in which HE career guidance practitioners, and their services, need to continually review and promote their role and professionalism in relation to this key sector concern.

Adult Guidance

As for the other areas explored above, the development of adult guidance since 1999 reflects decades-old patterns which both disrupt and then reform provision and practitioners' roles. Prior to the decline of structural employment, the need for adult career guidance was scant (Roberts, 1995). Identifiable provision for adults emerged with the development of adult learning offered by FE colleges or adult education units, and could be offered either by the institution concerned or by the Careers Service in England (Hawthorn, 1996). The National Association for Educational Guidance for Adults (NAEGA) which existed from 1982 to 2013, before it merged into the CDI, was indicative of this emphasis on educational guidance for this client group to develop adults' learning and skills to boost employability and productivity, as well as social justice and well-being.

The latter aim, summarised as adult advancement (DIUS, 2007), led to the creation of the Next Step service in England. Next Step Advisers offered telephone guidance services as well as drop-in, face-to-face services (branded 'f2f') alongside e-mail and website services (BIS, 2012). This highly procedural, even scripted, service, with advisers following standardised wording when introducing services and making referrals, showed high levels of customer (sic) satisfaction, and impressive levels of service usage, with high numbers of referrals being made to training providers in order to develop clients' literacy, numeracy and IT skills (ibid.).

Of course, and as we have seen with the careers service for young people, organisational configurations rarely stay the same for long. A new government in 2010 instigated the morphing of Next Step provision into the new National Careers Service (NCS) (2012). Whilst retaining some of the features of the previous service, like the lifelong learning account, the NCS became a new brand, with a new livery, house-style and a re-adoption of the word 'careers' (with 'advancement' as a supporting plank thrown on the policy skip with the rest of the previous government's schemes).

What does this service for England indicate about careers guidance for adults, and the professionalism

of its practitioners? As noted earlier, the Silver Review (DfE, 2010) recommended the need for impartial careers guidance delivered by practitioners qualified to a minimum level 6 qualification. The NCS does stress its impartiality; but government still allows NCS staff to provide information and advice with QCF qualification levels at 3 or 4. In addition, performance indicators stipulated in new post-2014 contracts have become tighter, with funding being payable for sustainable employability outcomes, not just action plans. This tightening reflects the government's insistence on 'payment by results' as identified in the Work Programme (DWP, 2011), where providers of training and employment support for longer-term unemployed receive funding on a graded scale. The extent to which adult guidance practitioners experience any tensions between meeting performance targets and offering learner-centred services, is unclear; though the concluding section explores the subjective nature of professionalism.

A conclusion: the role of subjective professionalism

The developments explored above could indicate that career guidance as a sector lacks structural leverage; and that practitioners are increasingly orientated to organisational demands, rather than an allegiance to a professional body and its codes of ethical practice. However, more recent research (e.g., Neary, 2014; Gough, 2017) points to the important role of practitioners' subjective sense of their role and professionalism in maintaining their motivation and professional identity. Neary (2014) discusses the ways in which professionalism and identity can be renewed (even recovered) through further study, particularly at postgraduate level. Gough (2017) identifies a commonly shared sense of professionalism and identity, whatever the practitioners' location. This sense is predicated on a strong motivation to make a difference to clients; commitment to client-centred, ethical practice; labour market expertise (which also helps to promote impartiality); and engagement in professional networks, formal or informal, so that expertise can be shared. In this way, practitioners are not merely subjected to policy change, with no real power to fight back. Instead, they are knowledgeable agents who understand their context which both

constrains but also enables their practice, and who are fully aware of the positive impact they have on clients. These knowledgeable agents (Stones, 2005) show that, whilst role nomenclature might be important in an organisational context, what is most important is the power to work for clients within, despite, and because of everyday structures. One could argue that this is true professionalism.



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For correspondence

Dr. John Gough

john.gough@warwick.ac.uk

What has digital technology done for us and how can we evolve as a sector to make best use of what it has to offer?

Nicki Moore

The need for career development practitioners to develop digital skills is a subject which has been revisited many times. This article draws on research undertaken in the UK in 2019 to establish the barriers and enablers in the use of technology to delivery career guidance and the training needs of the career development workforce to make the most of what digital technology has to offer. The research found that career development practitioners were using digital technology and applications both in their practice with clients and in the way they manage their business. This has prepared them to respond to the challenges in delivering career development services that the COVID-19 pandemic presented.



Introduction

The use of digital technology in career guidance has been a topic for research and debate for many years. Watts (2002) noted that the first use of digital applications surfaced in the 1960s with early databases of resources which could be used by career development practitioners. Nonetheless, sixty years after the first application of digital technology in careers work there is still some antipathy to its use to deliver the business of career guidance (Moore & Czerwinska, 2019).

This paper explores the current use of digital applications and the corresponding digital skills of the career development sector. However, it should be noted that this paper has been written at a time of great singularity. Prenzky (2001) wrote of the singularity (in relationship to the use of ICT) as being the 'arrival

and rapid dissemination of digital technology in the last decades of the 20th century' (p. 1). In the current case, the singularity which is referred to is the SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) global pandemic which has changed the way most of us think about work and career. Of course, changes of this magnitude call on us all to develop new competences in response and this paper will endeavor to look at existing and current research which charts these rapid and recent changes in the use of digital technology in career development.

A brief history of ICT in career guidance

The development of technology to deliver career guidance has been monitored, evaluated and reviewed by many (Barnes & La Gro, 2009; Hooley et al., 2010; Hooley, 2010; Moore & Czerwinska, 2019; Sampson Jr & Watts, 2010; Sampson Jr, 2010; Watts, 1986; 2002; 2010).

Watts (2002) describes the integration of ICT into systems of careers information and guidance through four phases. The main frame phase pre-1980s centred on information retrieval and processing systems. From the early 1980s to the mid-1990s the evolution of the use of ICT in career guidance was dominated by the advent of the micro-computer which in most countries improved people's access to the new range of software applications. The web phase from the late 1990s onwards, further improved access to software and led to the development of opportunities for collaboration online. The current digital phase has created an 'internet of things' whereby many digitally enabled devices can 'speak to each other'. Many people are familiar with digital assistants and in 2019, telecommunications companies began to implement

5G technology which will further enhance the connection between people, devices, and a variety of domestic and work-place devices.

Nevertheless, the use of ICT in career guidance is not without its critics. When Watts (1986) began writing about the use of ICT in career guidance, he noted some of the implications for practitioners. He suggested that an over-dependence on digital technology could render clients unable to make complex career decisions for themselves as they would tend to rely on simple information processing rather than examining the more complex and emotionally laden aspects of career-decision making. Krechowicka (2005) described the dangers of an 'unregulated profession making use of an unregulated medium to deliver career guidance' (Krechowiecka, 2005, p. 17). His article raised several ethical issues about the vulnerability of clients to exploitation and the blurring of the boundaries between professional and personal lives and asked to what extent career guidance practitioners had a responsibility to educate users about the potential pitfalls of the internet.

In charting the development of technology in the delivery of career guidance it is interesting to note that its use is not new. A system of applications and processes have been with us for some considerable time. It does, however, raise some important questions, for example:

- If digital technology has been used for such a long time, how proficient are practitioners in employing it in their everyday practice?
- What are the implications of the use of a wide range of ICT applications in delivering career guidance?
- How is the digital technology affecting the world of work and what do career development practitioners need to know and be able to do to support transitions to work?

Whilst an examination of the finer details of how digital technology and ICT are being used in delivering guidance falls outside the scope of this article, it does explore some of the latest research and thinking concerning the use of digital technology and applications which have emerged as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic and the implications of these changes.

Developing digital competence and proficiency

In 2010, The Careers Profession Task Force recommended that initial training for career development practitioners and opportunities for continuing professional development should address information and communications technology (Careers Profession Task Force, 2010). The Task Force cited research by Bimrose, Barnes, and Attwell (2010). However, in the ten years since this research was published, many of the changes which were imagined then have been realised and we are now confronted with a new range of challenges, particularly in the light of the pandemic.

Developing digital competence is not a new phenomenon. Researchers have consistently emphasised the importance of developing competence, confidence and capacity in the use of existing and emerging digital technology to deliver career guidance (Bimrose et al., 2010; Bimrose et al., 2011). Likewise, several European funded projects have investigated the skills required by practitioners (Barnes & La Gro, 2009; European Commission Lifelong Learning Programme, 2009; European Training Organisations Network, 2006; ICT Skills 2, 2009).

The resulting competency frameworks have largely concentrated on the skills required to engage with clients. Barnes and La Gro, in commenting on the European ICT Skills 2 project especially noted the lack of ambition to apply ICT to anything beyond establishing and maintaining communication with clients, enhancing career information and conducting assessments.

Similarly, in 2010, work carried out for CfBT (Bimrose et al., 2010) investigated the skills needed by Connexions Personal Advisers to develop internet-based guidance. This research recommended the need for a 'training and education programme to raise awareness of the potential of internet-based guidance services amongst practitioners and their managers, together with encouragement to seek training support to address the skills gaps' (p. 41) identified in the report.

Whilst this report goes a long way to help identify the skills needed to conduct career guidance interventions, it is limited to specialist professional competences

and does not identify the broader foundation ICT skills required for career development practitioners to conduct a range of business and work-related activities.

In contrast, earlier work by Barnes and La Gro (2009) noted the need to integrate digital skills and expertise into the frameworks of competences which guide the initial and continuous training and development of practitioners. They also noted that the development and expansion of digital technology make this a thankless task as frameworks and good practice guidance are almost outdated as soon as they are published.

Some eight years later, the UK government launched its Careers Strategy for England (Department for Education, 2017) in which a three-year action plan sets out:

...a vision for the sector to imagine new ways of working, using digital technology and to set out their training and development needs. (p. 33)

In response, the CDI recognised the need to expand its understanding of new technologies and their use in the career development sector. They were also interested in identifying the existing skills and digital training needs of the careers workforce.

The resulting research (Moore & Czerwinska, 2019) explored digital skills using a broad framework of digital competences set out in the CDI Digital strategy (The Career Development Institute, 2017) and based on those by Jisc - a UK organisation which supports higher education institutions and other organisations to develop their digital capabilities.

