

## Keyway Map of Impacts of Academic and Career Guidance

Report of Desk Research and Brainstorming Session Results









This publication was prepared by ISON PSYCHOMETRICA within the framework of the Keyway Project.

This project has been funded with support from the European Commission. This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.





### **Table of Contents**

I.	Introduction	۷ ۵
II.	Brainstorming Summary Results	
III.	Keyway result – categories	14
IV.	Keyway Intellectual Impact Map	46
V.	Point for reflection	47
VI.	Bibliography	48





#### I. Introduction

Career guidance can be defined as a helping process operating in three main domains i.e. personal, vocational and educational. Such activities might include information and advice giving, counselling, competence assessment, mentoring, advocacy, and teaching career decision-making and career management skills. They may be collectively known by a variety of names, including "career development", "educational / vocational / career guidance", "guidance and counselling", "occupational guidance", and "counselling". The process is informed by five main principles: user-friendliness, confidentiality, impartiality, equality of opportunity, and accessibility. It is provided in a variety of different contexts and delivered through a range of methods (Hughes et al, 2002).

Additionally, the OECD definition makes it clear that career guidance refers to individual and group activities, online and onsite activities and education, counselling, world of work experiences and system development. Career guidance refers to services and activities intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers. The activities may take place on an individual or group basis and may be face-to-face or at a distance (including help lines and web-based services). This definition encompasses a range of activities including the provision of career education, information, advice and guidance. It also includes many activities not normally described as "career guidance" such as education/employment brokerage and the work of public employment services.





#### II. Brainstorming Summary Results

Guidance practice draws on a wide range of research and evidence that has been conducted about the relationship between career, learning and work. The evidence about lifelong guidance seeks to answer questions about the effective delivery of guidance and the impacts that can result from it: questions such as "Do lifelong guidance programmes make a difference to the careers of individuals?" "Can they increase individuals' aspirations or their chances of progressing", "Do lifelong guidance programmes contribute towards policy aims such as supporting an effective education system, labour market efficiency, and social equity", etc.

There is a considerable research base which has used a range of different research approaches to answer these questions.

According to Hughes(2002), the quality of research, and of the evidence it can provide, is multi-dimensional but, as a rule of thumb, the kinds of evidence available are in the following approximately ascending order of robustness:

- 1. Opinion studies: This kind of evidence is usually gathered from the beneficiaries or clients of guidance, who provide feedback in a systematic way on the services they have received. Two main kinds of information are gathered: satisfaction or utility ratings and attributed effects (e.g. that the individual believes that the guidance led to a specific outcome, from raising confidence to entry into learning or work). These kinds of information are gathered in two main ways through:
  - qualitative research including in-depth interviews and/or focus group sessions;
  - quantitative research, including large sample representative follow-up surveys. Much less commonly, the judgements of other participants or of expert external observers are gathered.





2. <u>Outcome measurement studies</u> with no or very weak counterfactuals:

These studies are quantitative in character. Outcome variables are measured and these may be the:

- attitudes
- knowledge
- skills

commonly called 'learning outcomes'. In this case, knowledge or skill is sometimes measured by an objective test, but often through self-report. In the latter case, standardised measures (in a purely technical sense, called 'tests') of known reliability and validity are at a particularly high premium. But the range of measures is as broad as the objectives of guidance, so that they include search behaviour, securing employment, job satisfaction, entry to continuing education and training and course completion. The simplest form of study merely assesses these by followup at some point following guidance. This leaves open the question of the effect guidance may have had. This implies a comparison. Common weak comparisons are:

- to the same variable measured prior to guidance; but even where gains are made, these may be due to other factors.
- to a population parameter, such as officially recorded mean duration of unemployment.
- 3. <u>Controlled Studies</u>: This evidence includes those studies that have adopted a complex, and often experimental, methodology to test research hypotheses (e.g. that unemployed adults who attend job-search programmes find work more quickly than those who do not). The methodologies employed often include the use of:
  - control groups (classically and most powerfully by random assignment to guidance or to a no guidance or placebo control group, otherwise by comparison to a non-randomly selected control sample, called a 'non-equivalent group'). The adequacy of control achieved in such studies is a matter of degree. A 'meta-analytic' study is one in which the results of a large number of such studies are combined so that new estimates





may be made which, inter alia, benefit from greatly increased sample size.

• control by calculation (either using general samples including individuals who have and have not been exposed to guidance, or by constructing the 'counterfactual' in other ways, applying multivariate statistical techniques to calculate effectiveness controlling for prior differences between those who are and are not exposed; econometric studies are a specialised member of this family). Whether this form of control is 'weak' or 'strong' is a matter of degree. Sometimes, these two methods are combined. The use of statistical methods is common to both.

It is quite clear from the available evidence that evaluating the overall impact of career guidance provides a range of challenges. These include that:

- There is a wide range of factors which influence individual career choice and decision making, and/or which can impact on outcomes;
- Career guidance is frequently not a discrete input, but rather is embedded in other contexts, such as learning provision, employer/employee relationships, and or within multi-strand initiatives;
- Comparing the evidence available in different studies is problematic when the nature of career guidance, the depth of work undertaken and client groups, varies considerably. For example, it may also be unreasonable to expect a significant effect to occur on the basis of a single brief intervention, although the evidence from some studies (e.g. Bysshe and Parsons, 1999) indicates - on a self-report basis that clients can indicate a wide range of economic and learning benefits arising from a single telephone discussion with a trained adviser;
- There is not an agreed set of outcome measures for career guidance, or common methods of collecting output, or outcome data, except in the case of a limited number of discrete programmes/areas of work.

Therefore, researchers can measure a range of different levels of impact and outcomes. According to a desk research, we came up with several categorizations of the career guidance impact that are presented below.





Among them, the most important are the following:

#### a. ELGPN categories

According to a research of ELGPN (2014), guidance may result in different types as well as different levels of impact.

Kirkpatrick (1994) identifies four levels of impact that can result from training and development interventions. These levels can be adapted to structure thinking about the impacts of lifelong guidance:

- Reaction. How do participants in guidance describe their experience?
   Did they enjoy it and do they feel their participation has been worthwhile?
- 2. Learning. Is it possible to quantify what has been learnt? Measuring learning is particularly important because guidance is essentially a learning process, by which individuals learn about the world of learning and work and acquire the skills that they need to be successful within it (career management skills).
- 3. Behaviour. Do learners change their behaviour as a result of participating?
- 4. Results. Are there any observable impacts on systems, organisations or individuals?

It is also possible to recognize that guidance may result in different types as well as different levels of impact. These impacts can be described as those that relate to:

- **educational outcomes**, e.g. increasing participation in education and training, or improving attainment rates;
- economic and employment outcome, e.g. increasing salary, improving employee retention, or increasing someone's likelihood of funding work;
- **social outcomes**, e.g. reducing the likelihood of engaging in criminal activity, or increasing social mobility or community capacity.





Furthermore, it is possible to identify a range of different possible beneficiaries of guidance. Guidance is primarily a service directed towards the individual, but any change in the behaviour of the individual is likely to have wider consequences.

The <u>individual</u>: receives guidance and makes wise choices about learning and work.

<u>Organisation</u>: Learning organisations and employers find it easier to harness people's distinctive resources and maximise their contributions.

<u>Community</u>: Members of the community find it easier to access work and learning which enhances community capacity

<u>Country</u>: Transitions between learning and work are smoothed, reducing benefit costs and increasing productivity.

<u>European Union</u>: National labour and learning markets function more effectively, contributing to the realisation of the Europe 2020 targets.

Figure 1 depicts a summary of the types and beneficiaries of impact in relation to lifelong guidance. It highlights that we might be looking for learning, economic or social impacts, and seeking to register them at a number of different levels.

Figure 1. Types of Impact and Beneficiaries Impact

Types of impact

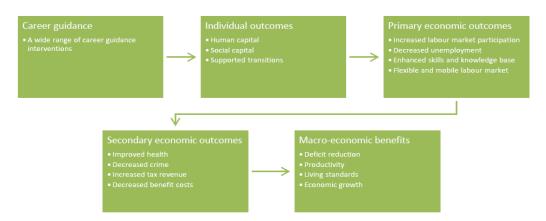
Keyway: Connecting Guidance Services to Key Impact Indicators 2016-1-ES01-KA201-025515





#### **b.** The Hooley et al. (2015) categories (see fig.2):

Figure 2. Impact areas



Career guidance contributes to a range of individual outcomes which influence a number of primary and secondary outcomes which in turn lead to macroeconomic benefits. It is recognised that career guidance acts primarily on and for the individual. It helps individuals to make choices, to build their skills and to strategize their participation in learning and the labour market. This in turn leads to a number of primary economic outcomes such as increased labour market participation and an enhanced skills and knowledge base. The primary economic outcomes contribute to secondary outcomes and all of these outcomes work together to contribute to broader macro-economic benefits.

Figure 1 conceptualises the economic impacts as essentially a linear hierarchy. In fact the relationship is likely to be more complex with each of the levels of the model interacting with the others. So for example improved health outcomes may also have an impact on decreased unemployment and increased labour market participation.

