The Future of Career

Edited by
Audrey Collin and Richard A. Young
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notes on contributors</th>
<th>page vii</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Introduction: framing the future of career  
*RICHARD A. YOUNG AND AUDREY COLLIN*

### Part 1: Changing contexts

2 ‘Fracture lines’ in the career environment  
*JULIE A. STOREY*

3 Some contributions of sociology to the understanding of career  
*MARIE-FRANCE MARANDA AND YVAN COMEAU*

4 Renovating the psychology of careers for the twenty-first century  
*MARK L. SAVICKAS*

5 Changing career: the role of values  
*WENDY PATTON*

6 Dancing to the music of time  
*AUDREY COLLIN*

### Part 2: New perspectives

7 The future of boundaryless careers  
*SUELLEN M. LITTLETON, MICHAEL B. ARTHUR, AND DENISE M. ROUSSEAU*

8 Career development in a changing context of the second part of working life  
*DANIELLE RIVERIN-SIMARD*
The future of women’s career
HEATHER HÖPFL AND PAT HORNBY ATKINSON

Career or slide? Managing on the threshold of sense
DAMIAN O’DOHERTY AND IAN ROBERTS

Epic and novel: the rhetoric of career
AUDREY COLLIN

Part 3: New directions for theory, practice and policy

Reconceptualising career theory and research: an action-theoretical perspective
RICHARD A. YOUNG AND LADISLAV VALACH

A new perspective for counsellors: from career ideologies to empowerment through work and relationship practices
MARY SUE RICHARDSON

Adapting to the changing multicultural context of career
FREDERICK T. L. LEONG AND PAUL J. HARTUNG

Managing careers in organisations
MIKE DOYLE

Learning for work: global causes, national standards, human relevance
BILL LAW

The new career and public policy
A. G. WATTS

The future of career
AUDREY COLLIN AND RICHARD A. YOUNG

Author index

Subject index
1 Introduction: framing the future of career

Richard A. Young and Audrey Collin

Career has been a key notion in twentieth-century Western societies. Although ‘career’ is often used as a short-hand term for work histories and patterns, it has also served more significant purposes. Many in our complex and highly differentiated society use it to attribute coherence, continuity, and social meaning to their lives. By tying people to labour markets and employment in ways that are both personally meaningful and beneficial to work organisations and society, career is also part of the rhetoric that supports the ideologies of society and thereby contributes to its stability. Thus, the future of career has implications not only for individuals, including their personal identity and meaning, but also for groups and institutions, and for society itself.

Like so many words in the English language, ‘career’ is flexible and elastic, enabling it to adapt well to a variety of functions and contexts. This makes it a term of multi-layered richness and ambiguity, which is a ‘major source of its power’ (Watts, 1981, p. 214). As we shall discuss here and, indeed, encounter in the various chapters of this book, ‘career’ is used in various ways: as a concept, and as a construct in lay, professional, and academic discourses. It is the future of this overarching notion of career that is the subject of this book.

Whatever the specific context in, or function for which, career is used, to date it has involved a representation or construction of actions and events, and in some instances, the self, across time. Janus-like, career relates the past and present to the future, including our planning for and anticipation of the future, and also addresses how the future motivates action and the construction of meaning in the present. It makes a construction of the future possible. However, profound and widespread change is both anticipated and being realised; from today’s perspective, the future looks very different from the past and present. Hence, the purpose of this book is to consider the future of career, for career, in part, constructs our futures.
The present interest in the future of career

Many in the lay, professional, and academic literature are also attempting to come to terms with formidable changes in many aspects of our world and their impact on work and career. Castells (1996, 1997, 1998) and others (e.g. Rifkin, 1995) point us to future changes, and also provide us with an understanding and interpretation of the present that will serve to construct the future. Castells has been particularly comprehensive in his analysis of a new world that is coming into being. He attributes it to the confluence of three independent processes: ‘the information technology revolution; the economic crises of both capitalism and statism, and their subsequent restructuring; and the blooming of cultural and social movements, such as libertarianism, human rights, feminism, and environmentalism’ (1998, p. 336). These processes have had profound effects on our society. According to Castells, they have brought into being ‘a new social structure, the network society; a new economy, the informational global economy; and a new culture, the culture of real virtuality’ (1998, p. 336). The changes he documents have converged in ‘a historical redefinition of the relationship of production, power, and experience on which society is based’ (1998, p. 340). We infer that this redefinition will be critically important to career. In particular, the capability of one’s career to provide continuity is being challenged. Has career outlived its usefulness? It is a construct that grew up largely in industrial society and as that society has changed and continues to change in so many fundamental ways, perhaps it no longer offers a range of useful meanings with which to understand and interpret our own and others’ experience and behaviour.

