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Career Development

ASCA National Standards for career development guide school counseling programs to provide the foundation for the acquisition of skills, attitudes and knowledge that enable students to make a successful transition from school to the world of work, and from job to job across the life span.

Standard A: Students will acquire the skills to investigate the world of work in relation to knowledge of self and to make informed career decisions.

C:A1 Develop Career Awareness
C:A1.1 Develop skills to locate, evaluate and interpret career information
C:A1.2 Learn about the variety of traditional and nontraditional occupations
C:A1.3 Develop an awareness of personal abilities, skills, interests and motivations
C:A1.4 Learn how to interact and work cooperatively in teams
C:A1.5 Learn to make decisions
C:A1.6 Learn how to set goals
C:A1.7 Understand the importance of planning
C:A1.8 Pursue and develop competency in areas of interest
C:A1.9 Develop hobbies and vocational interests
C:A1.10 Balance between work and leisure time

C:A2 Develop Employment Readiness
C:A2.1 Acquire employability skills such as working on a team, problem-solving and organizational skills
C:A2.2 Apply job readiness skills to seek employment opportunities
C:A2.3 Demonstrate knowledge about the changing workplace
C:A2.4 Learn about the rights and responsibilities of employers and employees
C:A2.5 Learn to respect individual uniqueness in the workplace
C:A2.6 Learn how to write a résumé
C:A2.7 Develop a positive attitude toward work and learning
C:A2.8 Understand the importance of responsibility, dependability, punctuality, integrity and effort in the workplace
C:A2.9 Utilize time- and task-management skills

Standard B: Students will employ strategies to achieve future career goals with success and satisfaction.

C:B1 Acquire Career Information
C:B1.1 Apply decision-making skills to career planning, course selection and career transition
C:B1.2 Identify personal skills, interests and abilities and relate them to current career choice
C:B1.3 Demonstrate knowledge of the career-planning process
C:B1.4 Know the various ways in which occupations can be classified
C:B1.5 Use research and information resources to obtain career information
C:B1.6 Learn to use the Internet to access career-planning information
C:B1.7 Describe traditional and nontraditional career choices and how they relate to career choice
C:B1.8 Understand how changing economic and societal needs influence employment trends and future training
C:B2 Identify Career Goals
   C:B2.1 Demonstrate awareness of the education and training needed to achieve career goals
   C:B2.2 Assess and modify their educational plan to support career
   C:B2.3 Use employability and job readiness skills in internship, mentoring, shadowing and/or other work experience
   C:B2.4 Select course work that is related to career interests
   C:B2.5 Maintain a career-planning portfolio

Standard C: Students will understand the relationship between personal qualities, education, training and the world of work.

C:C1 Acquire Knowledge to Achieve Career Goals
   C:C1.1 Understand the relationship between educational achievement and career success
   C:C1.2 Explain how work can help to achieve personal success and satisfaction
   C:C1.3 Identify personal preferences and interests influencing career choice and success
   C:C1.4 Understand that the changing workplace requires lifelong learning and acquiring new skills
   C:C1.5 Describe the effect of work on lifestyle
   C:C1.6 Understand the importance of equity and access in career choice
   C:C1.7 Understand that work is an important and satisfying means of personal expression

C:C2 Apply Skills to Achieve Career Goals
   C:C2.1 Demonstrate how interests, abilities and achievement relate to achieving personal, social, educational and career goals
   C:C2.2 Learn how to use conflict management skills with peers and adults
   C:C2.3 Learn to work cooperatively with others as a team member
   C:C2.4 Apply academic and employment readiness skills in work-based learning situations such as internships, shadowing and/or mentoring experiences
ployment situation and the dominance of manufacturing jobs during the mid-20th century, when grandfathers and many fathers were in the labor market (Isaacson & Brown, 2000; U.S. Department of Labor, 1994). Grandmothers’ most common category of employment was Conventional, although fathers’ mothers also had representation in the Enterprising category.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study represented the conclusion of a 15-year longitudinal study that examined a number of career development variables as they emerged, beginning with second graders (7-year-olds), through high school, and ending 5 years later as 23-year-old adults.