#### c. The Hughes et al. categories

According to Hughes et al. (2002) it is important to describe the various forms of outcomes that are theoretically possible, even if not always actually achieved. So, they describe a number of possible outcomes from information, advice and guidance (IAG) interventions ranging from those that can be said to be observable at, or soon after, the intervention (immediate outcomes) to





those that are observable significantly later (intermediate and longer term outcomes). These possibilities are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Guidance outcomes

#### **Immediate Outcomes**

- Knowledge /skills, including: increased awareness of opportunities, ability to action plan, job application skills, enhanced decision making skills
- Attitudes and motivation, including: increased optimism, reduced anxiety/stress, positivity in relation to work and/or learning

#### **Intermediate Outcomes**

- Search strategies, including: sustaining of search strategies beyond initial period, exploration of channels of information
- Decision making, including: carrying out actions plans, applying for job/training/learning

#### Longer - term Outcomes (individual)

- Training and education, including: taking up opportunities, successful completion, increased attainment levels
- Employment, including: re-entering the labour market, change of employment, increased wages

#### Longer - term Outcomes (economy)

- For employers and learning providers, including: increased productivity, increased flexibility, enhanced retention and achievement
- For the economy, including: reduction of skill gaps, lower unemployment, exchequer savings.

#### d. The Careers Scotland's categories

The research of Careers Scotland (2007) splitted the effect of career guidance into outcomes and impacts. Outcomes can be described as the changes, benefits, learning or other effects that happen as a result of services and activities provided by an organisation. It's a description of the intended result, effect, or consequence that will occur from carrying out a program or activity or the end result that is sought. There are different types of outcomes to consider:

Intermediate and end outcomes: intermediate outcomes are steps along the way to end outcomes. They are often smaller changes that need to happen before the final, desired outcome can be reached.





Soft and hard outcomes: soft outcomes are typically defined as intangible, a matter of degree and more difficult to measure. They are commonly used for changes in attitudes, self-perception or certain skills areas. These are often, but not always, intermediate outcomes. Hard outcomes are defined as quantitative and often more easily measurable.

Impacts, referring to the changes, effects or benefits that result from the activities on a wider society than its direct users or the changes in outcomes that can be attributed to a particular project, program or policy, in a situation where there may be many other influences on outcomes.

For Careers Scotland (2007), there are three categories of Impact and Outcomes: Learning, Economic and Social (see fig.3)

Figure 3. Effects of Career Guidance

<u>Learning</u>	Economic	Social
Greater access to education and training	Higher levels of participation in employment	Reductions in crime and offending behaviour
Greater participation in education and training	Lower levels of unemployment	Health benefits
Improved retention rates in education and training	Improvements in the employability of individuals	Greater levels of social inclusion
Greater education and training attainment and higher skill levels	A more responsive and flexible workforce	
nigher skill levels	Improved job tenure	

These outcomes (directly or indirectly) lead to the following impacts:



Higher wage levels through gaining higher qualifications Higher wage levels and improved productivity through higher levels of participation in employment Reductions in lost earnings and lower productivity through lost education and training and reductions in social security, NHS and public costs





#### e. The Watts' categories

Watts (1999) identifies three locations of the outcomes of guidance. Each of these locations has a different timescale attached to it. These are: the individual, where the outcomes, which are designated as 'learning outcomes' are immediate; the organisational, where the outcomes, which are designated as 'school effectiveness' are intermediate; and the societal, where the outcomes, which are designated as 'economic benefits and social benefits' are ultimate.

The time period over which outcome measures are applied is extremely important, as it could be argued that longer-term outcomes, for the individual, the organisation, and society as a whole, are likely to reflect the true benefits of guidance. Watts focuses on the four types of outcomes, with economic benefits and social benefits being treated separately. Regarding the 'learning outcomes', he declares that are likely to provide the most readily usable measures, because of their appropriateness, in that they reflect the guidance practitioner's concern to offer a range of alternatives, and practicability, in that the immediate, or short-term effects are able to be measured more easily. Within the category of organisations, Watts includes employers, as well as schools and other education and training providers.

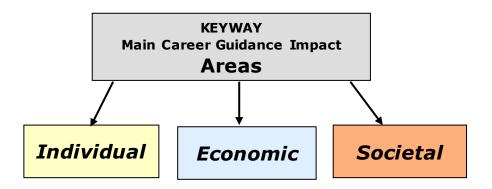




#### III. Keyway result – categories

Taking into consideration the above mentioned categories of impact outcomes, the Keyway Project concluded into the following three main Impact Levels:

Figure 4: Keyway Guidance Impact Levels



Each main level is further divided into sub -levels.

Table 4. Keyway Sub -levels of Career Guidance Impact

# Individual Personal Competence; Knowledge and skills Employment and Education Economic Economic Organisation Community Societal Organisation Community

As it seems in table 4 the Individual Impact is divided into **4 sub – levels**: Personal, Competence, Employment and Education.

Among the variety of outcomes those that are under the label "individual" are the immediate ones, on which can easily be observed and measured the impact of career guidance services.





More specific, under the Label of "Individual" we find four categories of impact:

a. The **Personal**, which refers to personal, psychological aspects of the individual, including: Self-esteem & confidence, decidedness, self-awareness, clearance of motives, satisfaction, better health, less stress, emotional control, and clearance of goals.

There have been several studies that examine increased levels of <u>self-confidence</u>, more positive attitudes, better <u>self-awareness</u>, <u>greater motivation</u> to seek employment, increased motivation and interest in education and training. Guidance is reported to be associated with, or perceived to be associated with, positive change in individuals set within a range of different contexts. More specific:

- Bysshe and Parsons (1999) reported changes in self-confidence of students
- James (2001) found that patients who consulted a 'Learning Adviser' based within health centre settings reported that their motivation and self-esteem had improved.
- Morris et al (1999) highlighted that access to good quality careers guidance was a critical key factor in raising young people's levels of awareness
- Barham, Hughes and Morgan (2000) in their study of New Start pilots found that some young people were thought to have made significant gains in terms of self-confidence and self-esteem.
- Hasluck (2000a) found that young people (18-24 year olds) on New Deal reported improved motivation and self-confidence.
- Winterbotham et al (2001) reported on the impact and effectiveness of the New Deal 25+ for long-term unemployed. They indicated that those who had participated in courses in job search skills as part of the 'Gateway' had gained confidence.

Among the impacts of career guidance, there was evidence that <u>career</u> <u>decidedness</u> was improved. In most researches career decision difficulties are associated with the notion of career indecision, which consists in the "inability to make a decision about the vocation one wishes to pursue" (Guay,





Senecal, Gauthier, & Fernet, 2003). Tyler (1961) was the first author who made a distinction between undecideness (a developmental, episodic indecision) and indecisiveness (a chronic state of indecision). After the participation in career guidance programs, the decidedness was increased as the clients were helped in facing three categories of difficulties in decidedness: lack of readiness (related to three subcategories: lack of motivation, general indecisiveness, and dysfunctional beliefs), lack of information (related to four subcategories: lack of information about the career decision-making process, the self, the occupations, and the ways of obtaining information), and inconsistent information (related to three subcategories: unreliable information, internal, and external conflicts). The indecision level and the decision difficulties of clients proved to be affected positive by career guidance programs (Baker, 2002; Gati, Saka, & Krausz, 2001; Hung, 2002; Jurgens, 2000; Peng, 2001).

Clients also reported significant decreases in the barriers that faced them in the labour market – particularly in terms of **self-esteem**, **confidence**, literacy and numeracy - and improvements in terms of their employability in a range of other criteria such as motivation and emotional control.

There is evidence also, that career guidance contributes to better levels of *life and job satisfaction*. Life satisfaction is the result of a conscious judgmental process through which individuals compare their perceived life conditions with self-imposed standards. Recent research has shown that domain-specific satisfaction in a valued life domain often correlates with global life satisfaction (Lent et al., 2005). As a consequence, specific satisfaction with one's career decisions and their consequences, such as positive career experiences and adjustment to the world of work, may be related to global life satisfaction (Feldman, 2003; Lounsbury, Park, Sundstrom, Williamson, & Pemberton, 2004). There was also found Strong association between life satisfaction and the engagement of clients in the intervention. One of the ways in which guidance might be expected to assist clients would be through improvements in job satisfaction, either by changing career or type of work or by becoming better equipped for the existing career or job through further training (Masdonati and Rossier, 2009).





The research methods permitted comparisons with people not taking part in guidance but having similarly low levels of job satisfaction at the outset. The guidance group experienced a major improvement in their average level of global job satisfaction between the initial recruitment stage and the first follow-up. There was some further improvement up the time of the second follow-up but this was relatively small. At the first and second follow-up interviews, questions were asked about satisfaction with pay, security, opportunity to use abilities, hours of work, variety in the job, and opportunity for career advancement. The main aspects in which the guidance sample made advances over the study period were in having more satisfactory hours of work and in more satisfactory prospects of advancement.

Additionally, researches were made for investigating the effects of a career choice guidance on **self-awareness and identity development**, which proved to improve through career guidance. As was expected, there was found a significant and clinically relevant increase in awareness of the abilities, personality traits of the client and his commitment strength. The effect size was median, and for most aspects the increase was significant also in comparison with a norm group of the same educational level and age. It was also found that compared to the norm group the initial commitment strength in the guidance group was lower in the vocational and personal domain. The initial difference with regard to global identity was in the expected direction. So, the findings suggest a less mature identity profile in the participants before the start of the program. After the guidance counselling, the participants showed a significant increase in identity development, better self - awareness and also the students with career choice problems did show relatively immature patterns of identity development (Kunnen, 2006).

b. The *Competence*, which refers to the Knowledge and skills that may acquire the individual, including: leadership, career adaptability, time management, problem solving, decision making, negotiation, setting goals, access to information and use of it, networking, coping with transitions and job search skills.