The research gathered information from a survey of 205 career development practitioners across the UK and a focus group, and telephone interviews with 14 career development practitioners from England, Scotland and Wales. Unlike previous research, the project took a more general look at technology and its application in the whole range of activities in which career development practitioners were involved, not just in delivering career guidance interventions.

The research found that practitioners use a wide range of digital devices and applications to deliver services

to their clients and to manage their businesses. Practitioners reported that the introduction of digital technology made them more efficient and the delivery of their services more cost-effective. There were several reasons for this:

- Being able to access work platforms and resources removed the need to travel back to office bases because remote access allowed the completion of administrative tasks where the practitioner was working.
- Working with clients in rural and isolated areas could prove difficult in terms of meeting clients face to face. Digital solutions helped to resolve this and enabled a greater number of clients to be supported than when practitioners had to travel to see them.

The research also found that digital solutions were used in a variety of ways to support career guidance interventions and by practitioners to manage their work. Nine years after the Careers Profession Task force described the need for career development practitioners to improve their use of digital technology to deliver career development it seemed that practitioners were responding.

However, there was a variation in their confidence, particularly in creating digital content, writing for social spaces, and using digital technology in their teaching and learning practices. Not all career development practitioners were enthusiastic and, in some instances, were resistant to ways of using digital technology in their work. For example, there were concerns about the ethical implications of using artificial intelligence or chatbots to deliver personalised career guidance services. In addition, some practitioners felt that the success of the use of ICT was not only dependent on their own skills but in the skills and access to technology of those they needed to engage with, and these skills were not always evident.

These findings are significant for practitioners, those that set out the standards which career development practitioners demonstrate and for those that employ them. Where previously discourse around digital skills focused on those required to deliver career guidance interventions, the conversation needs to be far more encompassing of digital technology and its widest applications.

The implications of the use of ICT applications to deliver career guidance

The result of the COVID-19 pandemic has been the rapid increase in use of ICT to deliver career guidance and has illuminated the ethical and practical issues this raises. These vary depending on the client group and the type of activity. For those working with young people, the use of webinar technology to provide personal guidance presents issues around safeguarding (Hughes, 2020) and practitioners have had to navigate a complex landscape of school and college access policies. These have not always been consistent with the ethical requirements of personal guidance which requires client autonomy and confidentiality; something quite difficult to provide with a parent or teacher present during guidance sessions for safeguarding reasons. One result of this has been the publication of guidelines on how to work with clients using webinar technology (The Career Development Institute, 2020).

As education has moved online, practitioners have also needed to learn the skills of digital pedagogy to provide effective and engaging career learning and development activities. The research indicated that practitioners had accessed continuing professional development activities to help develop their skills including through self-directed study, online courses and webinars and by using the training programmes offered by some social media platforms. In responding to this training need, the Career Development Institute has developed a series of short online training events (Digital Bytes) to meet the need.

Access to the relevant technology and resources has been an issue for many, but in particular for young people who have needed to move to online classrooms and educational activities using a variety of digital devices from home. Hughes (2020) highlights the difficulties which organisations face in providing personal career guidance remotely due to restricted access, but it could be assumed that this extends to programmes of careers education too.

Necessity has caused practitioners to innovate using digital technology (Papworth, 2020). Additional

evidence gathered from practitioners (Moore, 2020) suggests that they have learnt new skills, developed new approaches and increased their sphere of influence due to greater reliance on the use of digital technology to deliver career guidance. It seems also that clients are benefitting from these approaches by developing new employability skills for the post-pandemic world of work.

Furthermore, the pandemic has impacted on the way practitioners use technology to manage their businesses. Webinar technology for meetings and CPD has become the norm and many practitioners have become accomplished on more than one platform. Also, whilst empirical evidence that the career development sector is embracing this way of working remains limited, anecdotally this is the case. Many practitioners have realised the need to work together on projects in the digital space and this has seen a growth in the use of applications which allow collaboration such as Microsoft Teams, Google Drive and OneDrive. Social media platforms such as WhatsApp, Instagram, Facebook and LinkedIn have become a staple for keeping practitioners' networks active (Hughes, 2020).

The CDI research suggested that career development practitioners were well placed in 2018 to be able to undertake the change in practice which has been required in 2020. However, whilst there was a strong base of digital competence on which to build, not all practitioners reported being fully confident in all aspects of digital skills and suggested some training needs. That said, the research evidenced a sector with considerable enthusiasm for developing digital skills and applications for practice providing a strong basis on which to respond to the issues associated with the COVID-19 pandemic.

Digital technology and the changing world of learning and work

One outcome of the pandemic has been to accelerate the fourth industrial revolution, defined as the 'fusion of technologies that is blurring the lines between the physical, digital, and biological spheres' (Schwab, 2016, para. 2). This can be seen in the dramatic and

rapid transformation of education. For example, the Open University has recently provided opportunities for students to access and operate space telescopes through the internet (Cayless, 2020).

Research for the OECD suggests that the pandemic has resulted in 'a remarkable shift in the understanding of online learning' (Van der Vlies, 2020, para. 6) and that is likely to continue post-pandemic with digital learning platforms becoming the norm.

The world of work is also transforming with homeworking (reliant on the use of digital technology and applications) becoming the norm for many and particularly those with higher level skills (Office for National Statistics, 2020). No data exists which establishes the exact pattern in the career development sector, but one can speculate that this trend is mirrored. For many, this transformation is expected to continue in the post-pandemic world of work (Baker, 2020).

There are mixed views concerning working from home (Papworth, 2020). For some people this offers an improvement in life-work balance and there are cost savings for employees and employers as well as the positive impact on the environment. For others, the isolation, lack of support and poor access to digital technology is a barrier and can result in a variety of mental health issues. For young people especially, working from home could be a particular challenge as they transition from education to employment, and in a world of work which may be subject to regular, rapid and unpredictable change for some time, they may require higher levels of career resilience (Gordon, 1995) and career adaptability (Savickas, 2013).

Career development programmes will need to respond to these needs by equipping young people with an understanding of the new world of work and the competences required for a smooth transition to a largely online work environment. In work for the OECD, Schoon and Mann (2020) describe three ways in which service providers can improve the transitions for young people:

- The need to create strong links between employers and educational institutions.

- Provide focused career guidance and information for all learners.
- To introduce remedial support for young people after leaving education.

What Schoon and Mann do not address is that these interventions will need to be offered in large part, using new technologies. This in turn demands that career development practitioners use new skills and approaches to make these things happen.

Conclusion

Sixty years after ICT was first used to deliver aspects of career guidance, recent research demonstrates that the career development sector has come a long way in developing digital proficiency. Research prior to the pandemic suggested that the sector was well placed to deliver client facing services but for the first time it also highlighted the extent to which digital technology and applications were becoming an important approach to managing business.

Practitioners suggested that digital technology was helping them be more efficient in delivering their services and that they were more cost effective and had a reduced impact on the environment as a result. The pandemic has expedited the move to digital career development services and whilst this has caused some problems in delivery notably due to clients' lack of skills or access to technology, practitioners have responded by developing new skills and approaches.

Many of the changes have been positive and may remain as part of a practitioner's working practices in the future. Moreover, there appear to have been some benefits to young people as they learn new work-related competences. There is some way to go in embedding these new approaches, but the early signs are that they offer a range of benefits which require further exploration.



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For correspondence

Nicki Moore, MAEd, SFHEA, RCDP
International Centre for Guidance Studies
University of Derby

N.Moore@derby.ac.uk

Career development and coaching: Straddling two worlds and bringing them together

Gill Frigerio & Stephanie Rix

This article distinguishes between the areas of professional practice of ‘coaching’ and ‘career guidance’, reviewing recent change and noting the emergence of ‘career coaching’ as a crossover activity. We argue for further integration of coaching and careers work under this label and note some of the benefits for coaches who are working on career development issues to share a theoretical understanding of career development. We flag some attendant risks of not integrating further and note that a learning focus is a potential shared understanding that could be used as a basis for this ongoing integration.



Introduction

Coaching and career development work have seen the boundaries between them shift and blur over the last twenty years. In this article, we review these two worlds and their mutual influence, arguing for an integrated view of career coaching which draws on the best features of both. In writing, we draw on our respective experiences in delivering and studying career development and coaching programmes, including an action research project for masters dissertation (Rix, 2018), as well as working in private practice under the ‘career coaching’ label. We will argue that coaching and careers work have already integrated to the extent that career coaching private practice is now a significant part of the landscape of the career development sector. However, there is potential for further alignment and we have practical ideas to support this that we lay out to close.

The method used to build our argument takes a social constructionist approach, drawing on a range of types of literature and exploring the meaning that has emerged through the shared assumptions found within. We take a critical stance on taken-for-granted ways of understanding the coaching profession and ourselves as practitioners, challenging the view that knowledge is based on unbiased observations (Schultheiss & Wallace, 2012). Thus, our readers may have formed different perspectives on the issues we discuss through their own positions in relation to both coaching and career development. As an example, our position is informed by the English context whereas readers in other home nations of the UK and indeed beyond may have different view. We welcome discussion from these different vantage points.

By charting the recent development and challenges of coaching and career guidance we map the terrain and chart the emergence of career coaching. Despite our primary focus on the ‘body politic’ of coaching and careers work, we do recognise the problems that can come with bounding and labelling different types of helping activity. Defining and codifying an activity such as career coaching has value to create scope for quality assurance through professional accreditations and training. However, by doing so we also risk excluding a rich space beyond its borders where career learning happens in a wide range of contexts. We will walk this tightrope in the mutual exploration that we advocate. We end the article with practical ideas that we would like to see for greater integration of these two perspectives, giving greater recognition and access to the contribution that career coaching can make to improving the working lives of adults in the UK.

A brief history – (how) did we put the ‘career’ in ‘coaching’?

In this section we sketch out developments over the last twenty years, arguing that we have moved from tenuous links between two separate worlds of ‘coaching’ and ‘career guidance’ to a somewhat unrecognised mutual influence and the emergence of ‘career coaching’.