The adult sample participants were asked to think back to their high school experience (5 years earlier) in terms of several career development issues. Just as they did as seniors in high school, these adults also indicated that high school teachers were influential in their career development (Helwig, 2004). In fact, 4 indicated that the primary career influence came from a high school teacher. Most indicated that parents, especially mothers, were very influential. Parental influence has been identified regularly as an important career factor for young people (Bardick, Bernes, Magnusson, & Witko, 2004; Kniveton, 2004). This confirms the more recent trend in career development circles of helping parents become good or better career guiders because they provide their children most of the advice and information about working (Guindon & Richmond, 2005; Kosin, Hendershot, Krane, & Bizot, 2000; Niles & Harris-Bowlsbey, 2005). More and more materials and career awareness techniques have been developed to assist and educate parents about the important role they can play in their children’s career development (Amundson & Penner, 1998; Hall, 2003). Perhaps more should be done with high school teachers to educate and support them in a role many may not be aware of, that is, the important influence they exert on high school students in their career growth.

Some disconcerting results came from the adult respondents concerning their perception of the career direction and career preparation their high school provided. Five years after graduation, they were much less positive of what the school did for them regarding these career issues than when they were seniors in high school. In fact, the differences in perception reached statistical significance. Evidently, from an adult perspective and after progressing through more education and probably more “significant” employment, these young adults believed that they were not well prepared by their high schools in career guidance and preparation. These results may corroborate the general sense that too many high schools focus on college admission and crisis counseling and not enough on career assessment and helping students develop career plans and prepare for employment (Feller, 2003; Niles & Harris-Bowlsbey, 2005; Rosenbaum & Person, 2003).

It is interesting that respondents in high school felt positive about their SCANS skills in terms of academic, thinking, and personal skills. However, 5 years later, they were significantly less sure about their personal skills. Perhaps many relationships in high school had been long term, and the
communication skills needed were more fundamental. After high school, there was more need for self-motivation, initiative, and responsible behaviors (e.g., to succeed in a college environment), and many adults were not as sure that they possessed those skills. In terms of the value of SCANS skills in employment, a longitudinal study by North and Worth (2004) suggests that employers continued to value technology, interpersonal, and basic communication skills between 1992 and 2002.

 Occupational aspirations were in the high social value range, as measured by classification in the DOT (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991a) category of professional, technical, and managerial jobs for this sample beginning in the fourth grade. Through the years, more than 80% of the sample consistently reported aspiring to such occupations. This was also true of occupational expectations for the high school seniors and later as 23-year-old adults. Current job in high school compared with current job as an adult was significantly different in terms of professional, technical, and managerial category. Because occupations in this DOT category require a high level of education, high school students were at a disadvantage, unlike college graduates who represented the majority of the respondents in the adult sample. Because most high school students did not have professional, technical, and managerial occupations at the time, the Holland (1997) codes of their jobs were generally different from the Holland codes of the adult sample's jobs. Jobs held by high school seniors were predominantly Realistic and Conventional versus the Investigative and Social jobs of the college-educated adult sample.

 A unique feature of this research was the analysis of educational and occupational data from three generations within the same families. Young adult sample members, their mothers and fathers, and their grandparents were compared on their educational attainment along with DOT (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991a) classification and the Holland (1997) code of their occupations. Because these were not cross sections of three generations, there is more likelihood that there would be intergenerational influences occurring within families. For example, young adults in this sample have indicated that mothers and fathers were primary influences in their career development.

 Although the sample sizes were small, there is an increasing trend over generations for greater levels of education. The young adults tended to have college experience, and more graduated from college than did members of other generations. In the father and four grandparent groups, there were some members with less than a high school diploma. In the young adult sample, only 2 members stopped with a high school diploma. Although a few of the parent and grandparent group members had postbachelor's education (1 or more years), only 2 of the young adult group members did; however, 19 of the total sample of 35 indicated that they would attend graduate school later. How many of these will do so remains to be seen.

 Type of work also differed between the young adults and parents and grandparents. Clearly, the world of work has changed, offering a different array of occupational opportunities today than was possible 30 to 50 years ago when parents and grandparents were in the labor market (Isaacson & Brown, 2000; U.S. Department of Labor, 1994). Educational limitations also placed barriers on the kind of work individuals were qualified for, and
1. Introduction

In today’s society it is required that learners acquire advanced learning skills and self-management competencies at school, and that people working in the professions are active in developing their own career and in learning throughout their lifetime (Gysbers & Henderson, 2005; Jarvis & Keeley, 2003). Although academic and technical qualifications open doors for employment, career competencies and lifelong learning skills largely determine selection, success and advancement in individual careers (Krumoltz & Worthington, 1999; Worthington & Juntunen, 1997). General consensus exists that these competencies or skills should be taught in schools, since many students leave education without the necessary skills to succeed in the adult work world (e.g., Jarvis & Keeley, 2003; Zinser, 2003). Schools are seen as ‘career centres’ in which students are able to acquire career competencies, such as being able to reflect on personal ambitions and motives, and to undertake actions and initiatives to direct their own career development (Geurts, 2003; Kuijpers & Meijers, 2009).