At the individual level, it was shown that career guidance has a main impact on the *human capital*, which refers to the stock of *knowledge*, *skill and* abilities of the individual. The acquisition of qualifications is often used as way of measuring human capital but this can be misleading for two main reasons: firstly qualifications are an imperfect, insensitive and inaccurate measure of an individuals' total human capital; and secondly human capital can be acquired in other ways which do not lead to qualifications e.g. on the job experience. There is considerable evidence suggesting that career guidance can support the acquisition of both skills, such as time management, problem solving, negotiation and qualifications by encouraging individuals to commit to and complete formal and informal learning opportunities. In addition career guidance can support individuals to increase their awareness of the skills that they have acquired informally and to consider how these skills can best be deployed. The OECD further embeds the importance of career guidance to human capital by suggesting a 'wider' form of human capital which not only includes educational attainment and skills but also selfmotivated learning, job search skills as well as the attitudes and behaviours that contribute to working effectively and efficiently. In this conceptualisation it is not only the ability to be productive but the ability to develop and deploy these capacities. This definition aligns well with the focus on the acquisition of career management skills (CMS) that has increasingly been placed at the centre of career guidance policy. CMS can therefore be seen as a specialised form of human capital that helps individuals to navigate a changing labour market and to understand the education and skills pathways necessary to progress in their careers.

Furthermore, referring to the impact on individual skills and competences, Coopers and Lybrand (1995) evaluated the 'Skill Choice' guidance programme for adults and concluded that participants had improved their attitude towards training, becoming more qualified, and their own career development.

In a series of linked research projects in Canada, a number of workplacebased guidance interventions were piloted and evaluated. The evaluation used a mixed-methods approach to capture the impacts on a range of beneficiaries including both employers and employees. The study found that





when employees examine their own competencies, reflect on their career goals, and become more aware of job possibilities within their current organisations, their job satisfaction increases and they are more likely to remain within their current employment setting. Consequently, promoting employee career self-management is likely to have a positive effect both on the employee and on the organisation (CRWGDRC, 2010).

Furthermore, Killeen's (1996) study on the impact of career guidance via Gateways to Learning identified a number of positive outcomes on behaviour and knowledge from career guidance. The majority of participants were made more hopeful about the future and/or reported becoming more informed about opportunities, their own skills, etc. Additionally, nearly half said their guidance helped them to search more effectively. Furthermore, the perceived effects on feelings, knowledge and behaviour were correlated with attributed effects on entry into education, training and jobs. Similarly, the evaluation of the All Age Guidance Projects found that there was evidence of more people making more informed decisions, including specific groups that would previously have found access to information, advice and guidance more difficult. Furthermore, the projects influenced outcomes, which were perceived by clients to be better than otherwise, and also enhanced skills and confidence, which, in the longer term, should strengthen their performance in the labour market.

Referring to *decision-making* processes of young people, career guidance seems to play an important role on it. It is clear that well-developed career exploration skills, and clear career goals and expectations, are important in helping young people to achieve their potential and to make successful transitions. Good-quality guidance has an important role to play in the development of these skills. The decision-making processes of young people, including those involving career planning, are influenced by many factors – some 'formal' and some 'informal'. There is also a significant body of evidence on the impact of information, advice and guidance on career exploration and decision making skills. Indeed, self-confidence and decision-making skills are related, and the literature findings suggest that the one acts as a precursor to the other. As far as individual decisions are concerned, effective guidance can ensure that job search and employment-related decisions are better





informed, thereby resulting in a more efficient workforce and greater complementarity between the supply of, and demand for labour (Watts, 1999:15).

Meijers, F., Kuijpers, M. & Gundy, C. (2013) in a quantitative study in the Netherlands investigated the impact of guidance and career learning within vocational education on the development of career management skills and career outcomes. The study included 3,499 students and 166 teachers. It found that guidance, where it was based on dialogue, contributed to motivation, decision-making and career outcomes. It also demonstrated a positive relationship between career management skills and career outcomes.

The evaluation of Careers Scotland's Inclusiveness Projects found that there was also an improvement in soft skills, with 80% reporting that their key worker helped increase their confidence. In terms of distance travelled, there were significant improvements in self-esteem and in confidence, leadership, time management, motivation and emotional control.

A study in the USA found that both career counselling and career courses could have positive impacts on higher education students. The study of 269 students participating in guidance activities identified impacts on career thinking and effective decision-making. The overwhelming majority of participants were also able to identify at least one change that they had made over the semester in reference to their career, including declaring a major, applying to a job or internship, or deciding on a career (McClair, V., 2010).

Hughes, D.H, and Gration, G. (2009), also found that people rate their readiness for career decision making as almost doubled after talking to a career adviser. More specific:

- 189 young people received Participant Assessment Planning & Support (against a target of 186).
- Of these, 172 young people started on accredited programmes, (target 172)
- 139 completed non accredited programmes (target 139)
- 38 participants progressed onto further learning courses (target 38) and 25 into employment (target 23).





 A total of 77 young people achieved one or more qualifications as part of the project.

Career guidance has also significant impact on enabling young people to have *access to information* on education and labour market. The counselor may provide the clients with useful resources of information, so as to help them get well informed. Qualitative research examining the role of career guidance advis-ers found that they could be influential in supporting young people to access opportunities and resources. The research highlighted the importance of the relationship built by the adviser with the young person, arguing that for some young people faced with complex and challenging circumstances, the relationship with their counselor provided a uniquely stable and valued source of support (Sheehy, K., Kumrai, R. & Woodhead, M., 2011).

Furthermore, career guidance services enable clients to broaden their *networking and social capital*. Social capital is another important piece of the puzzle in conceptualising the benefits of career guidance. Social capital refers to an individual's "ability to secure benefits through membership in networks and other social structures." Social capital therefore combines a number of different concepts together including the size of the social network, the relative social and economic power of the network and the ability to extract personal and career benefits from this network. Social capital also helps individuals cope and remain resilient during periods of unemployment. Inevitably social capital offers advantages to those who come from families and communities which are powerful and well-networked. However, social capital is something that it is possible for an individual to develop both through increasing their networking skills and through brokerage into new and more powerful social groups.

Career guidance can play an important role in providing individuals with access to information and intelligence that is outside of their immediate social network, offsetting some of the disadvantages offered by inequalities in social capital. It can also support the acquisition of social capital by brokering access to networks (e.g. potential employers) and providing access to mentoring and insights about how to penetrate important career networks. Career guidance is also well placed to articulate the importance of networking to job and





progression opportunities to individuals. There is some emergent evidence that engagement in career guidance actually fosters an increase in social capital. Research by the Education and Employers Taskforce found positive correlations between employer contacts at school and an individual's career confidence, their likelihood of being NEET and their salary suggesting that these positive effects are most likely to be explained by the increase in social capital enabled by employer engagement. It is worth mentioning the value of group guidance and "job clubs" in this context. Forms of career guidance which bring people together and allow them to share ideas and provide mutual aid have been found to be effective in both enhancing individuals social capital and in helping them to find work.

In the Careers England Research of 2015, there was mentioned that a final area in which career guidance can offer benefits for individuals is by supporting smooth and rapid *transitions* to further learning and work. Transitions from education to work and from unemployment to work are fraught with challenges. Career guidance can help to smooth these transitions. When assisting with transitions, interventions work best when they are targeted and provided quickly after an individual drops out of learning or work; and when they focus on developing positive attitudes such as increased self-confidence and increased self-efficacy alongside practical support with recruitment processes. In addition careers guidance prioritises proactive behaviours such as goal setting and active job searching which help smooth career transitions. Liu et al. found that those proactively engaged in job searching as a result of career guidance intervention were 2.67 times more likely to become employed than those that did not take part in an intervention.

Career guidance can also support other kinds of life transitions including return to work following illness or child or elder care responsibilities. Another important area where career guidance can contribute is in helping older people to think through work transitions in later life, the transition to retirement and how to remain economically active for longer

From unemployment to work: Career guidance is frequently used as a way to engage unemployed adults in the labour market. As such, it forms a key part





of active labour market policies. The evidence suggests that within the bounds of the broader performance of the labour market, career guidance can be effective in re-engaging the unemployed in work. Guidance acts on the individual to increase their motivation and make them more work-ready. There is also evidence which provides insights into effective implementation, suggesting that practitioner competence, employer engagement and holistic and networked service provision are important to service effectiveness. In addition, there is a literature which suggests that career guidance is important in helping individuals to manage career breaks and periods of caring responsibility (ELPNG, 2014).

Other kinds of return to work: Not all people without work fall into traditional conceptions of unemployment. Individuals can experi-ence breaks in their career for a variety of reasons and purposes, including injury or disability, periods of caring responsibilities and as the beginning of a career change or shift. If such career breaks are managed poorly, there is a danger that human capital is lost. Guidance can play an important role in avoiding this loss. Much of the literature in this area is focused on vocational rehabilitation following an injury or period of illness (both mental and physical). In such cases guidance is often delivered as part of a package of support, often including support delivered by health-care professionals. The guidance component of such interventions is usually concerned with helping individuals to think through their changed circumstances, identify how this might shift their relationship with work, and consider how any barriers to working can be overcome.

c. The *Employment and Education*, including: better selection of course, information on employment and education, more training opportunities, more qualifications- participation in education, labour knowledge, less drop-outs, finding of a job, change of workplace, awareness of new options.