The initial impetus for this book was a symposium held at De Montfort University in 1993 (NICEC Bulletin, 1994), but we are not alone in asking about the future of career. Other recent publications that have also addressed it include, notably The career is dead: Long live the career: A relational approach to careers, by Hall and Associates (1996); Rifkin’s (1995) The end of work; Managing careers in 2000 and beyond (Jackson, Arnold, Nicholson, & Watts, 1996); The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996); and The corrosion of character: The personal consequences of work in the new capitalism (Sennett, 1998). In comparison to these, this book addresses what is happening to the overarching notion of career from a range of multi-disciplinary perspectives.

The range of meanings of career

Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1989) identified ten viewpoints on career each tied to a particular discipline. Thus in order to address the future of
this adaptive and flexible notion, we begin by clarifying some of its common and long-established meanings in the academic and professional literature and in lay usage.

In the abstract, as a concept, career can refer to the individual’s movement through time and space. It can also focus on the intersection of individual biography and social structures. One way that the term ‘career’, or more specifically ‘careers’, is used in several chapters of this book is to refer to the patterns and sequences of occupations and positions occupied by people across their working lives. While this is a common meaning attributed to career in the academic and professional literature, it is even more so in lay understanding. Moreover, ‘careers’ and ‘occupations’ are often used synonymously.

Career is also used as a construct in academic, professional and lay discourse. By drawing on common understanding of individual and shared motivations and institutional and organisational practices, ‘career’ provides a prevailing discourse that allows both lay persons and professionals to create meaning.

The construct of career is also used in organisational and social rhetoric (e.g. Gutteridge, Leibowitz, & Shore, 1993). At times, its rhetorical use may disguise its ideological underpinnings. Career can be used to motivate and persuade employees. It has been used to refer to the work experiences of some groups of people and not others, and thus is considered to be an elitist term. Those excluded include those in occupations without the likelihood of promotions, in occupations that have excluded women and persons from some ethno-cultural groups, and those who do not participate in the paid labour force. Many occupations have undoubtedly offered elitist careers, having limited entry and selective progress along recognisable paths, in which the ascent of organisational ladders has also been restricted to a few. However, since the mid twentieth century, this in general has not been the message society has disseminated. Career has been a powerful symbol of a meritocratic and increasingly complex and differentiated industrial society, in which individual status no longer depends on ascription but could be achieved through education, effort, and social mobility achieved, epitomised in career. Although those without traditional careers or traditional career aspirations have been recognised in some branches of the literature, for example, Hearn’s (1977) ‘careless’, ‘uncareerist’, and ‘non-careerist’, the message to them that careers are normal and desirable has been a strong one. Watts (1981) following Wilensky (1968), indeed, suggests that the ‘term [career] is sufficiently wedged to the work ethic to hold considerable potential for social control’ (p. 214). Arthur and Lawrence (1984) suggest that ‘the term “career” should be applicable to anyone who works, and to any succession of work roles that a person may hold’ (p. 2). Further, in
order to improve their citizens' life-chances and work prospects, many
governments provide career guidance and placement services directly or
through the educational system. This encourages the view that, so
powerful has been the rhetoric of career, even those who had been denied
either access to certain occupations or progression within them may still
aspire to having a career of some kind.

The rhetorical use of the construct of career has been particularly strong
in bureaucratic organisations (Gowler & Legge, 1989). Their hierarchical
structure has provided 'a potential career ladder and thus a reward
mechanism for individuals' (Watson, 1980, p. 210). Thus, although the
majority who started on the bottom rungs may have had no chance
whatsoever of reaching the higher levels, this may not have been known by
them until much later in their organisational life, perhaps on reaching a
'career plateau' (Ference, Stoner, & Warren, 1977). Many have been
encouraged in this aspiration, and many organisations have used these
career potentials as inducement to generate motivation, effort, and
commitment. More recently, many large organisations have used their
equal opportunities policies and practices to remove some of the barriers
to their career ladders. However, not all forms of career are rooted in
organisations. For example, Kanter (1989) identified the bureaucratic,
professional, and entrepreneurial forms of career, some of which lie
outside the organisations. Other careers, as we shall point out, are not
related to occupations at all.

