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THE INFLUENCE OF WORK VALUES ON CAREER DEVELOPMENT

by

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for the degree

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in the

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Study leader: Mrs M.M. Fouché

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- my PARENTS: "You have always believed in me - thank you".
THE INFLUENCE OF WORK VALUES ON CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

GRAHAM MARK EMMETT, M.A. INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY, RAND AFRIKAANS UNIVERSITY.

A wide variety of groups, each with their own subculture, meet in the heterogeneous South African working environment. Each group identifies with its own value system. The implication is that these disparate value systems become synergised in the organisational context. It is suggested that the process which facilitates this process is socialisation.

Furthermore, work values are suggested to be culturally defined and therefore, organisational socialisation is directly linked to childhood and adulthood socialisation. Socialisation operates on two dimensions, namely, behaviour and values.

The socialisation of work values occurs throughout the individual's career development through the career stages.

The study proposes a model which highlights the influence of socialisation process on work values.

Little research has been conducted to describe the concept values conceptually. This is also the case with work values. For this reason, and also because of the influential role of the environment in South Africa, the study was limited to a literature study.
In die kultureel - heterogene Suid-Afrikaanse werksomgewing is 'n verskeidenheid van groepe, elk met 'n eie subkultuur en werkswaardes, daagliks met mekaar in aanraking. Alhoewel die verskillende groepe se werkswaardes nie noodwendig eenvormig word nie, vind daar tog deur middel van die sosialiseringsproses 'n gelykmaking van die waardestelsels binne werksverband plaas.

Aangesien werkswaardes kultuur gefundeerd is, word die aannemse gemaak dat die sosialisering binne die organisasie-opset direk in verband gebring kan word met die sosialisering wat in die kinderjare en latere volwasse lewe van 'n individu plaasvind. Beide gedrag en waardes blyk in gevolge hiervan dimensies te wees van die sosialiseringsproses.

Die sosialisering van werkswaardes is 'n kontinue proses wat tydens verskillende loopbaanfases van die individu se loopbaanontwikkeling plaasvind.

Die onderhavige studie postuleer 'n model teen die agtergrond waarvan die invloed van die sosialiseringsproses op werkswaardes bespreek word.

Daar is besluit om die onderhavige ondersoek te bespreek tot 'n literatuurstudie aangesien daar:
- min navorsing bestaan in terme waarvan die begrippe waardes en werkswaardes konseptueel beskryf word en
- omrede die effek van die komplekse Suid-Afrikaanse samelewing op sodanige waardes nog nie voldoende deur navorsing beskryf is nie.
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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The South African society is characterised by a wide variety of culturally homogeneous groups. These groups bring their individual subcultures and values into the work place as they interact with each other in the labour market (Flowers, 1988). Much of this intermingling occurs informally as individuals learn to understand and appreciate the values of each other.

However, the context in which employees find themselves bound, the organisation, constitutes a third party with its own set of values. The fusion of these value systems takes place as the organisation influences the individual to identify with its values (socialisation) and the individual influences the organisation to accommodate his values (innovation) (Schein, 1971). This occurs during the individual's tenure with the organisation and is directed by the characteristics of the particular stage in the individual's career.

For instance, at the entry stage, the value systems of the individual and organisation are possibly more divergent than at the retirement stage.

What is uncertain is the influence of work values on the socialisation process during the individual's development through the career stages and the many factors which impact on the individual during this development. Value conflicts may lead to inefficacious
socialisation and an inability on the part of
the individual to identify with the
organisation. This may result in
dissatisfaction and reduced performance.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

Against the background of the above, the purpose of
this study is two-fold; namely:

- review the literature on values, career stages and
the socialisation process, particularly as they
apply in the South African context.

- formulate a model which will describe issues that
are crucial to the individual and organisation,
and the influence of socialisation during the
career stages.

1.3. RESEARCH METHOD

Very little research on values and especially work
values is currently available in South Africa (Godsell,
1983). There is also a reluctance on the part of
researchers to become involved in the field of work
values because the concepts are illusive and enigmatic.

For these reasons, this study will be restricted to a
literature study so as to review current literature and
provide a basis for further empirical research.
This method must be distinguished from a literature survey which provides a compendium of available research. Rather, this research will strive to place the topics in context, based on a study of available literature.

1.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Human beings are complex and their behaviour is complex. There are many antecedents of human behaviour, including:—

- intelligence
- aptitudes
- attitudes
- abilities
- personality
- interests
- values
- biological factors

It is acknowledged that the contribution of values research to an understanding of the individual's behaviour in organisations is small. Nevertheless, as values are defined as core elements, that is, preferences, standards or guiding criteria. (Rokeach, 1979, p.2), research in this area impacts on many other antecedents of behaviour.
1.5. STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The chapters are organised as follows:

- in chapter 2, values are defined and the nature of values discussed. The measurement of values is also touched upon. More importantly, the context of work values in the South African context is discussed so as to gain a perspective of this antecedent of behaviour for further research.