One of the main impact of career guidance to the individual is that enables him to make a **better selection of course**, according to his traits, skills and interests and increase engagement. In a relative research was found that college students who take a career and life planning course are more likely





to be able to select a meaningful major and are less likely to drop out of college. Also, though the participant group started with lower levels of commitment strength than the control group, they seem to catch up after the program.

Growing evidence also exists supporting the usefulness of career development interventions in promoting <u>school engagement</u> among students in high school, which is a major contributor in helping students to gain 21st century skills. For example, a high school student who receives career interventions can become more focused about his future, which will help him to persevere when faced with obstacles (Kunnen, 2006).

Career guidance can enhance the development of human capital in general by encouraging *participation and success in the education and training system* as well as through the direct development of career management skills. For example, Graverson and Van Ours (2008) found that the skills developed through guidance increased success in job hunting by 30%. There is also evidence that suggests that the development of human capital through career guidance interventions can lead to broader personal and economic impacts. Furthermore, a good career guidance suggests that there are important economic benefits when careers guidance professionals encourage investments in human capital.

Taking part in guidance had also a positive impact on many aspects of participation in education and training. There was also clear evidence that this impact was continuing at the end of the study period. Over the two-year follow-up period, about eight per cent of the guidance sample entered full-time education or training. This was more than four times the proportion in the comparison sample. The guidance sample was more than twice as likely to get a qualification from a course which they had initiated, than the comparison sample. They also had a higher overall rate of qualification, even after taking account of employer-provided training in which the comparison sample did better. The gap is likely to increase with more time, since more of the guidance sample were in the middle of continuing courses when the research ended (Killeen, 1996).





Additionally, there are several studies which suggest that career guidance has a positive impact on participation in learning, and there is one particularly robust study showing a strong link between advice and/or guidance and increased participation in informal learning (as opposed to formal learning). Although the evidence that career guidance, per se, results in improvements in academic attainment is mixed, there is evidence that guidance is associated with improvements in retention in full-time education and reduced course-switching. There is good evidence of the highest level of rigour that intensive multi-stranded support for job seekers, including the provision of guidance, can reduce the length of time taken in finding employment.

Similarly, decisions relating to *learning opportunities* are more likely to be appropriate and lead to 'successful' outcomes. According to research, a client who receives career development interventions can identify new and promising training opportunities that will help him prepare for changing labor market demands (Kunnen, 2006).

Hawthorn & Watts (1992) in their research suggested that careers education and guidance had a positive impact on student motivation that in turn, leads to academic performance, while Morris et al (1999) highlighted that access to good quality careers guidance was a critical key factor in raising young people's levels of awareness and positive attitudes towards vocational training.

Killeen and White's (2000) study on the impact of career guidance on adult employed people aimed to provide a rigorous evaluation of the net impacts of guidance on adult employed people, with particular emphasis on economic outcomes. The data reported focused particularly on a series of learning and employment outcomes. The main results were: "The guidance participants benefited from guidance through an increased entry rate into both full-time continuing education and training, and through increased participation in other (part-time) education and training which was not arranged by their employers. The overall effect of this increased participation was an enhanced rate of qualification. Participants expressed appreciation of the value of guidance in helping them to access education and training opportunities. In





these important respects, the guidance services appear to have been successful."

Indeed, the study found that over the two-year follow-up period, 8% of the guidance sample entered full-time education, more than four times the proportion in the comparison sample. Furthermore, the guidance sample was more than twice as likely to get a qualification from a course that they had initiated, than the comparison sample.

Killeen (1996) found that about a third of those who had received career guidance reported that it led them to make applications for education or training. Furthermore, about a quarter said they entered education or training because of the guidance.

Further evidence of improved learning outcomes was presented by Barham et al (2000) in evaluating personal adviser pilot projects found that 63% of the young people who had left New Start achieved a 'positive' destination. Of those who had achieved positive outcomes just over one third entered full-time or part-time education and 57% entered training or a job with training.

Guidance can play a central role in learning systems by increasing individuals' engagement with learning, making clear the pathways through learning and work, and supporting the acquisition of career management skills for managing life, learning and work (ELPNG, 2014).

Guidance in schools is well-researched. It contributes to increasing students' engagement and success in school by clarifying the relevance of subjects to future opportunities, and supporting transitions from school through providing information and skills to underpin good decision-making, so helping students to establish successful lives and careers. Researchers have identified a range of impacts associated with school-based careers work. Guidance in schools can:

- increase students' engagement and success in school;
- support their transitions from school;
- help them to establish successful lives and careers.





The evidence also suggests that such programmes are best implemented in ways that connect career learning to the curriculum, and within schools where they are supported by the school leadership and built into the wider school ethos.

Lifelong guidance has an important role to play both in supporting individuals to consider **vocational options** and in helping those in vocational education to make the most of the skills and knowledge that they have learnt as they make their transitions to the labour market. In other words, guidance in vocational education supports individuals to see opportunity and value in vocational options and helps those in vocational education to make the most of their skills and knowledge.

Regarding guidance in higher education, it supports good career decision-making and effective transitions to the workplace, helping to ensure that graduates' learning and skills are well used. There is good evidence to suggest that employer involvement and work-related learning opportunities support positive employment outcomes for students. Beyond this the research base is in need of development, but suggests that there are benefits in offering a diverse range of services that link both to the academic curriculum and to the needs of graduate employers.

Lastly, lifelong guidance has a central place in adult learning. It can support adult learners to consider their return to learning, enhance their career management skills and employability, and aid in the utilisation of their learning. The evidence in this area is emergent, in part because guidance interventions in this area are often strongly embedded in other provision. However, there is research that demonstrates the benefits of guidance for confidence and progression.

Career guidance enhances also the individual's flexibility through supporting individuals to develop their capacity to read and respond to labour market change, by prioritising the importance of lifelong learning and by helping individuals to remain resilient in the face of change and positive about adapting to the demands of shifts in the labour market.





Furthermore, there is a wide range of research that demonstrates that career guidance can <u>reduce</u> the number of <u>drop outs</u> from education and training and re-engage discouraged workers. Cedefop suggests that guidance can help to prevent young people from becoming NEET by helping an individual to assess their risk of disengagement from the labour market or education (e.g. by dropping out of school) and by helping them to clarify their goals and create a clearer career path (Hughes et al., 2002).

A few studies do show a positive association between exposure to **counselling and academic attainment**. For example, Killeen & White (2000) in their study found that employees who had received guidance had achieved a higher rate of qualification than a comparison sample, but this was approximately in-line with the increased rate of participation and their analysis was not extended to consider relative wastage. MORI (2001) reported that of the adults who accessed guidance in the last year around 50% reported learning new skills, or updating skills, and around a third gained qualifications.

More recent studies focus primarily on 'student retention'. These suggest that guidance has an important role to play in terms of reducing student drop-out rates. For example:

- SWA Consulting (1999) reported an association between low drop-out rates for those who had received specialist career advice.
- Sargant (2000) proposed that a lack of information and advice for students affected drop-out rates.
- McGivney (1996) suggested that a lack of pre-entry/on-course information and advice is associated with increased drop-out rates amongst mature students on further and higher education courses.
- Morris et al (1999) had similar findings to McGivney in relation to young people's experiences in further education.

As it came out from the desk research, a very important impact on individual level, is the increasing of *employability* of a person. Good career guidance decreases shocks to the labour market which may arise from inadequate job matching and poor job signalling. This supports individuals to move into the most appropriate job for them. In addition participants in guidance





programmes are more likely to progress to employment. For example graduates who had participated in career guidance programmes reported higher rates of both employment and (higher skill) graduate-level employment.

A study of a career guidance programme focused on the vocational rehabilitation of people with disabilities in Utah concluded that it improved participation in work and that this resulted in an increase in taxation revenues and a decrease in benefit payments.

According to Hughes et al (2002) the role of guidance in supporting the development of job search skills and/or its impact on <u>reducing</u> <u>unemployment</u> is basic. Many studies on the impact of guidance in relation to adult job search are based on quantitative and qualitative studies, most of which are based on the experiences and perceptions of those receiving or delivering guidance. However, there are some notable exceptions:

- Allen et al (1999) found that effective job search activity help unemployed people to find work and integrated packages of support (which included advice, training and job search support) in particular were more effective in enabling people to retain work after leaving.
- Gardiner (1997) concluded that job search programmes which preceded New Deal assisted return to work, although additionality was estimated at 4% or less. More specifically, Restart interviewees found work more quickly than the control group.
- Hasluck (2000a) reported that the New Deal (18 24 year old unemployed adults) included support from Personal Advisers (PAs) and this helped with new job search techniques and supported participants into work.
- Hasluck (2000b) in a separate study on New Deal for Lone Parents highlighted that PAs helped participants to find and start jobs although they noted that many would have found jobs anyway. The report indicated that the jobs found through New Deal for Lone Parents were more likely to be full-time and permanent.
- MORI (1996) reported on the outcomes from vocational guidance and counselling schemes (Choice and Access) and indicated that one in five





- participants (22%) got a job and over one third improved their job search skills.
- MORI (2001) found that most users of guidance (86% of the 300 sample) reported a positive outcome resulting from information, advice and guidance. Specifically, 30% found a job or entered the labour market.
- Van Reenen (2001) reported that overall participants in New Deal were estimated as 20% more likely to find jobs. The job assistance element accounted for between 5.3% & 8.15% of flow into employment. Social benefits were estimated at between £25m and £50m, excluding more indirect benefits such as social inclusion effects and enhanced employability and productivity.