The world of coaching

At the turn of the millennium, coaching was primarily associated with tailored approaches to performance and leadership development amongst management executives. Over the last twenty years, the world of coaching has grown and diversified exponentially. A number of indicators such as textbooks published, individuals defining their work as coaching and an abundance of training courses available all demonstrate a growing market. The International Coach Federation (ICF) talk up coaching in their ‘Global Coaching Study’, which reported that three out of four coach practitioners with active clients said they expect their number of coaching clients to increase over the next twelve months and anticipate an increase in annual revenue from coaching (ICF, 2016). However, this rapid growth makes for a messy landscape, with the emergence of a number of distinct professional bodies for coach practitioners (Lane et al., 2014) offering separate accreditation and training pathways. However it is claimed that fewer than half the estimated coaches in the world belong to such bodies (ibid). Trained coach practitioners themselves understandably advocate for the importance of such training:

When asked to identify the biggest obstacle for coaching over the next 12 months, the main concern expressed by coach practitioners was untrained individuals who call themselves coaches.

ICF 2016, p. 19

In addition, the ICF Global Consumer Study of 2017 survey reveals that certifications and credentials are also important to consumers of coaching. Among those who had experienced being coached 83%

of respondents stated it was either important or very important that their coach has a certification/credential (with a slight dip to 76% for those who had not been coached).

Despite this importance, coaching has struggled to self-regulate. Stober (2014, p. 420) argues that ‘we still have a chaotic and uneven landscape of professional development’ with the varying approaches resulting in different pictures of what a coaching professional should need in terms of development. From the perspective of an aspiring coach, the number and variety of coaching training organisations and types of coaching can be overwhelming. From a professional perspective, the lack of consensus about what defines coaching, and the various training programmes and certifications leads to a substantial difference in ability, credentials, and experience within the profession.

Central to the debate is the gap in standardised coaching competencies. There is currently no generally agreed competency model, although professional bodies have certain credentialing criteria that are common. The most recognised organisation internationally remains the International Coach Federation (ICF) with the Association of Coaching (AC) and the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) following closely as trusted and credible professional bodies from a UK perspective.

Whilst coaching is happening in a wide range of contexts, embedded in organisational internal coaching schemes and used in helping relationships from family support to personal tutoring, the dominant resourcing model represented by this ‘body politic’ of coaching remains the self-employed coach contracting to work with an individual client, either paid for by the employer or the client themselves. This suggests a relatively resource intensive activity that will be available only to those who can leverage the necessary resources. Costs for private coaching range considerably, although some practitioners are relatively affordable, others command a premium price in this free market. Western’s critical view distinguishes between this context and the micro-practices which comprise coaching, discerning four dominant discourses in coaching: the ‘soul guide’, the ‘psy expert’, the ‘network coach’ or ‘managerial coach’ (Western, 2012).

Across these four discourses, there are now many theoretical based approaches to coaching and a variety of contexts, genres and titles. In their *Complete Handbook of Coaching*, Cox, Bachkirova and Clutterbuck (2014, p 8) list distinct genres of:

- Skills and performance coaching.
- Developmental coaching.
- Transformational coaching.
- Executive and leadership coaching.
- The manager as coach.
- Team coaching.
- Peer coaching.
- Life coaching.
- Health and wellness coaching.
- Career coaching.
- Cross-cultural coaching.

We will explore the idea of career coaching as a distinct subset later. Passmore (2021) constructs a similar list of genres of coaching and distinguishes between forms of coaching and activities allied to coaching. Career guidance is listed as one of these, which leads us to consider the parallel developments in the 'adjacent' field.

The world of career guidance

In some contrast to the development of coaching, career guidance has historically been viewed as a public good associated with initial career choice, supporting young people in their transition between education and work. Its wider economic and social public benefits, as well as being privately beneficial for individuals in finding a rewarding working life, have led to it receiving public funds and being provided by educational institutions. As labour market turbulence has led to more need for adults to receive transition support, publicly funded provision has also been available for those seeking to find work or change work direction, albeit directed towards those with lower levels of skills and qualifications. This may suggest a view that highly skilled adults are in a position to finance their own career support and that the private benefits (e.g. more fulfilling work) outweigh the imperative to reduce the need for state support. The perceived adequacy of this provision and its reorganising, devaluing and underfunding have been discussed elsewhere (e.g. Gough, 2017), reaching a

nadir in 2010. Whilst careers work has received much better public attention in England since, leading to the creation of the Careers and Enterprise Company in 2015 and a government strategy launched in 2017 based around an agreed series of benchmarks for schools, there are still serious gaps in the availability of publicly funded career guidance for adults. Suffice to say that coaching has burgeoned at a time when career guidance has suffered.

In contrast to the rather narrow scope of publicly funded career guidance in the UK, definitions of career and the scope of career development work are broad and expansive and have arguably outgrown the traditional career guidance context. Training routes have extracted from transdisciplinary perspectives drawing on vocational psychology, sociological, learning, organisational and narrative theories.

A constant debate in the world of career development practice concerns the terminology of career and its potential to exclude. Commonplace or 'folk' definitions of career ascribe it to a certain type of work, suggesting hierarchical progression and organisational contexts (stable forms of employment that are arguably becoming less common as labour markets change). However, the theoretical base for careers work holds with broader definitions, such as those used by the Chicago School of Sociology, reminding us of both the subjective and objective career (Hughes, 1937). This enables us to conceptualise career as both the internal meaning made by any individual as they journey through their life experiences as well as the external and observable roles and positions held. The careers world also has had its own problems with integration of different theoretical traditions. As Inkson, Dries and Arnold (2015) note, an analysis of two traditions shows that vocational psychology and organisation studies do not often reference and cite each other. Added to this the contributions of wider fields from transpersonal psychology to the sociology of work and labour market economics, and the career development world is already a very wide field knitting multiple strands together.

A particular feature of career guidance highlighted by this discussion is how it sees and values itself as socially situated. In a much quoted account, Watts (1992) demonstrated how guidance is a political

process, operating 'at the interface between individual and society, between self and opportunity, between aspiration and realism' (Watts, 1996, p. 352). Watts' work articulated four distinct socio-political ideologies underpinning guidance, dependent on the core focus (society or individual) and the distinction between an emphasis on change, or the status quo. If core focus remains on the individual, a progressive stance is the best that can be hoped for, and if not focusing on change then this has the potential to be conservatising.

	Change	Status Quo
Core focus on society	Radical	Liberal
Core focus on individual	Progressive	Conservative

Figure 1. Socio-political ideologies in guidance (Watts, 1992: 355)

In the career development world, this analysis, and a growing sense that career guidance should be focused not just on individuals but on society (Mignot, 2001) and on system change (OECD, 2004), has led to an emergent focus on career guidance for social justice (Arthur et al., 2013; Hooley et al., 2015; Irving, 2009).

Career coaching

We now turn to the intertwining of career guidance and coaching and explore the status of the emergent category of 'career coaching'. We will consider its particular features and its scope before drawing together some implications and ideas for the future.

As the status problems experienced by career guidance coincided with the growth of coaching, the latter's practices, training and literature began to influence the world of career development practice. Frigerio (2016) notes the varying reactions to 'coaching' as a term from those in career guidance world. Responses observed ranged from curiosity, enthusiasm (and maybe from converts, evangelical zeal) cynicism and distaste. A particular focus of discussion was the contrast between coaching's norm of repeat sessions with one client, allowing for actions between sessions to be discussed and explored, and reduced access to career guidance meaning that many clients

would have one appointment only. In higher education career guidance practice, coaching became associated with a shift to shorter, repeat appointments sometimes labelled as 'career coaching' but covering the same ground as career guidance.

At the same time, as Yates (2021) notes, career has become a more relevant concept in coaching. Two patterns have emerged. The first is that despite the focus on executive coaching as a tool for personalised learning to boost performance, coaching soon began to address career related concerns. Whilst helping executives to perform better, coaches found themselves also discussing career issues such as alignment of personal motivations and goals with their daily work or managing transitions through and between organisations. The second is the development of career coaching as a distinct area of practice that some coaches choose to focus on in their market positioning. Indeed, both the 2014 Complete Handbook of Coaching (Cox et al.) and Passmore's more recent Coaches' Handbook (2020) include chapters on career coaching as a specialism. There is a contradiction here between holding career coaching as a *subset* of coaching and career guidance as an *adjacent* practice, without acknowledging that they are largely the same thing.

Moving to the distinctive features of *career coaching* Rix (2018) highlights both the use of labour market insights and the tangible outcomes of job change as distinct features of career coaching. Hazen and Steckler define career coaching as 'maximising insights that are intrapersonal, interpersonal and market based and turn those insights into action strategies. Career coaches bring the advantage of objectivity, information and planning to the pursuit of goals' (2014, p. 329). Career coaches provide practical guidance on job search and application processes (including the use of Curriculum Vitae documents and creative use of networking tools such as LinkedIn) as well as drawing on market information and trends. They disputably have a more results orientated approach than other fields of coaching, with tangible measurable outcomes for the client (e.g. A new job).

So whilst career coaching can be viewed as a subset of coaching, a more expansive definition would include career development conversations in wider

coaching settings as well as career guidance practice. Frigerio and McCash (2013) positions career coaching as a broad concept generous enough to embrace a wide range of practices holding coaching, career guidance and beyond. This includes formal and informal coaching conversations touching on career development issues as well as formal career development services offered by a professionally accredited Career Development Practitioner.

Moreover, an increasingly wide range of organisations and individuals have sought explicit support with managing career through the lifespan. At an organisational level this has developed into a form of career consulting to employing organisations undertaken by specific consulting organisations (Career Innovation, 2021; Career Counselling Services, 2021). At a professional level, a manifestation of this is the bringing together of a previously separate professional body the 'Association of Career Professionals International - UK branch' into the fold of the Career Development Institute (CDI) in 2013 and the development of a thriving private practice community within it.

The literature reviewed suggests that both careers work and coaching sit within a wider frame of learning. Our proposal is that by using learning as the unifying construct between them, we can increasingly bring the two areas together, using the idea of the learning alliance (McCash, 2020) as the basis for further integration.