Against this background, many schools in the Netherlands are implementing a system of integral career guidance (Mittendorff, Jochems, Meijers, & den Brok, 2008; Meijers, 2008). An integral career guidance system is composed of a series of interconnected instruments and accompanying activities for teachers and students, such as assessment methods, personal development plans, portfolios, and career conversations (Meijers, 2008) and is interwoven in everyday educational practice. This form of career guidance is comparable to efforts such as personal development planning (PDP) in the UK (Bullock & Jamieson, 1998) or programs for career development and employability skills in the USA (Zinser, 2003). The PDP initiative from the UK, for example, is also built around a set of activities (often guidance from tutors or teachers) and instruments such as portfolios or personal development plans aimed at helping students to direct and reflect on their own learning, performance and ambitions (Bullock & Jamieson, 1998; Croot & Gedye, 2006).

The overarching goal of integral career guidance is to help students develop a vocational identity and to stimulate them to self-direct their own learning and career development. A vocational identity is a “structure or network of meanings in which an individual connects his or her motivations, interests and capacities to certain work roles” (Meijers, 1995, p. 63). Developing a vocational identity means going through processes of meaning-making in which students gain understanding about what work means to them and how it relates to their personal norms, values, interests, and ambitions (Law, Meijers, & Wijers, 2002). In such processes of meaning-making, self-directedness of students is important (Peavy, 2000). Self-directedness in learning and career development processes refers to students’ capacities to act for themselves, speak on their own behalf and realize actions aimed at creating their preferred futures (McMahon & Patton, 2006). In the integral career guidance as implemented in the Netherlands, these capacities are realized by training students in developing career competencies (Kuijpers & Meijers, 2009).
Integral career guidance is implemented in the Netherlands as part of the everyday educational practice by teachers who are given direct responsibility for the supervision of students and receive extra time for this. Teachers have to take the role of coaches who facilitate their students in developing individual learning and career paths. Besides this ‘first-level’ guidance from teachers, students are entitled to one-on-one career advice or guidance from school counsellors when needed. School counsellors thus provide ‘second-level’ guidance which means they mainly focus on students who have (severe) difficulties with their career choices or have personal issues that need extra care (Mittendorff, 2010). In most schools, all teachers are expected to participate in first-level career guidance and many of them receive training and guidelines to help them carry out this new task.

Research by Kuijpers and Meijers (2009) and Mittendorff et al. (2008) has shown the career conversation between teacher and student to be an essential element of integral career guidance; without these conversations students find it difficult to reflect upon their own learning processes or to construct meaning about themselves and their future career (Mittendorff et al., 2008). Although many schools are in the process of implementing this (new) integral career guidance, knowledge on how teachers are actually guiding students during these career conversations, and especially on how students perceive this guidance is still scarce. The present study attempts to contribute to obtaining a more differentiated and detailed image of teachers’ career guidance during career conversations through research on student perceptions. The present study examines the following central research question: How do students perceive their teachers’ career guidance during career conversations and what profiles can be identified?

2. Theoretical framework

2.1. Career guidance by teachers during career conversations

An earlier study by Mittendorff, den Brok, and Beijard (2010) investigated career conversations by observing and analysing two videotaped career conversations of sixteen teachers, each time with a different student. Following several communication scholars (Schultz von Thun, 1981; Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967), three levels of communication were distinguished in this study and applied to the investigation of the content of career conversations: the content of the conversations, the activities undertaken by teachers and students, and the nature of the relationship between teacher and student. In this section we will first describe these three elements of career guidance during career conversations. Next, attention will be paid to differences between teachers in guiding students’ career and the perception of these by their students.