It should be mentioned that decreasing unemployment is strongly related to an increase in employment, but it is not simply a negative restatement of it. In a dynamic economy it is very likely that individuals will experience periods when they are unable to find employment. Unemployment is only one response to this situation. Alternatives include the establishment of enterprises and reengaging in education and training. Clearly individuals' capacity to choose alternatives to unemployment is strongly bound up with their knowledge of these alternatives, their personal access to financial, social and human capital and their entitlement to support from the state or other bodies. However, as it is shown career guidance can contribute to enhancing an individual's human and social capital, increasing their awareness of the options available, and supporting them to make faster transitions out of unemployment. Career guidance lowers the impact of unemployment by reducing the time spent searching for work and increasing the probability of finding suitable work. There is a wide range of research that demonstrates that career guidance can reduce the number of drop outs from education and training and re-engage discouraged workers. Cedefop suggests that guidance can help to prevent young people from becoming NEET by helping an individual to assess their risk of disengagement from the labour market or education (e.g. by dropping out of school) and by helping them to clarify their goals and create a clearer career path.





Several other studies also show a link between career guidance and participation in employment, and/or improved employment, with many individuals reporting that the guidance they received was a significant factor in improving their employment situation. There is also evidence of the highest level of rigour showing that in-depth support in the form of advice and guidance is positively associated with attitudinal work related outcomes, including increased work satisfaction and confidence in gaining a desired job.

Lastly, regarding the impact on individual level on education and work, there should be mentioned the *working alliances* that are encouraged through guidance. Career guidance enables clients, especially those from low and median financial level, to come across with alliances and to become member of a working community. Working alliance is a process indicator that may influence the impacts of career counseling in particular concerning face-to-face career interventions (Whiston & Rahardja, 2008). Working alliance is considered as a key variable when explaining the outcomes of counseling and psychotherapeutic interventions (Beutler & Castonguay, 2006). Numerous studies show its contribution to positive changes occurring through individual counseling with adults (Horvath & Greenberg, 1994; Stiles, Agnew-Davies, Hardy, Barkham, & Shapiro, 1998).

d. The *Economic that refers to the financial awards that the individual may earn* including: higher salary, less drop-outs in job or courses, financial success.

Measuring the economic benefits of guidance is problematic mainly because guidance effectiveness research is usually short-term and focused on immediate effects. However, some evidence of economic outcomes is available from previous studies. Killeen's (1996) study on the impact of career guidance found that about a third of those receiving guidance reported that it led them to make *job applications*. In addition, about 5% said they entered jobs because of the guidance. However, in terms of considering the additionality of the guidance support it is important to note that more than half already had some kind of offer or chance of a job or training, or were waiting to hear. Furthermore, about a guarter of those attributing entry into





work, education or training to their 'Gateways' guidance also attributed such an effect to other guidance they had experienced in the period.

Improved payment and less drop outs either from work or education are among the impacts that came up after the desk research. It was mentioned that through guidance, the client has the chance to enter a full-time a job and therefore have also a better salary and be financial successful. Additionally, with the support of the career counsellor the client chooses the best for him course and therefore he gets committed in the course and finishing it, saving cost in that way. Though the evidence for the economic impact on the individual is not clear. Killeen and White's (2000) study on the impact of career guidance on adult employed people found that there was no reliable evidence of guidance affecting earnings over a period of two years. There was, however, clear evidence that the guidance sample made more frequent moves in the external job market, and they were also more likely to move into full-time employment.

An *improved outcome* arising from career guidance is shown for wages. The limited number of empirical studies highlighted in our work to date focused on labour market outcomes and wages shortly after users received career guidance. A long run uplift is witnessed in wages for those that received some form of career guidance. This may be due to a better understanding of the skills needed to progress their careers or positioning themselves appropriately in Scotland's dynamic labour market. Among young people in their mid-twenties that did not receive any career guidance, nearly one in five (19%) were earning £450 or less per month, compared to just over one in ten (11%) that had been spoken to by a careers advisor in S4. Young people in their mid-twenties that did not receive any career guidance were also least likely to be represented among higher earners. Young people that had been spoken to by a careers advisor one to one were more likely to be higher earners by their mid-twenties.

Additional, Herr (2001) characterises the economic benefits derived from career guidance by individuals as being "their ability to secure jobs with improved pay, in shortened periods of unemployment, in obtaining greater congruence between personal interests and abilities in a job chosen and in





the experience of extended tenure in that job". The chances of market failure can be alleviated by effective career guidance, through reducing the propensity of learners to embark upon and subsequently drop out of education or training courses, by reducing the amount of mismatch between job vacancies and the available pool of unemployed labour, and by reenervating previously discouraged workers, who were not aware of potential opportunities for them to regain employment. A reduction in the length of job search may also be a valid 'positive' measure. Effective career guidance can assist institutional reforms by ensuring that potential participants are aware of any developments which may impact on their decisions, such as choice of course or institution.

The earnings of guidance and comparison groups did not differ significantly at either the first follow-up, or the second follow-up, once the samples had been rigorously matched. The same applied to the difference in earnings, for those who were employed and provided pay data at both follow-up interviews. On the alternative measure (called 'occupational expected earnings'), there was also no clear evidence that the guidance sample had advanced more than the comparison sample.

Overall, therefore, there was no reliable evidence of guidance affecting earnings over a period of two years. There was, however, clear evidence that the guidance sample made more frequent moves in the external job market, and they were also more likely to move into full-time employment. There was reasonably firm evidence that some career actions, notably changing jobs, moving into full-time work, or pursuing a qualification, could have different earnings outcomes for guidance participants than for non-participants. But these differential outcomes were sometimes negative, sometimes positive. The most positive outcome for guidance participants, in terms of change in earnings, was to move into work with longer hours. Self-initiated training with a qualification aim tended to have a detrimental effect on earnings for the guidance group, although not if it was deferred until the second year after guidance (Kileen, 1996).





As for the **Economic** level, we have two categories of impact:

a) The *Organisation*, which refers to the financial benefits that can have an organisation (school, university, company, etc), including: More job applications, improved job tenure, improved productivity, more responsible and flexible workforce, better utilisation of workforce, cost saving by effective job placement, international mobility and less drop outs.

Regarding the economic impact on the organization, in the literature was mentioned that career guidance attributes to improved productivity and more responsible and flexible workforce, as its scope is to match the competence and skills of the individual with the working environment and the job requirements. Taking into consideration that a career counselor helps the individual in gaining self-knowledge and making the appropriate choice for him either on education, or on work, and be prepared to face changes and improve his/her skills, it is expected that he will be more flexible in the working environment and therefore he will keep the work. A person who is settled in the most appropriate job for him, will be as well more productive and as he will be also satisfied will not drop out easily. Therefore, there will be cost saving in the organization by this effective job placement.

Although still presenting significant challenges, improvements in economic outcomes were the most straightforward of all the themes in terms of measuring impact and this theme was dealt with first. The stated economic outcomes were more readily translated into an economic value through increased workforce participation and *productivity improvements* related to *workforce participation*. The contribution of career guidance to economy can be estimated by assuming workforce participation is unaffected for those from professional or managerial backgrounds, but that workforce participation among young people from lower socioeconomic backgrounds improves for those receiving career guidance – reflecting the movement away from unemployment demonstrated in the tables appended. Career guidance is assumed to impact on those from non-professional or managerial backgrounds and those whose father was unemployed, sick or disabled.

Studies providing evidence of the economic benefits of career guidance are thin on the ground. Reference has been made to American studies, involving





controlled trials, which pointed to career guidance having led to individuals entering more suitable jobs, achieving greater job satisfaction and experiencing less job turnover than their counterparts who were not in receipt of guidance (Killeen, White and Watts, 1992). More recent (although still dated) studies conducted in the United States showed that Job Clubs, which included some career guidance provision in their remit were successful in reducing dependency on welfare payments and thereby making considerable cost savings. Again, this does not provide conclusive evidence of the likely impact of conventional career guidance interventions (Azrin et al, 1980; 1981).

Reference was made earlier to the potential benefits of career guidance to employees, notably in reducing market failure through enhanced retention and productivity. While there is a dearth of research data to substantiate such notions, Hirsh et al (2001) suggest that, from their study, evidence of 'softer' outcomes accruing to employees, such as motivational and attitudinal shifts could be discerned.

Guidance may reduce unemployment in three ways: Increased efficiency of job search so that duration is reduced and vacancies fill more quickly. Economy studies have been carried out focusing on reduction in welfare payments and the net benefits in terms of increased levels of income tax deductions and contributions. The following studies focused on projects aimed at getting adults back into work; Allen et al (1999); Hasluck (2000a); Hasluck (2001b); Winterbotham et al (2001); Van Reenen (2001).

b) The *Community*, which refers to the financial benefits that the society gains, including: lower levels of unemployment, extend of employment, more full time jobs, improved productivity, alignment of demand and supply, cost saving by effective job placement, international mobility, less public costs from drop-outs from education and higher tax revenues.

This category refers to the wider social benefits of guidance and its potential contribution to the economy. This includes issues related to the *direct costs* of unemployment, as there is strong evidence that guidance in three ways: by re-stimulating 'discouraged workers' to become active in the labour market, matching to ensure better alignment of 'demand' and 'supply' of





labour and increasing efficiency of job search so that duration is reduced and vacancies fill more quickly.