Implications

Having identified the distinctive features of career-relevant coaching, we now turn to the professional training needed. A benefit we would like to propose of this further integration would be to equip coaches who are working on career issues with the same theoretical basis as career development practitioners. Without such a basis, coaches are at risk of falling into a number of traps which career development practitioners navigate repeatedly. The first is that by working with their focus solely on the individual, they underestimate the social and systemic factors influencing career and are working on what Watts (1996) would characterise on a progressive-conservatising continuum. A second is linked and is

the risk of developing an overall narrow definition of career itself, seeing it in its organisational context and therefore more excluding and elitist than some of the wider definitions discussed earlier. Finally, coaches risk lacking knowledge of labour market insights and sources of career specific learning that help clients to understand changes in the labour market, trends and opportunities.

Career development theories can help the coach integrate understandings of individual characteristics and behaviours with their context, from the immediate community, to wider systemic influence and labour market perspectives. Integrative frameworks such as Patton and McMahon's Systems Theory Framework (1999) are expansive in scope to hold all these together. Without these, coaches risk perpetuating individualising and responsabilising discourses that leave each person careering alone. This in turn will only perpetuate the problem of career coaching being a predominantly private good, available only to those with the resources to access it. Without the further integration that we propose, more people will enter coaching and thus work on career development issues without any awareness of how their practice could be enriched by career development theories. Many coaches will look to fragmented world of coaching organisations for their CPD rather than to the CDI and define their professional competences in terms of coaching processes and practices rather than the contextual and systemic perspectives covered in many career development theories.

In return, the theoretical base of coaching has much to offer the career development practitioner, from cognitive behavioural practices to address motivation and barriers to change through to transpersonal and psychodynamic approaches which enable us to work at greater depth with clients, focusing on being present, listening and questioning clients to support their learning.

Towards further integration

We have demonstrated in this article that both coaching and career guidance have had different credibility and professionalisation challenges. It is our hope that bringing them together can be mutually beneficial. In particular, the integration of

multiple professional organisations into the Career Development Institute, who manage access to a Register of Career Development Practitioners with a level 6 qualification as benchmark, has provided much needed leverage for career development that could be of use to coaches.

It is our belief that coaches offering career development support will benefit from career development focused knowledge of relevant theories, particularly those concerning community and systemic influences. This includes the particular power of the career development world to draw on labour market and employer knowledge to support client learning decisions and transitions appropriately. Likewise a career guidance practitioner seeking to brand themselves as a coach will benefit from understanding core concepts of coaching about client confidence, motivation and self-limiting beliefs. An emphasis on both practices in their common focus on learning and the idea that practitioner and client form a 'learning alliance' is where common ground can be found. We welcome mutual discussion bringing coaches and career development professionals into ever greater union as the next step change for our area of work.

Practical ideas for further alignment

We hope this article can stimulate further discussion within both coaching and career development worlds about how we integrate their respective riches in career coaching. We would like to see both coaches and career development practitioners use one another's competence frameworks to stimulate a reflective process and assist with identifying areas for continuing professional development. Internal coaching networks in organisations and coach supervision groups can draw attention to systemic and ethical dimensions and raise consciousness of systemic influences and context. Career coaches can use career development theories to broaden their thinking about how careers develop, enriching their practice along the way.



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Career development and coaching: Straddling two worlds and bringing them together

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For correspondence

Gill Frigerio,
Associate Professor

G.Frigerio@warwick.ac.uk

Career development and older people

Lyn Barham

This article explores career development support offered to, and used by, older people since 2000. The context includes changes in age discrimination legislation and state pension entitlement, which intertwine in their effect on labour market participation. Career development services have changed, with a marked divergence between the fragmented delivery in England and the all-age services elsewhere in the UK. Initiatives have been piloted, judged successful, but not robustly pursued. The article argues that rhetoric outruns resources and delivery, and contemplates the additional complication of the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on older people and the economy.



Introduction

Reasons we need to think about older people and career development are threefold: the numbers of older people are increasing in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the population; state pension changes are dictating that many people need to work until an older age than previously, and – perhaps most importantly – older people themselves are making the choice to work longer.

The term ‘older people’ is used deliberately here, in preference to ‘older worker’. This more generic term allows inclusion of those in employment and self-employment, in voluntary but work-like activity, as well as the estimated 25% of the age cohort who ‘un-retire’ at some stage after being defined as ‘retired’ (Platts et al. 2017). To draw useful data from public sources the lower level considered here is age 50. Similarly, to reflect where changes in workforce participation are most marked, and most relevant to forthcoming changes in state pension age (SPA), an upper age of 74 years has been adopted. Current ONS estimations

suggest that 23.52% of people aged 65-69 years continue in remunerated work and more than 10% of those aged 70-74 years are currently in paid work. The numbers aged 65+ in paid work are well in excess of a million, of whom over 790,000 are aged 65-69, and over 330,000 aged 70-74 years (ONS, 2019). Many more are undertaking work-like activity in voluntary, non-remunerated roles.

Looking back

A groundswell of awareness of ‘third age employment’ issues became evident in the 1990s, when several third-age projects were established and advocated strongly for legislation and provision. Most concerned employment support for older people, perceived to be facing discrimination in the workplace, with a need to update job-search and IT skills, and develop confidence. Projects frequently addressed concerns summarised in a DWP report in 2012:

A lack of modern job search skills and limited IT proficiency was a significant issue... This lack of ability was considered by many advisers to be the single greatest barrier faced by older job seekers when facing a job search environment dominated by online searches, online applications and competency-based applications. Limited qualifications and outdated certification were also a concern amongst older claimants, who felt their ability to secure employment, was affected by their inability to provide proof of their work-based skills. The research also found that claimants with a previously long-term stable work history often had a narrow view of the types of jobs they were capable of undertaking. There was often little understanding of how transferable their particular skills set could be, which had the direct effect of limiting their job search criteria.

(Kirkpatrick 2012: 29)

Career development and older people

From the 1970s rising unemployment was among factors that made the shedding of older workers an option for employers, alongside a narrative that proposed early retirement as something desired by individuals, particularly where accompanied by enhanced pension provision. In combination, these processes:

...influenced the image of older workers in general, as well as employers' attitudes towards them. Employers increasingly started to perceive workers aged 50 and over as redundant and unemployable, and accordingly tended to disadvantage them in recruitment, training, and retirement practices.

(Stypińska & Nikander, 2018, p. 100).

By contrast, those supporting older people were aware that early enforced retirement, a default retirement age and low levels of state pension payments created a 'structured dependency', defined as 'the dependency of older people... artificially structured or deepened as an effect of various state policies' (Stypińska & Nikander, 2018, p. 212).

Concerns for the rights and well-being of older people gradually converged with the growing awareness of the 'demographic timebomb' of an ageing population. The OECD (2006, 2019) was amongst several bodies examining the sustainability of state pension systems and the potential problems of falling labour supply, and consequently calling for longer working lives. Such concerns saw the Employers Forum on Age established in 1996, followed in 1999 by a Government Code of Practice on Age Diversity, albeit with voluntary status. Later, the European Union's Directive on Equal Treatment in Employment and Occupation (2000) was incorporated into UK law through the Employment Equality (Age) Regulations (2006), and then consolidated into the Equality Act in 2010. The initial impact of legislation was however limited. More than two years on the Employers Forum on Age (EFA) expressed disappointment that many people were still victims of ageism at work: '...a change in the law is merely the first step in a long journey towards tackling endemic social prejudices' (Berry, 2009). The final legislative move on age-related rights at work was the removal of the default retirement age in 2011,

so workers could only be forced to retire in certain limited occupational circumstances.

Legislative changes effective from 2010 onwards raised the State Pension Age (SPA) for women to 65 years by 2018, with the further raising for men and women to 66 years by 2020. The next increase will take SPA to 67 years by 2028, with a stated intention to progress to 68 years during the following decade.

These policy developments have led to a dip and then a rise in the average effective retirement age (OECD, 2018) as follows:

UK	1970s	Mid 1990s	2018
Men	67.7	62.0	64.7
Women	65.7	60.2	63.6

Motivation to (remain in) work is complex, with expectations and policies shifting over time (Taylor, 2020). In 2019 the Office for National Statistics noted:

Our ageing population is frequently thought of as a concern, assuming that older people are being economically supported by younger people of working age. But increasingly, this is not the case. People are working until later in life, continuing to contribute economically.

(ONS, 2019, online)

Conflicting messages

As these different legislative changes were taking effect, career practitioners working to support older people were operating in a context of varying, often conflicting, research findings, policy assumptions and individual expectations.

Government research, policy and provision

Government policy largely arose from the need to constrain the burgeoning cost of the state pension, and rising concern since 2000 about labour shortages overall and skill shortages in specific industries. The latter was exacerbated by emerging policy on EU migration from 2016 onwards.

Policy responses were largely focused towards employers. The 1999 Code of Practice on Age Diversity led to the 'Age Positive' campaign under the guidance of the Dept for Work and Pensions (DWP), later augmented by the 'Extending Working Lives' strategy, and subsequently replaced by 'Fuller Working Lives' from 2014.

Employers' attitudes and expectations

The response from employers varied considerably, dependent on the size and gender make-up of the employer's workforce, and skill availability for that work sector (Barnes et al. 2009). Manpower reported that over half of employers expected workers to work beyond age 65, while only a third of workers were in favour of doing so (Birmingham Post, 2007). This contrasts with the persistent ageism noted by the Employers Forum on Age (see above). Research distinguished between positive attitudes to retention of existing older workers, which was twice as likely as new recruitment from this age group (Manpower, 2008).

What about older people themselves?

Older people are a very heterogeneous group. Those considered here include the first cohort who benefitted from the doubling of university places in the mid-1960s, and their peers who, until the early 1970s, were able to leave school at 15 without qualifications. As people age, further disparities arise from genetic and socioeconomic influences on health and physical wellbeing, and from chance.