- in chapter 3, the aspect of career stages is studied from the viewpoints of a number of theorists so as to highlight the major issues an individual might confront in the various stages.

- in chapter 4, the socialisation process is described and discussed from a number of theoretical perspectives. Methods of socialisation are discussed and the socialisation of employees in the South African context examined.

- in chapter 5, a model is introduced which conceptualises the socialisation of individuals by focussing on the issues crucial to both the individual and the organisation in the South African context.

- in chapter 6, some conclusions are drawn as well as the application of the research in the broader context.
CHAPTER 2

2. WORK VALUES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The term "Values" is interdisciplinary as it is an area researched in sociology, political science, education and anthropology (Feather, 1975, p.1). By its very definition, the concept of values is illusive and abstract (Healy, 1982, p.84; Godsell, 1981; Super and Bohn, 1971, p.25). People display different values towards many aspects of life including work (Hughes & Flowers, 1973). The research on work values includes research on the Protestant Ethic as conceived by Weber, beliefs about work, central life interests and work preferences (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981, pp. 133 - 169).

The purpose of this Chapter is to focus attention on the nature of values in general and the relevance which values and work values have for today's society, with particular reference to the South African labour market.

Having established a platform for an understanding of work values, the discussion will in later Chapters relate the concept of work values to the socialisation process through the career stages.
2.2 DEFINITIONS

How is the term 'values' defined? Researchers have provided a plethora of definitions and adjectives associated with the word 'values'.

"Values represent wants or preferences. Values describe what individuals consider to be important. Values represent broad guides to action."

(Sikula, 1973)

"A shorthand definition of values is: broad preferences for one state of affairs over other. They direct our feelings of good or evil."

(Hofstede, 1985)

"Values are objectives that one seeks to attain in order to satisfy a need."

(Super & Bohn, 1971, p.25)

These definitions have two main concepts in common, namely 'worth' and 'desirability'. Certainly, the term is relatively abstract and enigmatic.

Collectively, the sum of values which an individual holds is termed a 'value system' (Sikula, 1973).
Work values derive their meaning from the general term values, or life values (Minton & Schneier, 1980, p.246). The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982, p.124) provides a grass-roots definition of the term 'work values'. 'Work' is defined as the 'result of action and achievement'.

As values have been defined in terms of 'work' and 'desirability', work values may be defined as the qualities which an individual places on an action or achievement which he considers worthy and desirable in a work context.

But, this is not enough. The following section will examine the nature of values as they relate to behaviour.

2.3 THE NATURE OF VALUES

One of the most comprehensive analyses of values comes from Milton Rokeach (Minton & Schneier, 1980 p.247). His research will be discussed as a basis for an understanding of the nature of values. Furthermore, additional aspects of values will be discussed as seen by various researchers in this field.

2.3.1 Rokeach

Values are defined by Rokeach as beliefs (Rokeach, 1979, p.5). For Rokeach, values involve knowledge about the means or ends considered to be desirable, they have some degree of affect or feeling, and if activated, lead to action. The
values referring to "modes of conduct" are called instrumental as they include broad concepts such as honesty, responsibility and courage.

The values referring to "end-states of existence" are called terminal values and would include concepts such as freedom, equality, a world at peace and inner harmony. Further delineation of Rokeach's theory shows that instrumental values might have a moral focus or a self-actualising focus. Terminal values focus both on personal elements and social elements. Examples of each of these foci are provided in Fig. 1. below, a diagramatic summary of Rokeach's basic theory of values.

![Diagram of Rokeach's theory of values]

*Figure 1. Rokeach's theory of values*
Rokeach's research into the two main types of values suggests that individuals hold at least 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values. Results of his study using the Value Survey are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>FEMALE</th>
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<td>7,8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10,0</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>An exciting life</td>
<td>14,6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15,8</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sense of accomplishment</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9,4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A world at peace</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
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<td>8,3</td>
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<td>6,1</td>
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<td>Happiness</td>
<td>7,9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7,4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>11,1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9,8</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>Mature love</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>Honest</td>
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<td>6,6</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Self-controlled</td>
<td>9,7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9,5</td>
<td>11</td>
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Table 1. Values of American men and women. (Adapted from Minton & Schneier, 1980, p.249)
The results in Table 1. indicate differences in males' and females' ranked order (R) of values. Differences are present, but there is also a great deal of similarity in the two sexes' choices. In fact, the ranked orders for both terminal and instrumental values are usually only 2 or 3 rank orders apart, and by exception, more.