Economy studies have been carried out focusing on reduction in welfare payments and the net benefits in terms of increased levels of income tax deductions and contributions, which proved to confirm that through guidance clients are getting again back into the labour market (Allen et al,1999; Hasluck, 2000a; Hasluck 2001b; Winterbotham et al 2001; Van Reenen, 2001).

Another impact of career guidance that was mentioned was the *increase of* productivity. Productivity describes the relative amount produced by a defined input such as a day's work. Several theories have been put forth to explain why slow productivity growth perpetuates. Two possible explanations for low levels of productivity growth relevant to career guidance are: (1) employees within firms being moved to less productive roles and (2) slowing rates of innovation and discovery. In the current economic climate it is not enough that increased labour market participation leads to a more productive economy. It is an organisation's ability to deploy and support an individual in areas where they will be most efficacious as well as an individual's ability to determine and use their agency to deploy themselves for more productive functions. Career guidance is concerned with both the raising of human capital and its effective deployment. It encourages individuals to actively seek out opportunities where their human capital is more effectively utilised. Hughes et al. (2002) theorise that every one percentage point increase in productivity through improved matching supply and demand in the labour market has the ability to generate 'as much as £10.6 billion annually in increased production.

The stated economic outcomes were more readily translated into an economic value through increased <u>workforce participation</u> and productivity improvements related to workforce participation. The contribution of career guidance to economy can be estimated by assuming workforce participation is unaffected for those from professional or managerial backgrounds, but that workforce participation among young people from lower socioeconomic backgrounds improves for those receiving career guidance – reflecting the





movement away from unemployment. Career guidance is assumed to impact on those from non-professional or managerial backgrounds and those whose father was unemployed, sick or disabled.

Reference was made to the potential benefits of career guidance to employees, notably in reducing market failure through enhanced retention and productivity.

Other studies providing evidence of the economic benefits of career guidance are thin on the ground. Reference has been made to American studies, involving controlled trials, which pointed to career guidance having led to individuals entering more suitable jobs, achieving greater job satisfaction and experiencing less job turnover than their counterparts who were not in receipt of guidance (Killeen, White and Watts, 1992). More recent studies conducted in the United States showed that Job Clubs, which included some career guidance provision in their remit were successful in reducing dependency on welfare payments and thereby making considerable cost savings. Again, this does not provide conclusive evidence of the likely impact of conventional career guidance interventions (Azrin et al, 1980; 1981).

Godfrey et al (2002) estimate the additional lifetime costs of young people being excluded from education, training and employment at ages 16-19 are estimated on average per person at £45,000 in resource costs and £52,000 in public finance costs over a lifetime. The economic impact suggests there are around 14,000 individuals in employment that might otherwise have been not in employment, education or training in the absence of career guidance (Career Scotland, 2007).

Furthermore, career guidance seems to contribute to a more <u>flexible and</u> <u>mobile labour market</u>. In this point it is important to unpack some of the assumptions about a direct relationship between human capital acquisition and economic growth. Simply increasing individuals' skills is unlikely to offer economic benefits if those skills do not align with the needs of the labour market. So for example there are limited benefits in endlessly increasing the numbers of graduates, but greater benefits increasing the number of graduates with skills which the economy lacks such as science, technology, engineering and maths (STEM) skills. Addressing skills mismatches,





improving labour market signalling and discussing effective deployment of qualifications and skills are core functions of career guidance. So career guidance can both support individuals to increase their human capital in general and support them to consider the best way to increase their human capital in the context of the labour market.

Flexible and mobile labour market policies facilitate the movement of labour into the most productive sectors in the economy. Such flexibility relates to both sectors and to geographies. In a dynamic labour market both what kind of work is available and where this work is located are both likely to change over time. When labour can be supported to become mobile it can help to ease regional skills shortages and allows the labour market to be more productive. And this is one of the main goals of guidance: to help the individual get into a job that is available and also be flexible in facing any change that may occur in the working environment. There is also a case that investment in career guidance leads to increased tax revenue. Increased employment, better skills deployment, higher levels of workforce engagement and many of the other observed benefits of career guidance have the potential to lead to increases in the tax revenue. For example, Hughes notes that one percent increase of the population irregular work could generate over £1,513 billion of revenue for the United Kingdom.

Estimating the impacts of career guidance on taxation is a complex undertaking and one which inevitably requires the use of some assumptions which are open to challenge. Perhaps the most rigorous attempt to trace this relationship can be found in a Northern Irish report which used a mixed methods approach to estimate the economic value of the Education Guidance Service for Adults. This report estimated that the government would receive £9.02 net additional tax revenue for every £1 of public money invested in guidance (Careers England, 2015).

The impact of guidance is also seen on the <u>decreased cost of benefits</u>. The linking of benefit reduction with the transition to work and learning highlights the central role that career guidance can play in this agenda. Career guidance can help to reduce benefits in several ways. Firstly individuals that have high quality guidance may engage in productive labour for longer. In addition





career guidance's role in supporting transitions decreases the amount of time people spend drawing from the public purse as long as people are able to move from worklessness to sufficiently well paid work to take them out of benefits. Many unemployed people live "precarious" lives whereby they cycle between lowpaid work and periods of worklessness. Career guidance can support both the re-engagement with the labour market and an increase in skills which can enable individuals to progress out of precarity (Careers England, 2015).

Lastly, the **Societal** level, is consisted as well of two categories of Impact:

a) The *Organisation*, which refers to the social benefits of an organisation (school, university, company, etc), including: greater access in education and training, retention on rates in education, higher skill levels, engagement, confidence and well-being, better climate between colleagues and reduction of offending behaviour.

This category of impact on the organisation has to do with social aspects that are for the sake of the organisation. Through the desk research, was found that career guidance has an important role in "making' employees satisfied, with confidence, good relationships and high commitment and therefore improving the climate between colleagues and students.

Furthermore, there is growing evidence exists supporting the usefulness of career development interventions in promoting school engagement among students in high school, which is a major contributor in helping students to gain 21st century skills. For example, a high school student who receives career interventions can become more focused about his future, which will help him to persevere when faced with obstacles (Whiston, & Blustein, 2013).

b) The *Community*, which refers to the social benefits that the society as a whole gains, including: greater access in education and training, retention on rates in education, higher degrees & skills, confidence, health benefits, reduction in crime and offending behaviour and social inclusion.





The social impact of career guidance in community is related mostly to the benefits the community gains from learning outcomes and the increase of employment.

As far as *learning outcomes* are concerned, Watts (1999:14) asserts that "evidence on the learning outcomes of guidance is substantial and convincing". This statement is based on an appraisal of forty studies, which overwhelmingly pointed to some positive outcomes, and is supported by American studies of a similar nature (Oliver and Spokane, 1988). Overall, however, Watts is at pains to advise against placing undue reliance on what admittedly limited evidence, which is partly attributable to the acknowledged difficulties of undertaking studies which have sufficiently large sample sizes and appropriately sensitive data-gathering techniques and instruments. Here, the problem of disentangling any specific 'quidance' effect from a wider range of contributory factors is again evident, and Hughes et al (2002) point to a number of studies which cite guidance as having contributed to an identifiable increase in participation (Killeen, 1996; MORI, 1996; Coopers and Lybrand, 1995; Killeen and White, 2000; and MORI, 2001. This leads them to conclude that "there is now reasonably strong UK quasiexperimental evidence that voluntary exposure to guidance increases the probability of adult participation in continuing education and training, relative to similar individuals not exposed to guidance". Killeen and Kidd's (1991) earlier study asserted that, for each of the categories of learning outcomes they identified (i.e. attitudes; decision-making skills; self-awareness; opportunity of awareness; certainty of preference; transition skills), their review, which was largely based on American data, indicated that positive impacts could be identified. Hughes et al (2002) confirm this finding, citing a range of more recent studies predominantly from the UK. These could be further classified in terms of 'immediate' and/or 'intermediate' effects. Some studies including Killeen, J. and Kidd, J.M. (1991) made a systematic comparative review of the most robust experimental and quasi-experimental evidence, a large proportion of which was of US origin. It concluded that in experiments and field trials, gains have been shown across all categories. (Hughes et al, 2002).





Other studies have tended to confirm the positive learning outcomes of guidance, for example; Bysshe and Parsons (1999); James (2001); Brooks (1998); Sims et al (2001); Killeen (1996); Hasluck (2000a); Winterbotham et al (2001); Van Reenen (2001); MORI (1996); and Killeen and White (2000) indicate that guidance has positive effects in terms of positive learning outcomes. A proportion of this evidence rests on appropriate objective tests but, due to the difficulty and cost of their construction, a substantial proportion of it is based on subjective measures (client selfreport; self-efficacy and confidence measures, etc.).

Turning to the social benefits of career guidance, Watts contends that "the case for guidance having a role in reducing **social exclusion** is not difficult to make", in that career guidance focuses on encouraging participation in learning and in employment. It can therefore be seen as a force for preventing 'at risk' individuals from becoming socially excluded, and alleviating the situation of those who have become excluded, by assisting them to be reengaged through education, training or employment. It is important to emphasise here the difficulties of defining social benefits, for while there are clearly benefits to be derived by society (and the economy) as a whole from effective career guidance, for example through attitudinal shifts which result in a greater attachment to prevalent societal values, there are also what may be termed social benefits which accrue to individuals. These would include an improved 'quality of life' (Watts, 1999:17).

Mayston (2002a) contends that "there are a number of important wider social benefits which are likely to be generated by high quality career guidance, and which could be included in a cost-benefit analysis of such career guidance".