By the 2000s, the age cohort passing their 50th birthday included a proportion of women whose working lives may have benefitted from equal pay legislation and the right to return to work after maternity leave (from 1975 and 1978 respectively). Older women might however face the double jeopardy of age and sex discrimination. As noted in the first working paper of the Centre for Research into the Older Workforce (CROW) in 2004: 'Women are likely to experience age discrimination at work earlier in life than men, since managers perceive women as "old" earlier' (p.2).

Several studies explored this heterogeneity. An early example, CROW (2004) identified 'choosers', 'survivors' and 'jugglers'. Yeandle (2005) offers a similar but more extensive list. Later UK research revealed: 'A study of individuals working beyond SPA found that around half were working because they 'were not ready to stop work', while 17 per cent were doing so to 'pay for essential items' (DWP, 2017, p. 15).

What concerned career guidance practitioners

These economic concerns were however of secondary importance to career development workers, who were more attuned to 'the often neglected voice in these debates – that of the older workers themselves' (Loretto, 2010, p. 280).

These voices deliver varied and contrasting messages. Work-related stress and general impacts on health arise from differing causes, e.g. job intensity and pressure, long hours leading to physical or mental tiredness, and arduous travel to work. Older people experiencing such conditions may seek flexibility, typically by downshifting work responsibilities or reducing hours, but for some this is not a viable option. Job satisfaction, unwelcome stress, and desire for career advancement all interrelate, in complex patterns, with people's personal state of health, caring responsibilities, and financial need to cover current expenditure and pension savings for retirement.

Career discussions could help identify options, preferences and ways of approaching negotiation within the workplace. But it is important to remember that some older people in, or (re-)entering, the workforce are interested in promotion: 'just over one in ten (11 per cent) older workers were dissatisfied because they wanted promotion and higher levels of responsibility' (Smeaton et al. 2009, p. 13). This EHRC report emphasises the need to avoid assumptions, with many older workers continuing 'to perform, both physically and mentally, at levels that cannot be differentiated from their younger colleagues' (ibid, p.13).

Retirement planning is also influenced by the strength of ties to the person's actual job role, to their employing organisation, and to their profession (Adams et al. 2002). Indeed the notion of 'retirement'

has changed significantly, becoming for some people a process over an extended period. Retirement is conceptualized as decision-making; as an adjustment process; as a career development stage; and as a human resource management concern (Loretto & Vickerstaff, 2015).

Provision

Nationally, career guidance provision for adults in 2000 was delivered through a two-level model. Across the whole UK the Ufl Learndirect helpline provided information, advice and signposting, plus a number of online tools, for anyone aged 18 and over and at no cost to the user. In England, local Information, Advice and Guidance (IAG) partnerships, aligned with the then Training and Enterprise Council areas, offered a parallel service face-to-face, supported by in-depth guidance, generally available free to specified groups. Both levels of provision were expected to offer an impartial service to meet the matrix quality standard for the organisation overall, with individual staff trained to various levels from NVQ 2 to 4. From 2004 the local IAG partnerships were replaced by sub-regional contracts for nextsteps services, aligned to the then Learning and Skills Council (LSC) areas, with a lead contractor and subcontract arrangements with other delivery agencies, many of whom had been members of the IAG partnerships. Eligibility for free access to nextsteps services was largely confined to unemployed people and those lacking any qualification at Level 2, although some LSCs funded a limited opportunity for other adults to use the service. Although poorly marketed, this was particularly beneficial to older people with older and out-of-date qualifications or skills.

In 2006, Learndirect undertook a trial of in-depth guidance delivery by telephone in addition to the face-to-face in-depth guidance offered by nextsteps. An evaluation showed that older people were less enthusiastic about the Learndirect provision than younger users. It found the trial had:

...not attracted representative proportions of callers aged over 50. This is also true of face-to-face services, although nextstep services ... have a larger proportion of clients in this age group. The over 50s were significantly less likely than

other callers to report that learndirect guidance helped them to make an informed decision about their career, although calls with callers in this age group did score 'good' and 'excellent'.

(Page et al. 2007, p. viii)

This throws up an apparent contradiction between delivery staff and expert evaluators rating the service good or excellent, whilst older people were less inclined to use it, and found it less helpful when they did do so.

This contradiction was examined further to explore whether the mode of delivery was less attractive to older people, and/or whether older people had different career development needs which were not being recognised (Barham & Hawthorn, 2010). Broadly, the delivery mode examination confirmed that attitudes to use of remote technologies (phone or internet) were as heterogeneous as the age group itself. For those who used such technologies, good practice for older people was the same as good practice for anyone else. Some people were reluctant or unskilled in using the technologies; others were reluctant to do so for career purposes, although they used them in other settings (see also Hedges & Sykes, 2009; Davis & Ritter, 2009). Any strategy that adopted a 'digital by default' approach would leave a proportion of older people under-served.

The study into career development needs identified that priorities commonly shifted as people entered the decade towards likely retirement. Career images related to advancement held less relevance than those focused towards finding a satisfying and fulfilling lifestyle, including some flexibility about tasks and hours, balance between work and personal life, and frequently the possibility to 'give something back' after a rewarding career (Barham & Hawthorn, 2010). Suitably targeted publicity is important but remains unusual: 'Over 50s need to be directly and thoughtfully targeted in the advertising and marketing of employment services' (Centre for Ageing Better, 2020).

The National Careers Service (NCS) replaced earlier services from 1st April 2012. The launch document continued the focus on people 'on out of work benefits' and those lacking a Level 2 qualification, but noticeably had a complete absence of any reference

to older workers. Given the age equality legislation in 2006 and 2010, followed by legislation removing the default retirement age in 2011, this seems a surprising omission. Conversely, the extensive range of research funded by DWP in relation to their Extending Working Life and subsequently Fuller Working Lives strategies produces an array of reports with scant mention, let alone recognition, of the part that could be played by career development services beyond that offered by work coaches within DWP, despite the stated purpose to 'find ... ways to stimulate higher rates of employment amongst individuals aged 50 and over' (Weyman et al 2012, p. 1). In 2013 the government began funding the Mid Life Career Review pilot project, however it was only in 2018, following the Cridland Review's proposal in 2017 for a Mid-life MOT, that older people became a funded target group under NCS contracts (Cridland, 2017).

Mid Life Career Review

The Mid Life Career Review (MLCR) 2013-2015 pilot project demonstrated the value of a career review in the decade or two before likely retirement. The final MLCR report noted:

Evidence from clients and advisers indicates that the Review helped clients to:

- Return to work after unemployment;
- Better understand their opportunities to change job, move to self-employment, or negotiate more appropriate working conditions;
- Find appropriate training to improve their employability;
- Make realistic decisions about extending working life;
- Improve their health and wellbeing.

(NIACE, 2015)

After the MLCR pilot ceased some limited activity continued, unsupported by public policy or central funding. Players included Unionlearn which had participated in the pilot areas, and employers such as Age UK and Aviva. Interest in mid-life provision received a boost in 2017 when the Cridland Review

of the State Pension Age (Cridland, 2017) advocated a 'Mid-life MOT', with the specific recommendation that this should enable individuals to review the interlinking arenas of work, finance and health at an indicative age of around 50 years. Specifically, Cridland recommended that the National Careers Service be resourced to deliver the employment aspect of the Mid-life MOT.

Pilot work, much of it by larger employers, to explore the benefits of integrating employment, financial and health advice has largely been positive; experiences and lessons learnt have been reported by the Centre for Ageing Better (2018) and the Institute for Employment Studies (IES) (Gloster et al. 2018). Whilst there is now a government website portal to Mid-life MOT services, it offers only a brief introduction plus links to other government services including the NHS Health check for people aged 40-74, the Pensions Advisory Service and the NCS, where the landing page has no direct reference to older people. Business in the Community offers a toolkit for small and medium sized employers, using the same health, wealth and work structure and with links to other public provision (BiTC, 2019).

The 'home nations'

Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland all offer an all-age guidance service. The opening page of the Skill Development Scotland (SDS) website (<https://www.myworldofwork.co.uk/>) carries the flag statement: **Supporting you at every stage of your career**, with career changes, career progression and help with redundancy all being prominent options that might appeal to older people. The apparently close integration of career development support with a range of SDS funding opportunities suggest good levels of access to and progression from the funding streams, although specific 'older worker' statistics are not readily available.

In Wales, Watts (2009) noted:

...the all-age stand-alone structure of Careers Wales assures that all inhabitants of Wales in principle have access to independent and impartial career guidance services. Care is taken where possible to segregate group youth activities, so that adult clients do not feel uncomfortable in what they might otherwise see

Career development and older people

as a youth-dominated environment. Estimates suggest that between a third and a half of visitors to the centres are adults. (p.23)

Watts found that the website *Careers Wales On Line* attracts a lower number of adult users, with some feedback that it is perceived as a youth-oriented facility. However it now prominently displays the age-friendly message that people may need to ‘change jobs at various stages of their careers for a variety of reasons’, followed by a list of issues that may be relevant and signposts to elsewhere on the site and to personal support.

The careers service run by the Civil Service in Northern Ireland offers a wide range of support for adult clients. Promotion of the offer, for example through its free print and online workbook *Careers Service – An Adult’s Guide*, is obvious, although the workbook does not incorporate any age-friendly sections for those in later career.

Other career development support

Private career practitioners have become active in offering services related to older people, both as consultancy to employing organisations, and as a service for those willing and able to pay for face-to-face or online support. There appears to be a sound business case for developing such services, which aligns well with the desire to support both employers and workers. Recognising this joint motivation, the Career Development Institute has initiated networking activities for members delivering services to older people, and held its first national conference on this topic in late 2019.

The outlook for career development and older people in 2020

To describe the outlook as unclear is an understatement. Workers aged over 50 are the second most Covid-19 impacted group after young people. At the time of writing the outcomes for furloughed workers remain unclear but inevitably there

has been, and will continue to be, rising unemployment. Moreover, for older workers there is a longstanding trend not to return to comparable conditions of employment after an unemployment shock. Proximity to retirement can be help or hindrance. A minority may be content to bring forward retirement plans, but for many more the last years of working life, when family financial pressures could have eased, had offered the chance to consolidate retirement savings. As a result, more than one in eight over-55s is considering delaying a planned retirement date (YouGov poll reported by Sharma, 2020). Enforced retirement has negative effects on mental health, and more so when it is sudden or results in financial stress. For employers and workers, health risks for older people from Covid-19 bring new considerations. Equally there is a converse possibility that older people may have more suitable ‘work from home’ settings, without small children and enjoying the comparative flexibility of managing their workspace and time.