Rokeach does not restrict the number of values to 18. He suggests that individuals may in fact hold more and that the classification of such values is open to change (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5).

The Rokeach Value Survey is widely used and accepted as being a useful instrument for measuring value systems. Following his research, Rokeach suggests some aspects of values which contribute to an understanding of values.

Rokeach (1973, p. 11) argues that terminal and instrumental values systems are separate but functionally connected. For example, certain types of behaviour (instrumental) would effect end-states of existence (terminal); murder might result in a disturbed state of inner harmony. There is a suggestion here of causality as the values ascribed to certain forms of behaviour impact on the goal or attainment of a terminal value.

Inherent in Rokeach's theory, is the assumption that values lead to behaviour. This assumption is challenged by other theorists who deny such a connection (Preston - Whyte, as quoted by Joubert, 1986, p. 8).
In addition, Rokeach states that a central function of values is to provide standards (Rokeach, 1973, p.13). Values serve as standards or criteria which guide not only action, but also judgement, choice, attitude, evaluation, exhortation and rationalisation. Seen in this light, values are core conceptions of the desirable within every individual and society. Also, values are seen to be separate from attitudes and interests, both of which also contain strong evaluative components but which are directed at specific objects, people or activities (Minton & Schneier, 1980, p.246).

Rokeach sees values as core elements or generic elements which transcend the specific. This view impacts on the individual and the organisation.

For example, an individual may regard negotiating with employee representatives as being unproductive - an attitude. The organisation may respect freedom of association and so facilitate the representation of its workforce - a value.

Values serve as a basis for judging our own conduct and behaviour of others (Feather, 1975, p.8). Robbin's (1983, p.51) suggests that values, in influencing decisions on what is right or wrong, also influence rationality and objectivity. By implication, individuals who do not have a defined value system may be irrational or subjective in the making of their decisions. This has important connotations for managers in organisations who need to understand the organisation's values.
The individual is predisposed towards certain styles of behaviour which would be in keeping with both his instrumental and terminal values. Rokeach (1973, p.49) states further that these values are culturally acquired, as culture is a profound shaper of a person's value system:

"If the words symbolising such a small number of core ideas eliminate..... individuals growing up in such a society would have no cross-situational standards by which to live...... and they would not know how to go about meeting societal demands about behaving competently or morally".

By logical extension, it follows from Rokeach that individuals growing up in different societies could either develop overlapping or divergent value systems. Similar values would result in similar modes of behaviour. However, disparate value systems would result in inappropriate behaviour, misunderstanding, mistrust and an inability to develop positive self-concepts.

As will be seen, value differences may also affect the individual's performance in organisations and development through the career stages.

2.3.2 Further aspects of the nature of values

Value systems cannot be ignored by the social scientist as the social sciences are inherently value laden (Oliver and Rogers, 1986). Values impact on class, race and nationality (Godsell, 1983, p.6), thus linking values to culture. Like
motives, values give rise to certain values or expectations (Feather, 1975, p.7). For example, money may be a strong incentive for people who assign a high priority to a 'comfortable life' in Rokeach's Value Survey.

Work values influence employees decisions to remain in a particular job or to move to a position which would suit that individual's value system (Hughes and Flowers, 1973).

Wakhlu (1986) states that, in the organisational context, the values of the organisation and those of the individual should be shared, if meaning is to be given to the organisation's activities.

2.4 WORK VALUES

Healy (1982, p.84) suggests that the blurring of means and ends in work values can create problems for society. He also states that "an adult who lacks values is deemed pathological" (Healy, 1982, p.84). Rokeach indirectly suggests that work values, like general life values are culturally defined. They define, maintain and regulate the visible or social structure, giving it meaning, stability and cohesion.

The Work Values Inventory, developed by Super (Super & Bohn, 1971, p.26) addresses itself specifically to work values or vocational values. It is developed for use in vocational counselling with high school students and adults. The inventory consists of 15 values:
Super's grouping of values includes intrinsic, extrinsic and competent qualities. Upper level occupations are inclined to be motivated by intrinsic values, or those that meet their needs for self-actualisation, whereas lower levels are apt to be more concerned with extrinsic value goals (Minton & Schneier, 1980, p.247). There is a correlation here with Maslow's need hierarchy, suggesting the link between values and needs. Similar lists of values have been designed by Eduard Spranger and Allport and Vernon (Super and Bohn, 1971, p.95).