The chances of market failure can be alleviated by effective career guidance, through reducing the propensity of learners to embark upon and subsequently **drop out** of education or training courses, by reducing the amount of mismatch between job vacancies and the available pool of unemployed labour, and by re-enervating previously discouraged workers, who were not aware of potential opportunities for them to regain employment. A reduction in the length of job search may also be a valid 'positive' measure. Effective career guidance can assist institutional reforms





by ensuring that potential participants are aware of any developments which may impact on their decisions, such as choice of course or institution. Turning to the social benefits of career guidance, Watts contends that "the case for guidance having a role in reducing social exclusion is not difficult to make", in that career guidance focuses on encouraging participation in learning and in employment. It can therefore be seen as a force for preventing 'at risk' individuals from becoming socially excluded, and alleviating the situation of those who have become excluded, by assisting them to be re-engaged through education, training or employment.

The impact of career guidance in *improved health* has also been mentioned. Societies that perform well on key health indicators enjoy higher productivity and greater levels of happiness. Mayston suggests that when an individual is encouraged (through career guidance) to make a career move which increases their net income this may in turn improve their health. The literature on satisfaction with life including job satisfaction finds correlation with higher quality of life and wider health outcomes. There is strong evidence that highlights the inter-dependence of work, career and mental health 56 and which demonstrates the impacts that career guidance can have on positive mental health. Career guidance can facilitate an individual to reduce stress by effectively managing their life and work and to maintain positive mental health by cultivating resilience during times of unemployment (Careers England 2015).

There has been mentioned that career guidance may contribute indirectly to **social justice** and the **decrease of crime**. While on its own career guidance cannot be expected to undo broader social and economic inequality, through the provision of information, inspiration and opportunity it can contribute in important ways to social inclusion and social mobility. High rates of unemployment for both individuals and communities correspond to higher levels of crime. Additional correlates of crime such as low job status and a lack of skills and training are also areas into which career guidance seeks to intervene. There is also a more direct tradition of using career guidance as an intervention with offenders and ex-offenders to try and prevent recidivism. The availability of career guidance, particularly for groups at risk of engagement in crime can therefore be a valuable strategy to prevent crime





and re-engage those within the criminal economy in the mainstream labour market. Though, for those assumptions there has been no clear evidence coming from specific studies (Careers England, 2015).

Guidance plays also an important role in supporting <u>migration and</u> <u>mobility</u>. Such guidance may take place in the home or host country and can aid in decisions to move, integration into the host country and effective skills utilisation. In research on migrant women was found that access to lifelong guidance both in the home country (before migration) and in the host country (after migration) supported women's self-confidence and their ability to successfully operate in the host country's labour and learning markets. Where such services did not exist, the migrants often found it difficult to access basic support services (such as language classes) and consequently found integration to be more challenging.

Guidance supports the mobility of workers both in the home country and in the host country. It helps people to understand the opportunities and processes of mobility and to re-orientate themselves and become productive once they have moved. Additionally, guidance supports older workers to engage in learning and actively manage their staged retirement. In addition to demonstrating the effectiveness of guidance, the evidence also indicates ten evidence-based principles to underpin the design of lifelong guidance services (Careers England, 2015).

Furthermore, the role of guidance in social level is increasingly recognised. Such services remain relatively new, so the evidence base is emergent. However, strong policy interest in this area suggests that it is likely to develop rapidly. Existing evidence indicates that guidance is effective in supporting older workers to engage in learning and actively manage their careers. Evidence also suggests that efforts need to be made to stimulate understanding of and demand for such provision. Guidance for older workers is most effective when it is placed in the context of a lifelong guidance strategy.

A study of guidance for older people in Scotland indicated that they appreciated how guidance helped them to manage uncertainty and change in the current employment climate. The intervention had supported individuals





through a series of stages to reflect on past experiences, build confidence and motivation for future planning and learning, and encourage goal-setting. Levels of engagement in lifelong learning were variable and associated with background and prior educational ability. Thus career guidance can support social-equity goals in relation to lifelong learning and older people (Smith, G., 2012).

In summary, for the KEYWAY Project, the main Career Guidance Impacts can be imprinted in the following Intellectual Map.

Despite the fact that in the bibliography have been mentioned several impacts of career guidance in individual, social and financial level as are presented in the impact map, though there is evidence and specific concrete surveys results for some of them.

In figure 5 is presented a summary of the availability of evidence, based on the review of available data and a selection of the relevant literature. Categories were assigned according to the availability of evidence either supporting or contradicting each inferential statement. Satisfactory evidence was noted where there was sufficient evidence covering the link between career planning skills and stated outcomes. Sufficient information was available across a number of sources with at least an element of robust empirical evidence such as monitoring information or a survey.

Partial evidence was noted where there was incomplete evidence covering the link between career planning skills and stated outcomes. Information was typically available across one or two sources and for some stated outcomes, sources lacked empirical evidence.

A lack of evidence was noted where there was no robust evidence covering the link between career planning skills and stated outcomes. A lack of evidence typically meant an absence of empirical evidence with no source of information directly and adequately addressing the link between career planning skills and stated outcomes





It seems that across all themes inferential statements were categorised as having either satisfactory or partial evidence to make it possible to evaluate the effect of career planning skills on the stated outcomes. This should not be surprising; the inferential statements were selected from hypotheses most commonly cited in the relevant career guidance literature. Where statements were commonly cited in the relevant career guidance literature they were often accompanied by some form of evidence resulting in at least partial evidence for each of the selected inferential statements.

Across all categories the 'causal relationship' between the stated outcomes and career guidance was accounted for. The causal relationship considers the extent to which the initial effect of career guidance can reasonably be shown to have a direct consequence on outcomes. This is an important point as improved outcomes may simply reflect the influence of other factors associated with those seeking career guidance.

Social Economic Learning Increased confidence Greater access to education Higher levels of participation and training in employment Increased well-being which Lower levels of Greater participation in contributes to health benefits unemployment education and training for society Improved job tenure through Improved retention rates in increased motivation at work education and training Reductions in crime and offending behaviour Higher wage levels Greater education and A more responsive and training attainment and flexible workforce Reductions in social security higher skill levels and NHS costs Improved motivation and employability of individuals hence attainment in Greater levels of social education and training Improved productivity inclusion Improved outcomes

Guide:

Figure 5: Likely effect of career guidance

18

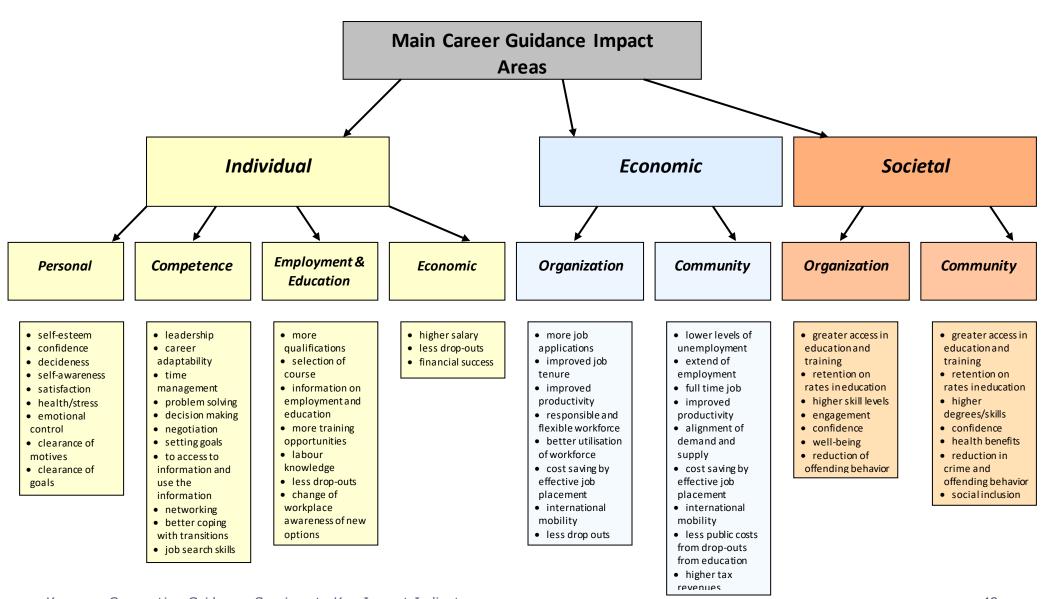
Potential improvement

No improvement





## IV. Keyway Intellectual Impact Map







## V. Point for reflection

The brainstorming session lead to the following point for reflection:

There is difficulty in being sure if the impacts concerning the Economic and Societal Areas are mainly attributed to career guidance services or to other factors. Therefore, there was agreed to maintain in the final version of the Intellectual Impact Map only those impacts, that can be measured and have clear evidence.





## VI. Bibliography

Allen J., Hansbro J., Mooney P., (1999) Pathways to Employment: The Final Evaluation of ESF Objective 3 in Britain (1994-9), DfEE, London

Azrin, N.H., Philip, R.A., Thienes-Hontos, P. and Besalel, V.A. (1980). Comparative evaluation of the Job Club program with welfare recipients. Journal of Vocational Behavior. 16, 133-145.

Azrin, N.H., Philip, R.A., Thienes-Hontos, P. and Besalel, V.A. (1981). Follow-up on welfare benefits received by Job Club clients. Journal of Vocational Behavior. 18, 253-254.