A clear conclusion from these conflicting experiences and possibilities is that many more people will benefit from individual, holistic career support services within the context of a mid-life (or late career) review. That provision, offering the time needed to untangle complexity, is not currently on offer. Nor is it likely to be prioritised under National Careers Service contracts operating on a ‘payment by results’ basis, when neither labour market conditions nor the characteristics of the client group make the paid-for results easily achievable. It is undoubtedly time for a renewed focus on how older people can be supported in the later stages of career and through the processes of retirement.



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For correspondence

Dr Lyn Barham

lynbarham@gmail.com

Supporting career development in organisations: Drivers, practices and challenges

Wendy Hirsh

This article describes the evolution of career development in UK employing organisations over the period 2000-2020. It looks at the characteristics of career development in organisations; the business drivers for supporting the career development of employees; some of the ideas that have influenced how employers think about career development; and key career development practices. The article also explores the challenges that constrain effective career development for employees.

In addition to published material, the article includes some case examples of current practice, drawing on semi-structured interviews with NICEC Fellows, specialists in organisational careers work and HR professionals.



Characteristics of career development in organisations

Career development activity inside an employing organisation is significantly different from career counselling, coaching or guidance in other settings.

Firstly, its stakeholders and purposes are fundamentally different. The needs of the business and the needs of the individual employee are both central and do not necessarily align. Organisational needs, like those of individuals, are diverse, contextual, and change over time. Individuals' careers in organisations are affected

by a wide range of stakeholders, especially managers and human resource (HR) professionals.

The second set of differences are in focus, activities and processes. Career guidance outside organisations tends to focus on individual decision-making about work and education. In internal labour markets, personal career planning is still important, but is often less challenging than how individuals and others can best act to achieve desired career development outcomes. Internal labour markets operate through a whole raft of business and people management processes, which are not primarily identified as 'career processes'. They include training, job filling, succession and talent management, work design, pay and grading, feedback, assessment and performance management. Individuals and managers need to navigate this complex web of formal and informal processes, influenced by attitudes and culture as much as by process design.

As Mackenzie Davey (2020) argues:

'The fundamental difficulty organizational career development theory faces is in understanding interactions between individual agency, organizational processes, and social contexts over time.'

A third difference is that the ideas or theories influencing career development in organisations come predominantly from business, management and human resource management thinking, not from career guidance. The career guidance profession in the UK is largely separated from the professional field of HR, including learning and development (L&D) and organisation development (OD).

Mixed messages at the start of the millennium

Following the decline of UK employment in old industries in the 1970s and 80s, the early 1990s brought white collar redundancies, further shifting the psychological contract between employer and employee (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Many organisations at that time, told employees they had to take responsibility for their own development to remain 'employable'. Some were disinclined even to use the word 'career'.

Some researchers did challenge the exaggerated and negative messages about the end of organisational careers at that time (Guest & Mackenzie Davey, 1996; Gratton & Hailey, 1999). Mackenzie Davey (2020) now concludes that 'the move from a focus on organizational careers to self-driven, boundaryless careers in the 1990s overemphasized individual choice and individual responsibility', neglecting the role and responsibility of the organisation.

Through the 1990s the ideas of employee self-development (Pedler et al., 1988), coaching, mentoring (Clutterbuck, 1998) and experiential learning were influencing people management. Transformational leadership theory also placed a greater emphasis on motivating and developing employees.

By the early 1990s high tech employers were collectively supporting a Career Action Center, offering individuals career advice, group activities and resources in the volatile labour market of Silicon Valley (Waterman et al., 1994). Stevens (1996) reviewed both career strategy and a range of career development approaches used by The Worklife Network with Australian employers.

In the UK, the Institute of Personnel and Development (now the CIPD) published a guide to Career Management in Organisations (IPD, 1998). This guide examined both organisational and individual perspectives on a wide range of practices, including recruitment, reward, training and education, succession management, job movements, secondments, personal development plans, career action centres and workshops, career coaching and counselling, flexible working and more.

Employers therefore entered the millennium with a well-developed range of possible career development practices they could adopt. But then, as now, many organisations were not confident about their strategy for career development, the career opportunities they could offer, or the extent of personalised career support they wanted to give some or all employees (Arnold, 1997; Hirsh & Jackson, 2004).

Taking a strategic approach

Employers understand that employees need support to develop their careers (CRF, 2020) and indeed understood this twenty years ago (CIPD, 2003). But there is a persistent gap between what employers think and what they say to employees. Employers also continue to rely on career development practices which they see as ineffective (CRF, 2020).

As John Lees, career strategist, coach and author observes:

'The HR function often says employees need to 'take control' of their own careers and are frustrated by passive individuals. But the naive assumption is that once this has been said, then it will happen.'

In developing a range of career development activities to address both organisational needs and the interests of the workforce, a more strategic approach has long been advocated (Yarnall, 2007).

'Career interventions should support a clear strategic direction, informed by data and internal and external insights, including the views of employees.'

Rosemary McLean, The Career Innovation Company

'Coty, a global beauty and cosmetics company has built a strategic approach to career development over several years, strongly supported by its senior business leaders. The approach recognises the reality of frequent business restructuring, including acquisitions. The business drivers for individual career development are staff retention and engagement, and the external reputation of the company. The language adopted is of

individuals planning their “short and longer-term growth” to be ready to take opportunities. Tools provided to employees describe selected core roles in various business functions and the experiences needed to reach these roles. Careers can have breadth or depth and be local or global. Diverse careers are illustrated by the personal journeys of individuals. Tools and exercises are provided online to help individuals think about their own career aspirations and explore their options. Managers are trained in coaching skills. The main challenges now include integrating employee-driven internal mobility with corporately driven talent management and succession planning processes and extending the career tools to lower levels in the organisation. Support from both line managers and HR is vital to embedding the strategy as a “lived experience for employees.”

Sarah Burns, VP Global Talent, Coty

Shifting career development drivers for organisations

Taking a strategic approach requires organisations to clarify how career development will help the business.

Growing a supply of people to meet business skill needs is probably the clearest and most persistent reason for employers to engage with career development. Experiencing a range of relevant jobs or work tasks over time is how employees develop breadth and/or depth of skills. This skills driver prioritises those jobs and people with ‘critical’ skills that are both important to the business and hard to recruit. PwC (2020) found that three quarters of CEOs were concerned about such skills. CRF (2020) found HR professionals wanted to make career development align more strongly with changing skill needs.

Employee attraction, retention and motivation are trotted out as potential benefits of career development, but it is difficult to find or generate robust evidence of these hoped for impacts. Career development attention may retain some employees (Winter & Jackson, 2004) but other individuals may leave if they are helped to reflect on their aspirations

and opportunities. If career development activities improve skill acquisition, skill deployment or employee motivation, then improved organisational performance is likely to follow (Purcell et al., 2003). But getting such outcomes requires sustained effort. Employee wellbeing is another potential career development driver if career dissatisfaction can be shown to have a significant mental health cost for employed adults.

Employers are increasingly focused on organisational change and talk about adaptability, flexibility, agility and resilience. The career assumption is that individuals with a wider range of work experience, learning and career transitions may be more willing and able to adapt to change. PwC (2020) found over three quarters of employees were willing to upskill to become more employable, but only 1 in 3 felt they had been given the opportunity to gain transferable and digital skills.

There is a danger that the UK is shifting too much of the responsibility to anticipate and respond to change from employers to employees.

‘One of the things that is going on in organisations is a transfer of responsibility to the individual. We saw this in a lot of work on resilience - workers now need to organise their own resilience and organisations can ignore the fact they won’t do sensible things around development and creating opportunities.’

John Lees, career strategist, coach and author

Career support can also play a simple human role in helping employees cope with uncertain circumstances. For example:

Cathy Brown of Evolve was working as a business coach with the managing director of a small professional services company in the spring of 2020 when he had to put his workforce on furlough. He offered his employees confidential career support with Cathy. They had a chance to reflect on themselves, their situation and their direction. With most staff these career conversations at a worrying time strengthened their attachment to the business and seem to have been valuable both to the organisation and its people.

Concerns about productivity, competitiveness and technological change are re-focussing messages which have been with us from the 1990s about lateral career moves. These are now seen as encouraging innovation and collaboration:

‘The BBC has a history of using temporary job placements and short-term assignments to broaden career experience. A programme called Hot Shoes, running from the early 2000s, uses placements and shadowing to support change and increases people’s understanding of other departments. The Career Development Team is seeking to stimulate internal career mobility to foster collaboration and innovation across internal divisional boundaries. The team is seeking to establish career pathways that will enable everyone, and particularly people from backgrounds which are under-represented at leadership level, to build up experiences which support them to develop, fulfil their potential and progress.’

Lorna Macdonald, Head of Career Development,
BBC

Wider ideas influencing career development

As noted earlier, big ideas in people management and the HR profession have an impact on career development in organisations. Talent management, employee engagement and inclusion are three such big ideas.

Talent management

McKinsey’s War for Talent (Chambers et al., 1998) had huge impact with HR Directors and CEOs who were concerned about the quality of senior leaders. The ‘talent’ craze of the 2000s was mostly old succession wine in rather crude talent bottles (see for example Hall, 1986) and had some negative consequences (Gladwell, 2002; Yarnall & Lucy, 2015).

However, looking back from 2020, ‘talent management’ does seem to have put careers back on the corporate agenda. Numerous associated ideas about the employee lifecycle, potential, critical workforce groups and developing talent pipelines seem to have

rippled out into a more positive stance on the career development of wider groups of skilled workers, although rarely the entire workforce (Hirsh & Tyler, 2017). Talent management thinking has also attracted many employers to supporting careers work in schools, colleges and universities.