Byham (1987) defines cultural values as "the attitudes, mind sets, beliefs and understanding that impact on how work is accomplished". He states further that cultural values determine how people behave at work. Byham suggests that cultural values can be changed by changing people's behaviour - not an easy process. Also, the individual's work values are not separated from societal influences - "racial and ethnic groups have traditional values that determine how their members view and perform their work" (Byham, 1987).

Byham suggests then, a link between the value systems in the environment and those in the work place. South Africa's 'environment' is politically and culturally divided and so organisations should recognise the
resulting diverse value systems and operate appropriately.

For instance, the applicability of the Protestant Work Ethic to the South African modern society is questionable and raises doubts as to the validity and reliability of value scales which measure this work value (Godsell 1983, p.113). There might well be other value systems which at this time have not been labelled or for which no measurement instruments exist.

2.5. INTERIM SUMMARY

Much has been written about the nature of values in general, and more specifically, work values. For clarification, it may be helpful to note what a value is not (Peterson, 1981, p.192).

- a value is not the same as a need as values rise from and create needs.
- values are not the same as goals as they are the criteria against which goals are chosen.
- a value is not the same as a belief - it is more than just a mere affirmation of a possibility as it involves commitment to action.
- a value is not the same as an attitude as attitudes lack the desire for the desirable and are specific.
- a value is not the same as a mere preference as it is a preference which can be morally justified.
The relationship between values and other determinants of behaviour is described in the following model. (Verwey & Fouche, 1987).

![Diagram](translated from Verwey & Fouche, 1987)

The model places values in the position from which other elements emanate, in other words, a core concept which is aimed at the desirable.

Can some conclusive statements about values be made? Perhaps not. However, researchers have identified some common ground to allow for some tentative statements to be made.
values are interdisciplinary.
values are conceptions of the desirable.
values are culturally based and defined.
values motivate and direct behaviour.
values serve as standards and evaluation criteria.
work values are derived from general 'life' values but they may not be mutually exclusive.
work values are influenced by the environment.

"In the final analysis, it is probably scientifically more fruitful to be concerned with the concept of psychological significance than with the question of the semantic meaning of values". (Rokeach, 1973, pp.50-51).

2.6 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES

There is a dearth of value studies in the South African context (Godsell, 1983). However, the importance of the cultural aspects of values have been outlined by international authors (Feather, 1975, pp. 194-198; England, 1978). It is incongruous that, in a country with as many diverse cultures as the Republic of South Africa, value studies have been neglected. Certainly, there are many reasons for this, including lack of definition, misunderstanding of the different cultures, and the absence of a single model applicable to the South African context (Godsell, 1983).

In addition, the available literature, mainly non-South African, does not lend itself to direct comparisons with the South African context.
Additional values with specific reference to blacks, have been identified in the South African context, and much research needs to be completed in order to verify the validity of these proposals (Godsell, 1983).

Values have been defined above as beliefs (Rokeach, 1973, p.5) and furthermore Feather (1975, p. 8) suggests that they are instrumental in providing standards to both the individual and to society as a whole. In the South African context, it has been suggested that there is a dichotomy between the values of the different cultural groups (Godsell, 1983). Coldwell & Moerdyk (1981) differentiated between First world - Third world orientations. In addition, the present political and socio-cultural situation in South Africa inhibits any reasonable and acceptable discussion on values. The plight of the black youth has been vividly documented in South African literature (Mohojane, 1987; Molebatsi, 1987, p.155).

"There is the emergency, and an emergency can exist in more ways than one. We are dying now. Therefore, our priorities tend to be determined by a sense of urgency, by the need to respond to a situation of ever present emergencies."

This political slant is commented on by Godsell (1981):

"the most noteworthy aspect .... was the interweaving of perceptions of racial discrimination with work values and perceptions of the work situation. To try to disentangle the desire for equality from other work values would be most difficult, and would indeed give a distorted view of respondent work values".
Nevertheless, these difficulties should not preclude research into this much neglected field; rather the need to investigate empirically the work values of blacks in the South African context should become a priority.

Godsell (1981) identified a number of work values which were elicited during group discussions (see Table 2 below).