Career can embrace a longer period of the life span than membership in
employing organisations. According to Hall (1976), career is 'the individ-
ually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviors associated with
work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person’s life'
(p. 4). It weaves together the individual’s occupational, professional, and
organisational experiences with other strands of their life, as in Super’s
(1980) 'life-career rainbow'. Career is 'nothing narrower than certain
significant relationships between the individual and work, and the
individual, work and wider life over an extended period of time' (Hearn,
history'. Career is 'coming to be used... in a broadened sense to any
social strand of any person’s course through life' (Goffman, 1959, p. 123).
This is the kind of career of which Roth (1963) wrote in his classic study of
the 'career' of the TB patient. It is movement through 'a series of
situations which bestow identity on us' (Watson, 1980, p. 47). For people
who 'do not have careers in the sense that professional and business
people have them' (Becker & Strauss, 1968, p. 320), a career may be
based on 'positional passage', not in employment, but in 'domestic, age,
and other escalators'. Barley (1989) observed that sociologists in the
Chicago School, including Hughes, Becker, and Roth, used career as the basis for a wide range of studies other than those of occupational careers, including, for example, the careers of marijuana users.

Career also refers to more than objective pathways or movements. It can involve self-identity, and reflect individuals’ sense of who they are, who they wish to be, and their hopes, dreams, fears, and frustrations. This is reflected in a foundational description of career given by Goffman (1959) when discussing the ‘moral career of the mental patient’: ‘One value of the concept of career is its two-sidedness. One side is linked to internal matters held dearly and closely, such as image of self and felt identity; the other side concerns official positions, jural relations, and style of life, and is part of a publicly accessible institutional complex’ (p. 123). This distinction between the ‘objective’ and the ‘subjective’ career is well established in the literature (e.g., Campbell & Moses, 1986; Stebbins, 1970). The subjective and objective careers are blended in the living of one’s life, as Cochran (1991) noted, ‘A career is a person’s life, and in that usage, there is one career for every person’ (p. 7).

Overall, career can be seen as an overarching construct that gives meaning to the individual’s life. Young and Valach (1996) described it as a superordinate construct that allows people to construct connections among actions, to account for effort, plans, goals, and consequences, to frame internal cognitions and emotions, and to use feedback and feed-forward processes.

**Issues and questions about the future of career**

Because career is associated with work, among the factors that precipitated concern about the future of career are the changes in the world of work – career has been and is enmeshed in notions of work, employment, occupations, and jobs. It is difficult to overestimate the centrality of work in human life and society: Applebaum (1992) describes it as a condition of life. Notwithstanding that the rhetoric of career was useful for some members of society, many have viewed their jobs as a means of making money for subsistence, consumption, and leisure, rather than providing intrinsic satisfaction and fulfillment. Major studies in the early 1970s reported many people’s overall dissatisfaction with their occupational roles (e.g. O’Toole et al., 1973; Terkel, 1972). However, it was not their dissatisfaction that has led to what Rifkin (1995) has suggested is the end of work and the beginning of a jobless society. His specific hypothesis is that the effects of information technology will be massive unemployment. Clearly information technology is one of the most salient factors in the change in work – a shift that several observers have noted is from
industrialism to informationalism. What is critical from Castells’s (1996) perspective is that the revolution in information technology has made possible the globalisation of the economy, and hence he calls this new era ‘informationalism’ rather than ‘post-industrialism.’ The premise of informationalism, as Castells speculates, is that the source of productivity and growth lies in the generation of knowledge and extends ‘to all realms of economic activity through information processing’ (p. 203) – production will be organised by maximising ‘knowledge-based productivity’. In turn, knowledge-based productivity is itself maximised through human resources, and hence has implications for career.

Ericson and Haggerty (1997) provide an excellent example of how informationalism has effected changes in policing, including the activity of policing, the careers of police, and police organisations. They argue that the police now spend relatively little time dealing directly with crime. Notwithstanding the media image of the police as crime fighters, Ericson and Haggerty consider them as knowledge workers in a complex system of embedded communication formats and technologies. The purpose of this system is to provide institutions and individuals with information and knowledge about risk in areas relevant to the police’s jurisdiction. They also contend that the effect of this shift on the occupational culture and the self is to undermine individual autonomy and discretion.