2.1.1. Content of career conversations

The career conversation between a teacher and student is largely defined by the topics discussed — the content. The goal of integral career guidance in vocational education is to guide students in the development of required career competencies and a vocational identity (Kuijpers, Meijers, & Bakker, 2006). This goal addresses the importance of meaning-making of students with respect to the professional context and their own or personal identity (Peavy, 2000). Meaning-making is seen as the process of making experiences of students explicit and stimulating students to reflect on these experiences and learn more about their personality, ambitions, strengths and weaknesses and about the professional context (Peavy, 2000). Meaning-making concerns the connection of knowledge and one’s understanding of oneself in relation to certain professions (Patton & McMahon, 2006). Consequently, it is important for teachers to discuss student personality, qualities, motivations and ambitions in relation to future work, norms and values in relation to labour, but also professional experiences and characteristics of certain professions. Another aspect of career guidance within career conversations is related to the personal development planning or action planning of students, for which purpose instruments such as portfolios or personal development plans are often being used (Mittendorff et al., 2008). One of the fundamental aims of personal development planning is to develop skills of personal understanding. Important topics for conversation in this respect are students’ motivations for writing something in their portfolio or personal development plan, or the learning goals students will set for themselves (Kuijpers & Meijers, 2009).

2.1.2. Activities undertaken during career conversations

There is a large knowledge base on approaches or techniques (activities) to be used for career guidance. Bimrose, Barnes, Hughes, and Orton (2004), for example, showed that useful guidance comprises: creating awareness by students or clients about themselves and the labour market (exploring and challenging client perceptions, providing direction or information and creating awareness of learning and employment opportunities); giving students or clients access to networks, information and knowledge, enabling them to feel better informed and better able to progress; encouraging constructive change in the student or client (increasing self-confidence, developing skills, developing understanding which broadens ideas, together with motivating, inspiring and encouraging clients); and providing students or clients with positive experiences (creating opportunities for reflection and in-depth discussion by reassuring, confirming and/or clarifying plans and/or showing progress). In relation to the goal of stimulating self-directedness of students, career guidance during career conversations is particularly effective when the student has an active role to play, can influence the conversation and where teachers aim at stimulating the self-directedness of students by taking a less directive or instructive role in the guidance process (Patton & McMahon, 2006; Peavy, 2000; Savickas, 2000).

2.1.3. Communicated relationship in career conversations

The nature of the relationship between student and teacher during career conversations can strongly affect the manner in which students learn from teachers (Brekelmans, Sleeegers, & Fraser, 2000; Erickson & Schulz, 1982; Schultz von Thun, 1981). For effective career guidance, the importance of beneficial interpersonal relationships has also been emphasised (e.g., Hepper & Heppner, 2003; Peavy, 2000). Personal qualities such as showing interest, establishing commitment and being trustworthy appear to be critical to the career guidance process (Kidd, Hirsch, & Jackson, 2004; Rogers, 1951); this also applies to the ‘working alliance’ or personal bond between guidance counsellor and student/client (Gysbers, Heppner, & Johnston, 2003). A circumplex model with a specific focus on the relations between teachers and students is the model for interpersonal teacher behaviour of Créton and Wubbels (e.g., Wubbels, Créton, & Hooymayers, 1987) that focuses on the analysis of teacher behaviour on the level of proximity and influence. This model is based on Leary’s (1957) model for the interpersonal diagnosis of personality and was specifically adapted for the study of interpersonal teacher behaviour. The model helps identify to what extent teachers are cooperative or dominant towards the student, in this study during career conversations.

The earlier mentioned observation study by Mittendorff et al. (2010) showed that, concerning the content of the conversations, many teachers talked about the personal development planning instruments and the progress or functioning of the students in school. Teachers and students talked very little about career issues such as the students’ future ambitions or previous education. The
study also showed that most teacher activities were coded as explaining or informing and requesting information. Teachers provided little feedback, encouraged hardly any reflection by students, and little was done to stimulate self-directedness on the part of the students. Regarding the relationship between teacher and student the results showed that teachers mostly acted as the dominant and controlling persons in the conversation, but that they were also cooperative towards the student (friendly, helpful, etc.).

2.2. Observed teacher behaviour during conversations

The earlier study by Mittendorff et al. (2010) revealed several similarities between career conversations and teachers’ behaviour during these conversations, but uncovered many differences as well that were not investigated in great detail. In the UK, Bullock and Jamieson (1998) also found different guidance practices between teachers. In their study on how teachers guided students during a personal development process, they found clear differences between teachers in the way they guided students during the one-to-one dialogues on how to use a personal development plan and portfolio. Their results showed that one-on-one teacher guidance could be placed on a two-sided continuum consisting of non-directive, non-interventionist teachers encouraging students to explore their own thoughts/feelings with minimal comment and feedback versus prescriptive tutor-dominated teachers giving instructions and concrete suggestions to students. Also, some tutors felt it more appropriate to discuss personal and educational aspects while others emphasized transition choices and career issues. The dialogues that were flexible enough to address both topics, seemed most effective (Bullock & Jamieson, 1998).