--- TABLE 2 ---

| FINANCIAL NEEDS: | educate children; buy basic necessities; security in old age; equal pay for equal work. |
| HOURS AND WORKING CONDITIONS: | light work; congenial hours; adequate leave; time for extra-mural activities. |
| GROWTH THROUGH TRAINING AND WORK CHALLENGE: | education and upliftment for the Black worker; training for higher positions; challenging and interesting work. |
| EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIPS WITH MANAGEMENT: | fair supervision and discipline; no discrimination; consultation between management and employee. |
| RELATIONSHIPS WITH COLLEAGUES: | satisfaction from contact with colleagues; good relationships with other workers. |
| PERSONAL NEEDS: | to be respected; to have self-esteem; to be a worthwhile person; to keep busy; to help others; job satisfaction. |

---

Table 2. Values elicited during group discussions (Godsell, 1981)
As a pilot study, this research indicated that there were significant value differences between the expectations of the younger generation of black workers and those of their older, maturer colleagues. In a more comprehensive study, Godsell (1983) embarked on a cross-cultural comparison between the work values of the heterogeneous population in South Africa. Different methods of data collection were utilised, namely group discussion, open-ended questions and a semantic differential questionnaire. Given this multi-method approach, the results indicated that such an approach was efficacious as it allowed participants the opportunity to discover their own values in different ways. Godsell (1983) concludes:

"there appear to be no significant differences in conceptions of the desirable relating to work.....".

These findings would suggest that Coldwell & Moerdyk's (1981) First-Third world differences seem to be overstated. Godsell (1983) identified the importance of the value of Ubuntu, described as humaneness. This particular value was more evident in the black cultures and, although not reliable for all black employees, certainly

"emerged as a concept which separated black from white subjects".

Orpen (1978) found differences in the work values between westernised and tribal black supervisors. Westernised black supervisors were found to identify with the Protestant Work Ethic whilst the more tribalised black supervisors exhibited less acceptance of this Ethic.
Godsell (1983, p.118) suggests that this study should be "treated with some caution", owing to the possibility of the scales being culturally biased.

Watson and van Aarde (1986) tested the career maturity of some six hundred South African Coloured male and female high school pupils and compared results with those of their American peers. The study showed inter alia, that socio-economic status is significantly related to attitudinal career maturity. Coloured adolescents from the upper socio-economic group were shown to be attitudinally more career mature than those from the lower socio-economic group. Although limited by the measurement instrument and the sample size, the study comments on the importance of socio-economic factors. This reflects again the influence of the environment on such aspects as values and personality and its influence on groups and individuals both within and outside the organisation.

Afrikaans-speaking university students' values were measured by Vervey and Fouche (1987) and compared to a similar study by Rokeach. Significant correlations were reported for terminal values of students in U.S.A., Canada, Australia and the Afrikaans speaking students. Instrumental values also correlated significantly with those of students in the above countries, as well as Israeli students' instrumental values. The study also reported no agreement in value preferences between Afrikaans speaking male and female students.

Flowers (1988) measured the influence of sex and ethnicity on work values and found "that groups meeting in the work place show corresponding work values". The sample of 303 included men and women in Black, White, Asian and Coloured population groups. Some differences
in work values are reported between population groups, namely, in work pride and attitudes to wages. Whites also ascribed a lower value to remuneration than did the other groups, and Flowers suggests that this is related to needs (Maslow) rather than values (Protestant Ethic).

No significant work value differences are exhibited between males and females. In sum, the research shows that there are more similarities between the work values of the various groups than there are differences.

This is a significant finding. It is partly contradicted by the differences shown to exist in the Vervey and Fouché (1987) study, but support the work of Godsell (1983).

Dorfling (1987) analysed South African business leaders' value systems and related these to organisational culture. The study reflects the importance of values, in this instance, those of the Managing Director in giving direction to the organisation. The values of the leader in the organisation are transcribed to strategies which impact upon employees in the organisation. These strategies, shown to be imbued with the leaders' value system, impact then on the employees' value system. Naturally, if the value systems are congruent, then the organisation may operate more smoothly than if there were value conflicts. In the latter case, organisations attempt to socialise the individual to bring about more similar value systems.
2.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although value systems in South Africa would seem to be converging, there are still significant differences in the work value systems of black and white South African's, particularly at the earlier stages in their careers. Local research has indicated differences but the current available research is too limited to indicate significant differences.

What is apparent is that there are many similarities between the work values of the various population groups in South African organisations. These similarities outweigh the differences. This does not imply that the differences should be ignored, rather, as they are small they deserve particular attention and recognition.

The environment plays an important role in influencing individual's values, especially so in the local context.

The organisation's value system impacts on the individual and influences his performance. The impact on the individuals' career development through the career stages will be discussed in the following chapter.

The cultural diversity of the South African society requires that values research is conducted, as the nature of values is particularly applicable to the South African society and of relevance to South African organisation both now and particularly in the future.
Values can be researched in many ways and on many levels, in a variety of areas and contexts and with different objectives and motives (Joubert, 1986, p.181). What is certain is that values must be researched. In the meantime, values as we understand the term, must be recognised and accommodated.
3. CAREER STAGES

3.1 PURPOSE

The study of career takes on a very different orientation depending on whether it is viewed from the perspective of the organisation or the individual. From the organisational point of view, management attempts to direct its employees to ensure the right type of employees in the right jobs at the right time. Individuals on the other hand, are bent on achieving their own career goals as they develop through the organisation.