Informationalism raises several questions related to the future of career. The first is whether an information society will result in proportionately more information-rich occupations (managers, professionals, technicians) or whether, as in the case of the police cited above, the nature of particular occupations change. At the same time in an information society, there may be real growth in unskilled and semiskilled jobs so that an increasingly polarised social structure could result were the middle of the occupational structure to give way to the poles. If so, career, by being attributed to people at only one pole of this social structure, could assume the ‘elite’ connotation described earlier. Irrespective of whether the hypothesis of increased polarisation of the occupational structure is eventually supported by the data, we seem to be facing a world in which occupation and employment will not serve to grade and group people to the extent, or in the same way, that was possible under industrialism.

Informationalism also suggests a scenario in which future societies may have to address both massive unemployment and sharp divisions between the employed and unemployed/occasional workers. Moreover, it implies a redefinition of work and employment, involving a full restructuring of social and cultural values, as Castells suggests (1996). It is clear that career is one construct that connects social and cultural values and the
specifics of work and employment and thus is critical to both scenarios. As seriously as we should heed these predictions, we also need to be cognisant of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1994, reported in Castells, 1996) employment projections for the United States, Japan, and the European Community as a net increase of over 38 million jobs to the year 2005. Moreover, Castells (1996) maintains ‘that there is no systematic structural relationship between the diffusion of information technologies and the evolution of employment trends in the economy as a whole’ (p. 263).

A further characteristic of change in the information society is that there will be greater opportunity for self-employment and flexible occupations and work (in terms of location, time of day, season, or longer time periods).

At another level, the information society has substantial implications for identity and the self. Castells (1997) refers to identity as ‘the source of meaning and experience’ (p. 6). Giddens (1991) suggested that, as a result of tradition losing its hold and the ensuing interplay between the local and the global, there is a greater need for reflexivity – that characteristic of the self that allows one ‘to know . . . both what one is doing and why one is doing it’ (p. 35). He pointed to reflexively organised life planning as a central feature of structuring self-identity and spoke of the need to ‘negotiate lifestyle choices among a diversity of options’ (p. 32). Castells, in turn, suggested that the systemic disjunction between the local and the global is such for most individuals as to make reflexive life planning impossible. As career has been traditionally closely implicated in the issue of personal identity, the implications for career of both positions are substantial. At the same time, because of the close connection between personal identity and career, one cannot question the viability of the latter, as many of the contributors of this book do, without also challenging the construct of personal identity.

The issue of identity in the information society cannot be restricted to the identity that emerges from our engagement in occupation and work. Irrespective of our own particular occupations and work, our life career and identities are substantially influenced by informationalism. For example, as Ericson and Haggerty (1997) argue, information is the basis for categorising our life careers as employed or unemployed, patients or healthy, victims or survivors. Information also has the capacity to create population-based identities, as, for example, the police frequently use age-based, ethnic, and racial classifications.

At first glance, it appears that the future of career and the personal identity associated with it are driven by factors such as informationalism, globalisation, and technology. However, at the heart of the issue of
identity are philosophical questions. Among many other ‘deaths’ that have been announced recently, the alleged death of philosophy, which Heidegger proclaimed in 1966, assumes a particular salience for identity and the self, and, thus, for the issues addressed in this book. Heidegger’s point, as recounted by Cahoone (1988), was that philosophy had been subsumed by modern science, that the work of philosophy had been relegated to an analysis of language and literary criticism. Taylor (1989) suggested that the ‘disengaged, instrumental mode of life’ (p. 499) that empties life of meaning is compounded by philosophy’s inability to agree on what constitutes ‘the good’ in moral life. Cahoone comments that the ‘death’ of philosophy is evident in the ‘subordination of communal-symbolic processes and socio-cultural activities to economic processes’ (p. 227). The result, he observes, is that the technical–productive–administrative sector becomes regarded as the only source of benefit and value to society. The discussion of career in several chapters of this book reflects the tacit tension between career as an artefact of the technical–productive–administrative sector and as representative of broader social and moral processes. This tension, which is encapsulated in career, is at the heart of the modern dilemma of identity.