Employee engagement and the role of the line manager

Engaging for Success (MacCleod & Clarke, 2009) was a high-profile campaign showing that experiences which create positive attitudes towards the employing organisation lead to employees behaving in ways which have a measurable impact on the bottom line. Although a contested concept academically, employee engagement has taken root as an HR idea. Many organisations regularly survey their employees to benchmark engagement scores, which often include some career-related items. The results of these surveys often highlight employees’ interest in career development and their relative dissatisfaction with career development support.

Engagement research also highlighted the key influence of the immediate line manager on employee attitudes. This may have contributed to an increasing focus on the quality of first line management and the need for all managers to coach and develop their staff.

Diversity and inclusion

Organisational attention to diversity and inclusion has changed the careers landscape. Attention in the 1970s to the career issues of women returners has widened into a growing awareness of the inter-sectional impacts of gender, race, disability and social background on careers. Inclusion has transcended arguments about business benefits and become a reputational issue for employers. It is one of the few career drivers which can focus senior attention on the opportunities for all staff, not just those with scarce skills.

Organisational career development practices

Dominant practices are largely unchanged

Comparing two surveys by CRF (2020) and CIPD (2003), as shown in the panel, suggests that employers’

career development policies and practices have changed little over the past 20 years. The three main practices used to support career development are: an open internal job market (where vacancies are advertised and staff apply); formal and informal career conversations with the line manager; and self-help career information and/or career planning tools. Learning and development is usually present but does not necessarily extend beyond current work tasks.

Many employers use succession planning or talent management practices to identify individuals as successors or 'high potential'. However, the facilitated,

individualised skill and career development required for these individuals is challenging to deliver, even for small numbers of employees (Hirsh, 2016).

'Employers use succession planning and talent management as top-down approaches to careers and also support staff through information and conversations as bottom-up enablers - but the two do not often seem to meet in the middle.'

Gillian Pillans, Research Director, Corporate Research Forum

Career Development - Then and Now

The Corporate Research Forum (CRF, 2020) recently surveyed over 140 employers, asking some of the same questions used by the CIPD (2003) in their much earlier survey of over 700 organisations, including small firms.

Half the CRF respondents had a career development strategy, most often as part of their wider employment or talent management strategy. Less than 40% communicated a clear statement on career development to all staff.

60% of the CRF organisations were becoming more active in supporting career development for all staff, and a further 36% for selected groups. Only 4% were becoming less active.

CRF found the most important objective for career development was growing future senior leaders (over 70% put this in their top 3 objectives). Other important drivers were meeting future resourcing and skill needs; giving staff what they need to manage their own careers; helping staff progress and develop their potential; and retaining key staff.

Roughly half the CRF respondents saw career development as a partnership between the organisation and the employee, a quarter as primarily the responsibility of the employee, and the remaining quarter as a partnership but one driven more actively by the organisation for

selected employees. In the 2003 CIPD survey, 80% or more agreed with each of: career development is individually owned; employees need advice, support and training; a partnership approach is essential.

CRF found the commonest career development practices were an open internal job market, both formal and informal career conversations with line managers, and career planning tools and resources – much the same as in the earlier CIPD survey. 90% of CRF respondents used succession planning for at least some jobs. Career moves managed by the organisation were common for leaders and high potential employees, who were also far more likely than other employees to get career support from a professional career counsellor or coach. Informal career support from the HR or learning and development function seemed less common in 2020 than 2003. Only a third of CRF respondents evaluated the effectiveness of career development activities.

About half the CRF sample offered managers training in career development, and only a small minority made this training mandatory – no more than in 2003.

The CRF respondents saw the biggest barriers to effective career development as a lack of line management skill to support staff, insufficient focus on future skills and lack of information about employees' skills and aspirations. There was also significant concern that career conversations can raise expectations which are hard to meet.

Career coaching and career conversations

The idea of 'career conversations' is now mainstream among HR professionals. Formal and informal career conversations with the line manager are strongly advocated by most employers, although they do not necessarily see this approach as effective (CRF, 2020). We know that the line manager is not necessarily the best or only person to have an effective career conversation with (Kidd et al., 2004), but employers choose to ignore this inconvenient reality.

'There is a business logic to the line manager's role in career development, which can be a response to negative feedback in employee engagement surveys. Employees can be critical of career opportunities and a lack of support in developing their careers. But not all bosses are good at having career conversations. It can feel to them like another impossible expectation. They need to be given the tools and information to help staff.'

John Lees, career strategist, coach and author

Gillian Pillans, Research Director of the Corporate Research Forum says:

'Careers are of high interest to the 200 companies who support our research, especially with regard to meeting their future skill needs. But their practical actions do not always support their strategies. For example, nearly all are asking line managers to have both formal and informal career conversations with staff, but few train all their managers for this role. Not surprisingly they see a lack of management skills in giving such support to employees as the biggest barrier to effective career development.'

Organisations can offer individuals career support from other people. Some do use internal or external career professionals, but usually only for senior or high potential groups. Some employees can also access help from external organisations like professional bodies (Jackson, 2008). Internal career support can be scaled up by training career coaches who take on this role in addition to their day job. These volunteers can include mentors, HR or training professionals and employee representatives.

Saint-Gobain is a leading global manufacturer of construction materials and technology. As Richard Batley HR & CSR Director for UK & Ireland explains:

'Saint-Gobain has 22 career coaches. They are senior HR and Learning and Development Managers who take on career coaching in addition to their main work role and have undertaken accredited training for this. We have been offering career coaching since 2012, supporting large number of employees over this time.

Individuals can be nominated for career coaching as part of our talent management approach or they can self-nominate. They are career coached by someone who is outside their own part of the business. Employees appreciate being given the time and space to explore their interests and options, both inside and outside the company. The coaches enjoy meeting people from different parts of the business, which in turn helps them improve career planning and internal mobility.

We've had many success stories, and it's not always about people making big changes. In many instances, career coaching has helped individuals who feel at a crossroads to reconnect and recommit to their current role, and then progress to manage bigger sites or teams of people. We have also inspired people to re-think their long-term goals, pick up lost interests and rediscover their motivation and purpose, all of which drive performance and productivity.

Career coaching fits with our wider ethos of coaching. It's about helping people to find the answers for themselves, as opposed to being told what they are going to do or achieve.'

Career Counselling Services (CCS) have trained people over many years to give career support to employees. These varied providers of career coaching inside organisations can be volunteers who take on this extra role or it may sit with related responsibilities in HR or line management. Rob Nathan, Managing Director of CCS, has found that:

'Reflecting on their own careers helps these trainee career coaches develop empathy

and a broader understanding of how career issues and conversations often bring in wider life considerations. CCS has also developed a range of tools which give career coaches the opportunity to have a broader range of responses to the issues that employees raise.'

Career information, workshops and self-help tools

If employees are expected to manage their own careers, the organisation needs to have something to say about what those careers may look like. Organisations can describe generic work roles and the skills and experiences needed for different levels of work in different functions or professions, often called job families. Diagrams can show broad types of career path, illustrating for example the differences between managerial and professional opportunities. Personal accounts of careers can also help, but perhaps more for the light they shed on career management skills than for the specific paths they illustrate.

Career workshops or courses can help employees address their career decisions and develop career management skills. They are relatively easy to position and resource. Career workshops can target specific groups of employees as, for example, companies like Aviva are doing as part of a 'Mid-Life MOT' for older employees.

Online group teaching methods make it easier and cheaper to deliver career workshops to bigger populations of employees and to combine personalised facilitation and group interaction with online information and self-help tools.

'Having developed online career programmes for employees over 20 years, we have recently focused on providing a guided career learning experience via a structured online 10-week course led by career coaches. This mirrors a coaching approach but at scale. Employees need the skills to navigate and take action in their own careers: to gain a sense of personal agency. Equipping people to build relationships to support their career is key.'

Rosemary McLean, The Career Innovation Company

Challenges and opportunities

The biggest challenge of career development in organisations over the past twenty years has been how to deliver significant career support to large numbers of employees in a sustainable way. Even career interventions with overwhelmingly positive feedback are vulnerable to being cut, such as the MOD Career Consultancy Service featured in an earlier NICEC journal article (Nathan & Hirsh, 2013).

'When costs are being cut or when progressive people leave an organisation, attention to the career development of employees often goes too. I don't know if money is really the barrier, but the career agenda is perhaps too intangible in terms of its value. I have the image of a snakes and ladders board in my mind. Too often organisations, having advanced, then slide down a long snake. I see it and feel sad. It can all go so quickly. This lack of sustained attention means our field does not progress.'

Cathy Brown, Evolve

Sustained attention to career development is also hampered by a lack of clarity over where it should be positioned within HR. Career development straddles resourcing and L&D, which are largely separate areas of HR work. Career development is also not seen as an essential skill for HR professionals by CIPD - the professional body for HR in the UK.

So where is career development in organisations heading? We have a wide range of approaches we can adopt, but this toolbox has been there for the past twenty years. Technology should make these tools more accessible and interactive. Internal social media spaces are already being used by some employers to encourage career networking. A new generation of 'talent market-place' products aim to integrate individual skill data with career planning tools, employee aspirations and real time organisational opportunities. It will be interesting to see if such systems generate enough value for individuals to encourage them to put in the time and data required.

In 2020, careers seem back on the corporate agenda, but still for some employees more than others. Re-skilling and internal re-deployment will be driven by

the economic impacts of COVID-19 and BREXIT on top of continuing technological change. This presents a huge opportunity for effective career development in organisations to make a difference to people's working lives and to business success. Career professionals can play a major role if they address organisational as well as individual needs, and help to design, implement and evaluate sustainable sets of activities not just one-off interventions.



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For correspondence

Dr Wendy Hirsh,
NICEC Fellow;
Principal Associate, Institute for Employment Studies;
Visiting Professor of Career Development,
University of Derby

wh@wendyhirsh.com

Memories of Bill Gothard

Bill Gothard, former Director of the Career Studies Unit at the University of Reading, passed away on the 20th of August 2020. Phil Mignot and Phil McCash, who were colleagues of Bill at Reading, offer their memories of his career in careers guidance.