The progress of the individual in the organisation can best be described in terms of a succession of stages, known as career stages. Most individuals begin to form concepts of their chosen careers at school. These choices are validated or refined as they enter an organisation and grow with that organisation or through a number of work experiences with different organisations.

This chapter deals with the concept of career stages. Its purpose is to provide an overview of the concept of career stages. This goal is achieved by discussing:

- the major theories relating to career stages.

- the identification of the critical areas in an individual's career.
the applicability of career stage models in the South African context.

An understanding of the stages through which individuals develop will facilitate discussion of the major developmental tasks which the individual confronts as he develops. The way in which he copes with these issues impacts on both the individual and the organisation.

3.2 THE NATURE OF CAREER STAGES

There are many models and theories of occupational choice and career development (Hoppock, 1986, p.69; Adler and Aranya, 1984). Theories date back to 1909 when Parsons introduced a three-stage scientific approach to vocational counselling (Scott, 1983). Ginzberg, Ginsberg, Axelrad and Herma (Shertzer, 1981, p.65) published the first systematic theory of vocational behaviour which was based on developmental life stage (Scott, 1983). Numerous theories have followed, including those of Super, Schein, Hall and more recently Dalton, Thompson, & Price.

Career stage theory assumes that individuals change as they grow older and accumulate experiences in their work and non-work lives (Adler et al, 1984). The theories also presuppose that individuals' needs change and the accruing expectations result in differing behaviours (Healy, 1982, p.35; Adler, et al, 1984). Usually assumed by career stage theory is the de facto increase in performance through the initial stages of career development (Mount, 1984). Responsibility for an individual's development through the stages - quite apart from the biosocial progression - rests with both the individual and the organisation.
The concept of career stages serves a number of important functions, important both to the individual and to the organisation.

For the individual, an understanding of concept of career stages enables him to realise that movement through a career is planned and systematic. Developmental steps need to be recognised and realised if the individual wishes to grow in his career. Possibly, a more important consequence for the individual is the fact that an understanding of career stages will help him to anticipate possible frustrations. These frustrations might arise at any particular stage, whether the individual's development follows that of a theoretical stage or not.

For the organisation, an understanding of career stages facilitates the operation of the Human Resources function. Recruitment and selection, socialisation, training and development, succession planning, retirement and employee motivation policies can all benefit from a realisation of the change process through the career stages.

The concept of career stages should not be seen in isolation, but should always be seen against the background of an understanding of the individual differences which might contribute to productivity and job satisfaction.

The nature of existing career stage theories leads to confusion (Dalton et al, 1979). They suggest that the typical four or five stage model assumes that individuals will move up in the pyramid which represents the organisation. The pyramidal model itself has failed to take cognizance of changing needs in organisations. Models or theories based on matrix structures still need to be developed.
Career stages have been linked to various areas of vocational behaviour. The most natural link of career stages is that to job satisfaction. Mount (1984) measured the job satisfaction of 483 Managers in different career stages. He found that managers in the initial or establishment stage were significantly more satisfied than those in the later maintenance stages. Mount used a three-stage theory rather than the more traditional four or five stage models.

Career stage research has been linked to work commitment (Morrow and McElroy, 1987), attitudes (Adler and Aranya, 1984) and performance (Slocum and Cron, 1985).

The nature of work itself, the motivation of the individual and the structure of the organisation together with its size and geographical location are but a few of the many factors influencing an individual's progression through the career stages. Thus, linking the concept of career stages to a single criterion renders the research result tenuous.

An understanding of these career stages is imperative for both the individual and the organisation as long as that understanding is based on an examination of the many influences on the individual's development.

3.3 CAREER STAGE THEORIES

3.3.1 Research

During 1976 - 1985, only 9.7% of research in the main themes of Vocational Psychology were related
to career development (Schmidt, 1986, p.164). Career stage research represented 30% of the career development related fields, the highest in this category (Schmidt, 1986, p.167).

These statistics suggest that although the topic of career stages is recognised as an important research area, the general research field of career development is poorly represented.

In research on individual special groups, 60% relates to women and only 10% to Blacks (Schmidt, 1986, p.169).

In summary, research on career stages is available although sparse. Research in career stages and South African Blacks is negligible.

### 3.3.2 Classification of Theories

Most of the major theories of career development can be categorised into two groups:

- those which emphasise factors or processes at work during the individual's career, and
- those which view the career as a lifelong accumulation of career choices or processes.