These issues culminate in the question of the extent to which our understanding and experience of career in the future will be continuous and discontinuous with our understanding and experience of it in the past and present. In his discussion of work in the new capitalism, Sennett (1998) identified several factors that contribute to the discontinuity endemic in the present context. These include the following experiences of importance from the career perspective: the experience of disjointed time, ‘threatening the ability of people to form their characters into sustained narratives’ (p. 31); the different and often conflicting directions of institutional change; the lack of sustained human relations and durable purposes; and the absence of a shared narrative of difficulty and a shared fate. Ultimately, there is a lack of guidance in how to conduct the ordinary life. Not being able to locate oneself in time and space, as discussed by Collin in chapter 6, also erodes the usefulness of the career construct.

The experience of discontinuity challenges the fundamental principles and standards on which career theory, research, and practice have stood. Discontinuity is also a common theme in the postmodern world of language, science, and practice, not the least of which is the decline of the idea of progress; an idea that itself is enmeshed with the expectations of industrialism, science, and technology. Legge (1995) epitomises the issues of continuity by asking the question, in reference to human resource management, whether it is a modernist project or a postmodern discourse. The same question could also be asked of career. Thus, we need to ask not
only whether career provides people with continuity of their experiences across a lifetime. We also need to ask, if the dire descriptions of the present are accurate, whether, and if so on what grounds, the notion of career can be revitalised to address the very problems that seem to be contributing to its demise. It must also be questioned whether the career experiences themselves which, in the ideal, have been assumed to be continuous, are now and can be expected to be increasingly discontinuous.

We need to know what the implications of the broader changes that are taking place in society are for career. We need to consider how to interpret what is happening, and the extent to which it calls into question our earlier conceptualisation of career. Will career lose – or change – its former significance to individuals, organisations, and society as a whole? Are we witnessing the virtual ‘death’ of career, or should we rather understand what is happening as ‘transfiguration’, a change of form or appearance? The contributors individually and jointly address these and the following questions:

How is our understanding of the future of career informed by existing disciplines, theories, and constructions?
In what way are the contexts of career changing?
How are individuals experiencing career in these changing contexts and what interpretations can be made of these new experiences?
What are the new challenges for policy, education, career counselling, and human resource development in light of these anticipated changes in career?
What are the implications for research and theory? What new constructions of career are emerging?

In light of the above, what future does career have? What are the themes, issues, and implications that are likely to characterise it in the twenty-first century?

Overview

Several chapters of this book, notably the chapters by Maranda and Comeau (chapter 3), Savickas (chapter 4), Collin (chapter 11), Richardson (chapter 13), and Young and Valach (chapter 12), provide an overview of the relatively recent history of career. These chapters include references to the rise of career in concert with the industrial revolution, the influence of individualism, the period of the bureaucratic career, and the development of career guidance as a social movement. However, developments in the most recent past, including the loss of respect for authority,
the growth of the women's movement, the increased application and use of information technology, the emergence of capitalism as virtually the only world economic system, and globalisation of business and industry, are having profound effects on career. Against this backdrop, several chapters document how this history has engendered and influenced our understanding and use of career as a construct in research and practice. Other chapters address the present situation and the effects of the enormous changes that are occurring in society. Although the history of career is pertinent to the discussion herein, this book examines career from many different perspectives in order to understand how the varieties and patterns of practice and different discourses are articulated.

This articulation is critical to an appreciation of the future of career precisely because career has the range of meaning and usage we have identified. In this book, career discourse, conceptualisations, and practices are discussed. The book offers a range of perspectives from various disciplines and applied areas such as psychology, sociology, education, and career guidance. There are also discussions of organisational and multi-cultural contexts, women's careers, and the perspectives of counselling practice, management, education, and social policy. As well, chapters come from European, Australian, and North American contributors. This book includes both modernist and postmodernist viewpoints although exclusive categorisation of most chapters as one or the other is not possible. Thus, this book, rather than undertaking a homogenising or unifying stance, addresses the future of career in its diversity. It proposes a number of tentative and interrelated arguments for the nature and use of the career construct in the future. Notwithstanding this broad range of perspectives and specific references to globalisation, this book provides a largely Western view, which, of course, is prevalent in the construct itself.