By the mid-1990s, Reading had established a strong tradition of person-centred approaches to careers guidance and the training of careers guidance professionals. Bill Gothard's influence and presence was instrumental in establishing this tradition. Bill had already been involved in the design and delivery of counselling courses at Reading's London Road campus and brought this experience to bear in his work on careers guidance programmes at the University.

Reading quickly established its reputation as a centre for academic excellence in careers guidance and counselling course provision that was strongly guided by Rogerian principles. Bill contributed to this in many ways.

First, he had a commitment to research-informed practice. This was exemplified in his PhD thesis which combined his knowledge and expertise as a sociologist and careers adviser (Gothard, 1977). Bill's subsequent academic publications included highly influential theoretical work; for example, his Jungian oriented articles entitled 'The Mid Life Transition' and 'Career as a Myth' brought psychodynamic and narrative-based ideas into the field (Gothard, 1996 & 1999a).

At the same time Bill was ever a practitioner, concerned with the application of theory to enhance careers guidance practice. His article 'The contract and effective careers counselling' was a notable contribution to this endeavour emphasising the central importance of the working relationship between practitioners and clients (Gothard, 1999b).

Second, Bill was concerned to model Rogerian principles in his own professional practice; he was respectful and genuine with students and colleagues

and would always give good counsel when the time was right.

Third, Bill was also a pragmatist. He was highly attuned to the drivers of change in Higher Education and showed a quiet determination and sound judgement in curriculum innovation. An example of this was the development of the BA in Human Services at Reading's Bulmershe campus in the late 1990s. Bill coordinated the development of this interdisciplinary degree which was designed to contribute to the widening access to Higher Education initiatives that were gathering pace at the time.

Bill developed an integrative approach in relation to career theory and helped practitioners recognise the value of triangulating multiple theories to progressively understand the lived experience of career more deeply and more wholly. Together with colleagues at Reading, and elsewhere, he pioneered constructivist and hermeneutic approaches to career development. He also extended his integrative approach to include learning theory (Gothard & Mignot, 1999).

Bill was an innovator in the creation of distance learning materials for the teaching of career development professionals. The quality and range of scholarship deployed in his teaching was unparalleled and introduced students to the ideas of George Kelly, Eric Erikson, Carol Gilligan, Daniel Levinson, Peter Blau, Helen Astin, Lynda Gottfredson, James Marcia, and Joseph Campbell to name but a few (Gothard, 1998).

As a Course Director of the MA Career Education, Information and Guidance in Higher Education, taught in partnership between the University of

Reading and the Association of Graduate Careers Advisory Services (AGCAS), he played a central role for many years in the continuous professional development of hundreds of career development professionals based in the Higher Education sector.

In terms of the overall field, he deserves to be remembered as a seminal figure who pioneered the bridging of counselling and educational traditions in career development work. He was also a kind and supportive colleague who maintained a benevolent interest in the subsequent careers of staff and students alike.

Bill retired from academic life in 2006 when his contribution was recognised by the Higher Education community including an award presented by Rose Mortenson, the Professional Development Manager at AGCAS. He continued working part-time at the University of Reading careers service for some time and enjoyed this renewed contact with client practice. In later years, he was diagnosed with Parkinson's disease. He engaged in fundraising activities in relation to this including a sponsored climb on Kilimanjaro.

Phil McCash & Phil Mignot

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Call for papers

Journal of the National Institute for Career Education and Counselling: October 2021 Issue

Open call for papers

Editor: Phil McCash

In order to enable and encourage the widest possible range of contributions, there is no specific theme identified for the October 2021 issue of the journal. Accordingly, papers are invited on any subject related to career development. As a rough guide, the following contexts and/or topics may be addressed. Any further suggestions to the editor would also be welcome.

Context(s) could include:

- Workplace settings (e.g. career coaching, L&D, HR, outplacement)
- Educational settings (e.g. schools, further education and skills, higher education)
- Informal settings (e.g. community-based)
- Career development work with young people in any context
- Career development work with adults in any context
- Any other relevant context

Topics(s) could include:

- Creative practice
- Innovation in relevant concepts or theories
- Current labour market issues and/or societal developments
- The organisation, management, or marketing of career support services
- Emerging political, corporate and/or governmental issues
- Expanding and/or innovative services and areas of activity
- Global, international, or non-UK-based work
- Social justice, critical pedagogical, and/or emancipatory practices
- The role of learning in the support of career development
- New tools, technologies, and models
- Fresh critical perspectives
- New case studies and other empirical work
- The relationship between career and lifelong learning, employability, well-being or other area
- The training and education of people who provide career help
- Any other relevant topic

Please feel free to email Phil McCash, the issue editor, with any preliminary queries and/or expressions of interest: p.t.mccash@warwick.ac.uk

Final deadline for complete submissions prior to peer review: 30th June 2021

Forthcoming events | NICEC

The NICEC Events are likely to take place via Zoom for the foreseeable future. Please register your interest when the events are promoted to receive the login details. Details for the NICEC events calendar are kept up to date on the website <http://www.nicec.org/> Please send any queries to Claire.m.nix@gmail.com

Topics	Contributors & Themes	Dates & Times
Network Meeting: New perspectives in career development	Tristram Hooley, Phil McCash and Pete Robertson will lead a network meeting to explore the ideas presented in the new Oxford Handbook of Career Development.	Monday 17 May 2021 2-5pm
Cutting Edge Event with the CDI: Growing the evidence base	A full-day event run in partnership with the CDI. Contributors include Jane Artess, Rosemary McLean, Dr Lyn Barham, Dr Bob Gilworth, Sareena Hopkins and Professor Peter McIlveen to explore:- <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the collection of meaningful data in careers work. the capacity for practitioner research to generate evidence. how data collection can impact policy and practice in higher education. how to assess a range of sources of evidence. the use of evidence in careers work https://www.thecdi.net/Skills-training-events	Tuesday 20 April 2021 10.30am-4pm
Seminar: Green careers and sustainability	Dr Lyn Barham is coordinating a seminar focusing on the career education and guidance responses to the environmental challenge.	Monday 5 July 2021 5-6.30pm
Network Meeting: Careers in a Covid world – Megatrends & Metaskilling – and practice responses	David Wilson is coordinating with Naeema Pasha of the Henley Business School a network meeting investigating mega trends and meta-skilling and the practice response to supporting the workforce of the future.	Tuesday 21 or Thursday 30 September 2021 2-5pm
Seminar: Exploring five new career theories	The seminar, led by Julia Yates of City University, will explore the connection between the theories and career coaching practice in meeting client needs.	(Day TBC) November 2021 5-6.30pm

Seminars and Network Meetings:

- Included in membership fees for NICEC Fellows and members.
- £25 for seminars and £40 for Network meetings for non-members wishing to attend.
- The Cutting-Edge events are free to CDI members and NICEC Fellows and members.

Forthcoming events | CDI

A full list of CPD events, as well as further information about them, is available on the CDI website at <https://www.thecdi.net/Skills-training-events>

The various types of training on offer include webinars, digital bytes, expert training online, conferences and accredited courses through the CDI Academy.

All our CPD webinars are free to members – please register your interest for each session so we can send you the joining link. Non-members can also join these sessions by registering and paying online.

Members can also view any webinar in our back catalogue, through our YouTube channel which contains over 100 webinar recordings. This is accessed through the members' area of the CDI website www.thecdi.net

ABOUT THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE

The Career Development Institute (CDI) is the UK-wide professional body for the career development sector. We have a growing membership of 4500 individual members and affiliate organisations and speak with one voice for a lively and diverse sector.

We have a key role to play in influencing UK skills policy as it affects those with whom career development practitioners work and a clear purpose to improve and assure the quality and availability of career development services for all throughout the UK.

All CDI members subscribe to a Code of Ethics, which is supported by a strong disciplinary process, and subscribe to the principles of CPD.

Importantly the CDI is responsible for the UK Register of Career Development Professionals; the National Occupational Standards (NOS: CD); the first Career Progression Pathway for the sector; UK Career Development Awards; QCD and QCG/D qualifications; the CDI Academy; the Careers Framework and a UK-wide CPD programme.

Below are a few of our major achievements:

- A powerful brand supported by an evolving website www.thecdi.net; social media (Twitter and LinkedIn) presence; and quarterly magazine *Career Matters*;
- A schedule of CPD, skills training, webinars and conferences based on market analysis and members' training needs;
- A growing media and lobbying presence with the CDI recognised as the *expert voice* in the field; advising politicians, speaking at conferences and commenting on policy;

- The establishment of the UK Career Development Awards – ten sponsored awards including *Careers Adviser/Coach of the Year* and *Careers Leader of the Year and Lifetime Achievement Award*;
- Clear focus on professional identity and increasing the professionalism of the sector through our influence, ownership and development of the QCD and QCG/D and the CDI Academy including the new *CDI Certificate in Careers Leadership*.

ASSURING QUALITY

The CDI has a critical role to play in setting standards and articulating what quality looks like for the sector. Importantly we are an awarding body, managing the Qualification in Career Development (previously the QCG/D) and the UK Register for Career Development Professionals, which is pivotal to our ongoing quality agenda and is fast becoming recognised as the sector's equivalent to chartered status.

We are delighted to be working in partnership with NICEC on the Journal and the NICEC/CDI research-focused events which take place twice a year across the UK.

The Journal is made available to all CDI members via our website.



Contents

EDITORIAL

- 2 Manifestations of change
Michelle Stewart

ARTICLES

- 3 Access and partnership: How schools in England responded to changes in career guidance services in the first two decades of the 21st century
David Andrews
- 10 The (faltering) renaissance of theory in higher education careers practice
David Winter & Julia Yates
- 18 The development of career guidance roles and their professionalism: 1999-2020
John Gough
- 25 What has digital technology done for us and how can we evolve as a sector to make best use of what it has to offer?
Nicki Moore
- 32 Career Development and Coaching: Straddling two worlds and bringing them together
Gill Frigerio & Stephanie Rix
- 39 Career development and older people
Lyn Barham
- 47 Supporting career development in organisations: Drivers, practices and challenges
Wendy Hirsh
- 56 Memories of Bill Gothard
Phil McCash & Phil Mignot