Into the former group fall the theories of Roe (1958) and Holland (1966) who have concentrated on an analysis of relationships between a number of factors.
The theories of Ginzberg (1951), Super (1953) and Hall (1966) fall into the latter category. They see career choice as a sequence of events or stages spread over the lifetime of the individual, a developmental approach.

Table 3. proposes a classification of some of the research relating to occupational choice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEORIES OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROCESS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEVELOPMENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super (1953)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hall (1966)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Havighurst (1964)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalton, Thompson &amp; Price (1977)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiedeman, O'Hara &amp; Baruch (1963)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erickson (1963)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schein (1971)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miller &amp; Form (1951)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERSONALITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roe (1958)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland (1966)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHANCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caplow (1954)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERSONAL NEED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoppock (1976)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Theories of occupational choice
The focus of this chapter is on the developmental models. Only certain of these theories will be described. The discussion does not serve as an exhaustive summary of the theory, rather, its purpose is to briefly outline the theory so as to facilitate understanding of the relationship with work values and socialisation in further chapters.

The key stages and developmental tasks are summarised in the accompanying figures. Additional discussion on particular theories is restricted in some cases to the entry and immediately subsequent stage.

The reason for this is that the organisation's socialisation efforts peak during these stages and so this has a bearing on the later discussion in this paper.

3.3.3 Super

In 1953, Donald Super formulated a theory of vocational development derived from both differential psychology and developmental psychology (Super & Bohn, 1971, p.1).

Essentially, Super's theory can be summarised by focussing on the major constructs.

- Super proposes a career model for an understanding of a person's vocational preferences. Holland (1976, p.535) indicates that this view leads to career counselling rather than position counselling, that is to "predicting career rather than occupational success".
Drawing on developmental psychology and particularly Ginzberg et al., Super pointed out that vocational development begins early in life and proceeds along a continuum until late in life (Super & Bohn, 1971, p.135).

He proposed 5 stages corresponding to life stages, summarised below in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGES</th>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>CHARACTERISTICS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>GROWTH</td>
<td>1 - 14</td>
<td>Development of the self-concept under influence of key figures in family and school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fantasy</td>
<td>(4 - 10)</td>
<td>Satisfaction of needs and fantasy experiences in early stage; definition of interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>interests</td>
<td>(11 - 12)</td>
<td>and later focus on personal abilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>(13 - 14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>EXPLORATION</td>
<td>15 - 24</td>
<td>School activities, role explorations and even part-time work result in self-examination. Work-related choices/aspirations made during tentative stage by exploring values, interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>transition</td>
<td>(16 - 21)</td>
<td>needs and opportunities. Self-concept is tested in labour market as first permanent trial. work is formed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trial</td>
<td>(22 - 24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ESTABLISHMENT</td>
<td>25 - 44</td>
<td>Attempts are made to concretise position in an appropriate field, with or without trial. Changing jobs might be necessary to find life work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stabilisation</td>
<td>(31 - 44)</td>
<td>Career pattern picture evolves at end of stage and individual seeks entrenchment and security.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creative phase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>MAINTENANCE</td>
<td>45 - 64</td>
<td>Consolidation of chosen field and position. Development along established lines with little innovation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>DECLINE</td>
<td>65 -</td>
<td>Deterioration of mental and physical capacities. Role change through retirement. Alternative occupations sought to replace full-time activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deceleration</td>
<td>(65 - 70)</td>
<td>Period of intense adjustments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>retirement</td>
<td>(71 - )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Super's career stages (adapted from Super & Bohn, 1971, pp.136-137)
According to Super, an occupation makes it possible for each of us to play a role appropriate to our self-concept (Shertzer, 1981, p.267). Self-concept is dynamic as it changes constantly. As skill levels develop, we alter our self-concepts and seek work to suit those self-concepts.

Parental socio-economic levels influence the individual's career pattern (sequence of career experiences) (Super & Bohn, 1971, p.142). Also impacting on career patterns is mental ability, personality and the opportunities to which the individual is exposed (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981, p.230).

Super suggests that work satisfaction (and consequently, life satisfaction) depends on the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his/her abilities, interests, personality traits and values (Super & Bohn, 1971, pp.145-146).

Stage 2, the Exploration stage is subdivided by Super to include the job seeking activities, crystallisation of aspirations and entry into the labour market. It is in the latter period of this stage that the adolescent is exposed to the labour market. Here, his aspirations are tempered with reality as he discovers the vagaries of the public world. Decisions must be made regarding vocational choice and whether or not to change to another job more congruent with the individual's interest, ability and values (Super & Bohn, 1971, pp.138-139).
The Exploration stage continues until the mid twenties or Young Adulthood (Super & Bohn, 1971, p.134). Activities during this segment of the Exploration stage, prior to Establishment stage, includes the commitment to an occupation modified by early experiences at work.