**Part 1 Changing contexts**

Part 1 addresses the changing contexts of career by examining broad changes in both the economic and social environments and the academic and practitioner contexts. The initial chapter by Julie Storey (chapter 2) identifies current and emerging economic, social, and demographic changes that are creating 'fracture lines' in labour markets, organisations, and employment, disturbing this field. In doing so, she sets the stage for a more detailed examination of the historical and changing perspectives in two disciplines that have largely been involved in the study of career: sociology (Marie-France Maranda and Yvan Comeau), and vocational psychology (Wendy Patton and Mark Savickas in separate chapters).
Psychology and sociology have contributed significantly to what we know about career. Although each with its own goals, methods, and audiences, and notwithstanding fragmentation within and between them, these disciplines, together with others, have co-constructed and continue to re-construct career and the professional practice associated with it. They provide both contexts in which and means through which the future of career will be known. Maranda and Comeau (chapter 3) argue that sociology has been uniquely able to contextualise career broadly by showing how successive sociological theories, that can be used to explain career, responded specifically to the social and economic contexts in which they arose. They conclude in favour of a current theory, the psychodynamics of work, that, in their view, best responds to both the complexity of the current situation and the need for social responsibility in it. Savickas (chapter 4) examines how vocational psychology as a discipline and practice emerged in concert with the development of work organisations and the organisational career in twentieth-century America. He also demonstrates how vocational psychology has developed a range of both substantial constructs and alternative theories to respond effectively to the changing career realities.

Deeply embedded in these changing contexts are the values that influence both career and the lives of human beings. Weber’s (1950) analyses of the Protestant work ethic and the spirit of capitalism delineate the relationship that has existed, from the time of the Reformation, between economic and personal values and the notion of a ‘calling’ to one’s work or profession. Patton (chapter 5) argues for the life–work intersection as a renewed place for the examination of values. She introduces broad social values into the discussion of the future of career and also considers the study of values in career research and practice. Audrey Collin (chapter 6) identifies the changing construction of time and space as an even broader context in which we need to understand career. Her premise is that career has been one of the resources that people in the twentieth century have used to locate themselves in time and space, and, in particular, to construct, in concert, both their future and their identity. However, social and cultural change is resulting in what Collin describes as shifts to a present rather than a future orientation, and from a temporal to a spatial focus. These shifts challenge an accepted understanding of career as a personal temporal trajectory.

Part 2 New perspectives

Part 2 offers new constructions of, and perspectives on, career. These chapters are based on theoretical as well as empirical analyses and
represent a variety of disciplines and the experience of people from different groups. Interpretation and experience are interactive and interdependent in a variety of ways. We see, for example, in chapter 7 by Suellen Littleton, Michael Arthur, and Denise Rousseau, how the career experiences of people in two diverse industries, the computer industry and the film industry, allow career to be reinterpreted. They describe and illustrate a recent notion in the organisational literature: the boundaryless career. This form of career is in contrast to an earlier form, now fading in some sectors, that fit for relatively stable and unchanging occupations. Using Weick’s (1979, 1995) social psychological theory, Littleton, Arthur, and Rousseau show how the enactment of career reflects an intersection of self-organising and social phenomena.

Similarly, Danielle Riverin-Simard’s (chapter 8) extensive data on the career experiences of older adults leads her to argue that, in contrast to the linear and stable career patterns identified in earlier theories and research, career in the future will incorporate ‘non-linear, unstable, and even chaotic elements’. Her interpretation leads her to apply chaos theory to career behaviour.

Heather Höpfl and Pat Hornby Atkinson (chapter 9) take a critical perspective, drawing on the literature on gender and work to examine the issue of power in the workplace and its implications for women’s career. They rely on evidence on the way women experience work and career in the context of their lives and examine underlying assumptions about women and work in organisational theories and practice. Höpfl and Hornby Atkinson point to a future in which the meaning conferred by career is apt to disintegrate unless the ambivalence that is at the root of women’s engagement with work is addressed.

In chapters 10 and 11, the authors rely on literary and other disciplines and discourses that have drawn extensively on postmodernist and post-humanist philosophy and critical theory both to challenge current, and to propose new, perspectives for career. Damian O’Doherty and Ian Roberts (chapter 10) take up a speculative approach to address the ontological insecurity implicit in career, as individuals struggle to make sense of their world and themselves. They argue that the career literature is based on Western reason and rationality that is coming under increased scrutiny. In its place, they propose a postmodern approach in which one’s understanding of life is not only tentative and local (circumscribed by time and place), but characterised by experiment, contingency, and flux.

A literary theme is taken up by Audrey Collin (chapter 11) who uses a discussion of the traditional epic, the novel and the modern epic to examine the construct and rhetoric of career. The classical epic, for
Collin, is analogous to the traditional understanding of career that includes notions of destiny, duty, and linear teleology. In contrast, the modern epic is composed of fragments, teleology is ‘replaced by the perpetual digression of exploration’. This, she suggests, expresses more of the contradiction, complexity, and diversity of postmodern life. Collin concludes by asking whether career will contribute to the new rhetorics of the future.