2.3. The importance of student perceptions on teacher guidance

Differences between teachers, especially the manner in which these differences in behaviour are perceived, can influence student learning. In his chapter on teaching and student learning in the Handbook of Research on Educational Psychology, Shuell (1996) argues that the way in which learners perceive their teachers and learning environment is crucial in determining what the student will learn. Research on teaching and learning environments shows that students’ perceptions of their teachers’ behaviour often differ from the teachers’ perceptions of their own behaviour and from observations by external observers, and have been found to be reliable, valid, and more strongly related to students’ learning processes than teacher perceptions or observational data (den Brok, 2001; Fisher & Fraser, 1983; Fraser, 1982; Hofstein & Lazarowitz, 1986; Levy, Wubbels, den Brok, & Brekelmans, 2003; Wubbels, Brekelmans, Den Brok, & Van Tartwijk, 2006). Student perceptions can contribute to reflection and learning processes by teachers, especially when they compare student perceptions to their self-perceptions. In order to stimulate teacher’s professional development with respect to career guidance, instruments devised to measure students’ perceptions are supposed to be very helpful (Rickards, den Brok, & Fisher, 2005). This professional development can be further enhanced if information containing these perceptions is presented by means of images or profiles. These are powerful tools for reflection because they can be used to conceptualise complex and inter-related information, summarise information in smaller chunks that are easier to comprehend, and stimulate associations and links with teachers’ own knowledge (Rickards et al., 2005; Wubbels, 1992).

In general, only limited research is available on the way teachers guide students in their careers and especially with regard to the perceptions of students. The present study will fill this gap and builds further on the previous work of Mittendorff et al. (2010). By focussing on student perceptions of the career guidance processes during career conversations, this study aims to contribute to a clearer insight into teachers’ career guidance styles.

3. Research questions

This study investigates how students perceive their teachers’ career guidance during career conversations. It will answer the following more specific research questions:

1. How do students perceive the guidance of their teachers during career conversations in terms of content discussed, activities performed, and the relationship with their teacher?
2. What career guidance teacher profiles can be identified?

4. Method

4.1. Sample

The sample in the present study was a convenience sample: students (N = 579) from four schools for senior secondary vocational education participated in the study. Students in senior secondary vocational education in the Netherlands are mostly between 16 and 20 years old. The four schools that participated each represented one of the four main areas of Dutch vocational education (technology, care and welfare, economics, and agriculture) and a different course was selected from each area: car mechanics (N = 105), which trains for occupations such as car mechanic or salesperson in the car industry; juridical studies (N = 257), which educates for occupations such as desk employee at a law office; agriculture (N = 86), which educates for occupations such as gardener; and social and cultural work (N = 123), which instructs for occupations such as youth worker. One criteria for including the schools and courses was their use of career conversations as part of an integral career guidance system. Juridical studies and car mechanics courses appeared to have a very clear, organised, weekly curriculum for integral career guidance and used manuals for all teachers, in which weekly assignments and instruments were incorporated. Agriculture and social and cultural work did not use manuals and did not have weekly plans for career guidance, but both had a certain reference guide that teachers used with the students. The schools representing social and cultural work and juridical studies had approximately four years of experience in conducting career conversations; the school representing agricultural had approximately two years of experience; and the school representing car mechanics had just started conducting such career conversations.

The students were from several years and levels of education within the schools and thus comprised a typical overview of the student population within vocational education schools. The mean age was 17.8 (SD = 1.64) with a range of 15–25 years; 46% were female and 54% male. Of the sample, 21% had a non-Dutch ethnic background (student or student’s parent born outside the Netherlands). Three schools were located in the southern part of the Netherlands (two in a large city and one in a rural town) and one school was located in a large city in the northern part of the Netherlands.