Bysshe, S. and Parsons, D. (1999) The HOST consultancy, DfEE report

Baker, H.E. (2002). Reducing adolescent career indecision: The ASVAB Career Exploration Program. Career Development Quarterly, 50, 359-370.

Barham, L., Hughes, D., and Morgan, S., (2000) New Start - Paving the way for the Learning Gateway. Final evaluation of the personal adviser pilot projects. London: Department for Education and Employment.

Beutler, L.E., & Castonguay, L.C. (2006). The task force on empirically based principles of therapeutic change. In L. C. Castonguay & L. E. Beutler (Eds.), Principles of therapeutic change that work (pp. 3-10). Oxford: Oxford University Press

Bysshe, S. and Parson, D. (1999) Evaluation of Learning Direct. London: DfEE

Canadian Research Working Group on Evidence-Based Practice in Career Development (CRWGDRC) (2010). Meeting Workplace Skills: The career development contribution.

Careers England (2015). The Economic Benefits of Career Guidance. July 2015

Careers Scotland (2007). Demonstrating Impact, Final Report. May 2007.

Careers Scotland (2009). The impact and value of career guidance. June 2009





Clayton, P. (2005). Blank slates or hidden treasure? Assessing and building on the experiential learning of migrant and refugee women in European countries. International Journal of Lifelong Education, 24(3): 227-242

Coopers and Lybrand (1995) National Evaluation of Skill Choice - Final Report, Employment Department

ELGPN (2014). The evidence base on lifelong guidance, A guide to key findings for effective policy and practice. Finland, 2014.

Feldman, D.C. (2003). The antecedents and consequences of early career indecision among young adults. Human Resource Management, 13, 499-531

Gardiner, K. (1997) Bridges from benefit to work: a review, York Publishing Services Ltd: York

Gati, I., Saka, N., & Krausz, M. (2001). 'Should I use a computer-assisted career guidance system?' It depends on where your career decision-making difficulties lie. British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 29, 301-321

Graversen, B.K., & Van Ours, J.C. (2008). How o help unemployed find jobs quickly: Experimental evidence from a mandatory activation program. Journal of Public Economics, 92 (10), 2020-2035,

Guay, F., Delisle, M. N., Fernet, C., Julien, E., & Senecal, C. (2008). Does task-related identified regulation moderate the sociometer effect? A study of performance feedback, perceived inclusion, and state self-esteem. Social Behavior and Personality, 36, 239-254

Hasluck, C. (2000a) The New Deal for Young People: two years on. Research and Development Report ESR41. Sheffield: Employment Service.

Hasluck,C.(2000b) The New Deal for Lone Parent: A review of evaluation evidence. Sheffield: Employment Service.

Hawthorn, R., and Watts, A.G., (1992) Careers Education and the Curriculum in Higher Education. Cambridge: Hobsons Publishing on behalf of CRAC





Herr, E.L. (2001) The Costs/Benefits of Career development Interventions: A Practitioner's Perspective. Paper presented to Second International Symposium on Career Development and Public Policy, Vancouver, Canada.

Hirsh W., Jackson C., Kidd J. (2001) Straight Talking: Effective Career Discussions at Work. Cambridge: National Institute of Career Education and Counselling.

Horvath, A. O., & Greenberg, L. S. (Eds.). (1994). The working alliance. Theory, research, and practice. New York: Wiley.

Hooley, T. and Dodd, V. (2015) The economic benefits of career guidance. Careers England

Hughes, D. et al. (2002). The economic benefits of guidance. Department of Education & Skills, 2002.

Hughes, D. & Gration, G. (2009) Evidence and Impact: careers and guidance related intervention: On-line Professional Resource. CfBT Education Trust, Reading.

Hung, J. (2002). A career development course for academic credit: An outcome analysis. The Canadian Journal of Career Development, 1, 22-27. Google Scholar

James, K. (2001) Prescriptions for Learning: evaluation report. Leicester: National Institute for Adult Continuing Education.

Jurgens, J.C. (2000). The undecided student: Effects of combining levels of treatment parameters on career certainty, career indecision and client satisfaction. Career Development Quarterly, 48, 237-250

Killeen, J (1996a) The Learning and Economic Outcomes of Guidance, (1996b) Evaluation in Watts, A, G, Law, B, Killeen, J, Kidd, J. M, and Hawthorn, R (1996) Rethinking Careers Education and Guidance Theory, Policy and Practice, London

Killeen, J., (1996b). Does guidance work? An evaluation of the intermediate outcomes of Gateways to Learning. London: Department for Education and Employment





Killeen, J. and Kidd, J. (1991) Learning outcomes of guidance: a review of recent research, Employment Department Research Paper 85.

Killeen, J. and White M. (2000) The Impact of Careers Guidance on Adult Employed People, DfEE Research Report RR226, Sheffield: Department for Education and Employment.

Killeen, J., White, M. and Watts, A.G. (1992). The Economic Value of Careers Guidance. London: Policy Studies Institute.

Kumrai, K., & Woodhead, M. (2011). Young people's experiences of personal advisors and the Connexions service. Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: an International Journal, 30(3): 168-182.

Kunnen E. S. (2006). Are conflicts the motor in identity change? Identity, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 169–186.

Lent, R.W., Singley, D., Sheu, H.B., Gainor, K.A., Brenner, B.R., Treistman, D., et al. (2005). Social cognitive predictors of domain and life satisfaction: Exploring the theoretical precursors of subjective well-being. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52, 429-442

Lounsbury, J.W., Park, S.H., Sundstrom, E., Williamson, J.M., & Pemberton, A.E. (2004). Personality, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction: Test of a directional model. Journal of Career Assessment, 12, 395-406

McClair, V. (2010), Career Counseling and Career Courses: Process, Impact and Outcomes, PhD thesis, University of Illinois

Masdonati, J., Massodi, K., Rossier, J.( 2009). Effectiveness of Career Counseling and Impact of Working Alliance, Journal of Career Development.

Mayston, D. (2002a). Evaluating the Benefits of Career Guidance, Centre for Guidance Studies Report, University of Derby.

McGivney, V. (1996) Staying or leaving the course: retention and non-completion of mature students in further and higher education. Leicester: National Institute for Adult Continuing Education.





Meijers, F., Kuijpers, M., & Gundy, C. (2013) The relationship between career competencies, career identity, motivation and quality of choice. International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, 13, 47–66.

MORI (2001) Demand for Information, Advice and Guidance, The Guidance Council: Winchester.

MORI (1996) Evaluation of ESF Vocational Guidance and Counselling Schemes, Sheffield: DFEE.

MORRIS, M., GOLDEN, S. and LINES, A. (1999a). The Impact of Enhanced Careers Education and Guidance on Transition at 16 (RD 21). Sheffield: DfEE.

MORRIS, M., LINES, A. and GOLDEN, S. (1999b). The Impact of Careers Education and Guidance on Young People in Years 9 and 10: a Follow Up Study (RD 20). Sheffield: DfEE.

Morris, M., Nelson, J., Rickinson, M., and Stoney, S.M., with Benefield A. (1999) A literature review of young people's attitudes towards education, employment and training. London: Department for Education and Employment.

Oliver, L.W. and Spokane, A.R. (1988) Career intervention outcome: what contributes to client gain? Journal of Counseling Psychology, 35(4): 447-462.

Peng, H. (2001). Comparing the effectiveness of two different career education courses on career decidedness for college freshmen: An exploratory study. Journal of Career Development, 28, 29-41

Sargant, N. (2000) The learning divide revisited. A report on the findings of a UK-wide survey on adult participation in education and learning. Leicester: National Institute for Adult Continuing Education.

Sheehy, K., Kumrai, R. and Woodhead, M. (2011) Young people's experiences of personal advisors and the Connexions service, Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal, Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 168-182.

Sims, D., Nelson, J., Golden, S. and Spielhofer, T. (2001) Young people's experiences of the Learning Gateway. Research Report RR277. London: Department for Education and Skills.





Smith, G. (2012). Engendering Learning and Guidance in Later Life: An empirical study. Available from http://dialogue.eucen.eu/sites/dialogue.eucen.eu/files/P2-K CS Guidance\%20in\%20later\%20life.pdf [Accessed 20 October 2013].

Stiles, W.B., Agnew-Davies, R., Hardy, G.E., Barkham, M., & Shapiro, D.A. (1998). Relations of the alliance with psychotherapy outcome: Findings in the second Sheffield psychotherapy project. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 66, 791-802.

SWA Consulting (1999) Evaluation of early Individual Learning Account development activity. Research Report 123. London: DfEE.

Tyler, L. E. (1961). Research explorations in the realm of choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 8, 195-202.

Van Reenen, J., (2001) No more skivvy schemes? Active labour market policies and the British New Deal for the young unemployed in context. WP01/09. London: The Institute for Fiscal Studies.

Watts, A.G. (1999) The Economic and Social Benefits of Guidance, Educational and Vocational Guidance: Bulletin, 63/1999. International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance.

Winterbotham, M., and Adams, L., with Hasluck, C., (2001) Evaluation of New Deal for Long Term Unemployed People Enhanced National Programme. Report ESR82. Sheffield: Employment Service.

Whiston, S.C., & Rahardja, D. (2008). Vocational counseling process and outcome. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Handbook of counseling psychology (4th ed., pp. 444-461). New York: Wiley.

Whiston, S.C. & Blustein, L.B (2013). Preparing our Citizens for 21st Century Jobs. Paper prepared as a collaboration of the National Career Development Association and the Society for Vocational Psychology.