Part 3 New directions for theory, practice, and policy

Part 3 is written from the perspectives of experts grappling with the changing fields of career theory, practice, and policy. It proposes several ways forward for the problems addressed in this book. Several authors in this section anticipate the demise of career as a useful construct unless it is broadened to include other aspects of life. They further develop the understanding of career expressed by Super (1980) in his life-career rainbow by showing its social and political implications.

In chapter 12, Richard A. Young and Ladislav Valach re-conceptualise career theory and research in a way that is grounded conceptually and empirically and, at the same time, remains close to human experience and responsive to the issues identified in this book. In their integrated approach that has substantial implications for research, counselling, and other domains of practice, they link career to the constructs of action and project as representing both the social-embedded and goal-directed behaviours of short, intermediate, and long duration.

Career has been and is a construct about human action. Thus, it has specific implications in the domain of practice. Counselling is one of those actions. It has been viewed for the last half of the twentieth century as an effective means of helping people who are experiencing difficulties in their careers or who want assistance with plans, goals, and decisions for the future. The challenge to the process and practice of counselling, which has long been a major element in the repertoire of North American career practitioners, is brought into relief by Mary Sue Richardson in chapter 13 and Fred Leong and Paul Hartung in chapter 14. Richardson envisages a different future for career counselling by shifting the focus from career to the ‘place of work in people’s lives’. This shift in perspective addresses the career ideology of work and thereby speaks to the concerns of those who have judged career to be elitist, sexist, and racist. She challenges counsellors to consider counselling practice as ‘significant social practice’ that not only provides services but also asks fundamental questions about people and work. Leong and Hartung begin by identifying a new ‘multi-cultural mindset’ in American society that is the basis for their
proposal of a specific approach to career counselling that addresses the cultural diversity of the United States, and, by extension, other countries. Their approach, grounded in developments in a wide range of multi-cultural career research and interventions, is integrative and can be used for career counselling practice and assessment as well as research with culturally distinct clients.

Another area of practice significantly affected by current change is the ‘management of careers’ that occurs in organisations. Mike Doyle in chapter 15 bases his analysis on the changing nature of both the organisation and the psychological contract. He recognises that a number of career development practices have been imported by organisations in recent years and questions whether organisations can and should ‘manage careers’. The nature of the changing employment relationship is captured, for Doyle, in notions of the psychological contract that demands new skills and competencies of managers and new opportunities for negotiation among employees.

In chapter 16, Bill Law interweaves policy and practice in arguing for and delineating the critical place that education has in the future of career, and more particularly in the future of work. This place is based on the notion of the transfer of learning as the key concept in relating education to working life – linking purpose to process not only in vocational education, but in general and liberal education as well. Law contends that by linking purpose to process in education, it may be possible to locate ‘learning for work’ in a ‘thoughtful democracy’ and, at the same time, to ensure its transferability and cultural relevance – dimensions he considers critical for the future.

In chapter 17, Tony Watts identifies the challenges that changes in career pose to government and proposes a direction for social policy in light of them. He characterises the major change for career as greater labour market flexibility, which, he argues, makes it possible for more individuals to achieve their potential than has been the case in the past. However, this will happen only if there is a new concept of career embedded in a social policy supporting career flexibility across the life span. He promotes a strong and renewed place for career guidance and counselling services.

Finally in chapter 18, we, as editors, take up the varied issues raised by our contributors that we depict as multi-perspectival and multi-layered. In pulling together the various threads of this book, we identify substantial and recurrent themes raised about career. We also attempt to put these perspectives in a larger context by examining them in light of broader and longer-term issues and their implications for various stakeholders in career. From these we begin to reframe career in a way that addresses the
world at the beginning of the twenty-first century. This revised interpretation of career acknowledges its duality as both rhetoric and praxis. It provides the basis for a way forward, or ways forward, that involve constructing career in its social context, recognising the roles of experience and language in the construction of meaning, and elucidating cultural variability. These ways forward represent fundamental shifts from the individualism, mono-culturalism, and objectivism that have been implicit in much career theory, practice, and rhetoric since the inception of the modern Western use of this construct. They allow the opportunity to ground the understanding of career in human experience, and through it to achieve emancipatory praxis.

REFERENCES