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1. Senior secondary vocational education in the Netherlands consists of 4 levels: level 1 (assistant worker – one year), level 2 (junior worker – two years), level 3 (vocational training – three to three-and-a-half years), level 4 (middle-management training – three to four years).
WHEN I GROW UP:
Career Lessons & Activities for Elementary

INTRODUCTION

- Standards:
  - Investigate world of work & self (Curiosity)
  - Achieve aspirations successfully (Goals)
  - Relation of personality, education, etc. to world of work (Meaning-Making)

National Standards for School Counseling Programs (Campbell & Dahir, 1997)
ASCA Student Standards (2004)
ASCA National Model (2012)

OUR TIME TOGETHER

- Setting the Stage
- Theoretical Foundation
- Implementation
- Working Time

INTRODUCTION

- Criticisms of career at the ES level
  - Time
  - Too Much Pressure
  - Inappropriate
  - No Structure
“We guide our boys and girls to some extent through school, then drop them into this complex world to sink or swim as the case may be. Yet there is no part of life where the need for guidance is more emphatic than in the transition from school to work—the choice of a vocation, adequate preparation for it, and the attainment of efficiency and success.”

- Frank Parsons (1909)

**THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**

**Research**

- Sparse (McMahon & Watson, 2005; 2008)

**THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**

**Literature**

- Multiple Influences (i.e. culture, family, community, etc.) (Arthur & McMahon, 2005; Gibson, 2005; Turner et al., 2004)
- Holistic (McMahon & Watson, 2008)
- Creates Vocational Identity (Mittendorff et al., 2011)
- Structured & Integrated (Hartung et al., 2008; Watson & McMahon, 2008; Wood & Kaszubowski, 2008)

**THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**

**Theory**

- Super’s Career Development Stages (Super, 1990)
- Social Cognitive Career Theory (Turner et al., 2004)
- System’s Theory Framework (Arthur & McMahon, 2005)

**THEORETICAL FOUNDATION**

**Approach that is:**

- Holistic & Developmental
- Constructivist & Systemic
- Structured, Multi-Faceted, & Integrated with Academics

**IMPLEMENTATION**

- Artistic displays (i.e. collages, murals, etc.)
- Educational career-focused games
- Field Trips
- Informational Interviewing
- Job Shadowing
- Mentors
- Role-Playing
- Live Speakers (PTA, community, associations, etc.)
- Career/Fair Day
- Websites (research, interactive, assignment, etc.)
IMPLEMENTATION

- Books & Narrative (Eppler, Olsen, & Hidano, 2009)
- Dino Cards
- Integrating with Curriculum (i.e. classroom lessons/activities, PSC curriculum, etc.)
- Family Career Tree (Gibson, 2005)
- Career Genogram (Gibson, 2005)
- Possible Selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Shepard & Marshall, 1999)
- Puppets

BOOKS & NARRATIVE

- Jobs People Do (Brooks & Litchfield)
- When I Grow Up (Douglas & Hurt-Newton)
- My Name is Not Isabella (Fosberry & Litwin)
- My Name is Not Alexander (Fosberry & Litwin)

DINO CARDS

- Wisconsin Career Information Systems, University of Wisconsin

INTEGRATING WITH CURRICULUM

- Classroom Lessons / Academic Standards
- PSC Curriculum
  - Committee for Children
  - Dependable Strengths
- Logistics
- Integration & Relevancy
FAMILY CAREER TREE & GENOGRAM

• Impact of parents/caregivers & family systems
• Attending & Processing
  - Feedback to develop autonomy rather than inferiority. Facilitate expression of beliefs about careers and expectations.

POSSIBLE SELVES

• Taking “Possible Selves” activity (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and adjusting for career (Shepard & Marshall, 1999)
• What are students’ “Hoped-For Selves”?
  - Positive projections of self & vocation
• What are students’ “Feared Selves”?
  - Negative views of self & vocation

POSSIBLE SELVES

What do you hope to become?
• Firefighter
• Nurse
• Diesel Mechanic
• Teacher
• Auto Mechanic

What do you dread becoming?
• Don’t have a job
• Doing something boring
• Being a computer worker because dad doesn’t like it

PUPPETS

• Fun
• “Teach” Mr. Cleveland about careers
• “Catch” Mr. Cleveland when he’s wrong
WORKING TIME

Theory + Practice = Creating a Plan

• Create a Career Guidance Unit using a Closing The Gap (CTG) Action Plan template

WORKING TIME

Checklist:
- Theory + Practice
- Creating a Plan
- CTG Action Plan Template
- ASCA National Standards – Career Domain
- Article: Helwig (2008)
- Article: Mittendorff (2011)
- Presentation Handout

CHECKING IN

1. Collaboration – Sharing Your Ideas & Approach
2. Reflection – What worked? Thoughts and Ideas for Improvement?
3. Return to Sender – Presentation & Work posted on website for use

THANK YOU!

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