3.3.4 Havighurst (1964)

Havighurst proposed a vocational developmental model as a lifelong process (Gibson & Mitchell, 1981, p.232). His theory suggests 6 stages, as shown in Figure 5. The theory is similar to that of life stages. People at any age must perform age-appropriate tasks. Success at one stage leads to success at the next (Holland, 1976, p.535).

In Havighurst's model, the individual encounters the organisation in Stage 3, acquiring identity as a worker in the occupational structure.

The actions of choosing and preparing for occupations is central to this stage as well as the initial work experiences, namely through part-time work. This would provide a basis for occupational choice. The individual in this stage is concerned with providing a sound basis for economic independence. This solid foundation is necessary before moving onto stages 4 and 5 where the individual masters the skills in his chosen occupation.
Hall and Nougaim formulated a career stage model having studied managers at AT & T (Hall, 1976, p.54). They discovered that young managers had different needs during their careers and that these needs corresponded with existing career stage models.

The stages identified by Hall & Nougaim are identified by Hall (1976, p.55) as:
- pre-work
- establishment
- advancement
- maintenance
- retirement

Hall's research provides us with a summary of the major theories, excluding Erikson's life stages (Hall, 1976, p.57). This summary is diagrammatically represented in Figure 3.
3.3.6 

Erikson's Life Stages

Eric Erikson has developed a life-stage approach, based on eight stages. Erikson's approach is clinically based; yet certain stages can be considered relevant to an overview of career stage theories. Many other theorists drew on Erikson's work, including Super, Hall and Levinson (Burack, 1984).

For Erikson, each stage is characterised by a particular developmental task which the individual must work through before advancing into the following stage (Hall, 1976, p.48).

Table 5. below summarises the eight stages and includes the more important characteristics of each stage.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>CHARACTERISTICS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Childhood</td>
<td>1 - 4</td>
<td>0 - 15 yrs</td>
<td>Oral, anal, genital and latency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16 - 24</td>
<td>Focus on ego identification often with role confusion and inability to establish an occupational identity; search for values and role models and testing of various possibilities (identify or life purpose).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young adulthood</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25 - 39</td>
<td>Features intimacy and involvement as the person is ready to fuse identity with others or to commit to affiliations or institutions, including a work organisation. Commitment may involve major personal sacrifices or and compromises. Personal conflict involves the implied trade-offs between the sense of identity and autonomy (gained in stage 5) with involvement and commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adulthood</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>40 - 64</td>
<td>A primary concern with establishing and guiding the next generation. The forms that this concern takes vary, depending on personal competencies and life situation. Possibilities include: creative writing and mentoring and building a business for one's children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>Satisfaction with and acceptance of one's life's pattern and activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Table 5. Erikson's life stages
(Burack, 1984)
For Erikson, the adolescence period which he categorised as stage no. 5, is characterised by the central task of developing a sense of ego identity (Hall, 1976, p.48). Developing individuals are particularly aware of peer opinions and search for values and role models. The major danger during this stage is that of role confusion, particularly if the individual's values are challenged or he is forced to act or behave in a manner inconsistent with his values (Hall, 1976, p.49).

3.3.7 Levinson (1978)

Working from a psychodynamic perspective, Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKees, developed a career stages theory in which adults develop through age-appropriate activities (Healy, 1982, p.477)

Levinson et al studied the careers of forty men between the ages of thirty-five and forty-five. Subjects were seen six to ten times during a two-three month period and followed up upon three months later.

The theory is based on a number of ideas:

- adults periodically are faced with largely predictable developmental tasks
- these represent major challenges in adulthood
adulthood itself can be described as a series of stages in which structures are developed and adapted as conditions change.

A flaw is often the legacy of a past period and must be worked out in subsequent stages (Burach, 1984).

These stages and the major implications for the individual are illustrated in Table 6. In a similar vein to Erikson, Levinson proposes that the period in which an individual enters the organisational arena is during the early adult transition period. Like Erikson, Levinson suggests that peer relationships are critical, particularly peer support. This support is necessary as the individual has left the family and has reduced familial dependents.

The search for security and establishment is highlighted in stage 2. Characteristic of Levinson's model is the transition periods at stages 3 and 5. These periods are suggested as periods in which the individual adjusts and reassesses the earlier developments and prepares himself for further development. Levinson's career stages are closely linked to life cycles.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGES</th>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>APPROXIMATE AGE</th>
<th>HIGHLIGHTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Early adult transition</td>
<td>18 - 22</td>
<td>Leave family. Reduce familial dependence. Peer support critical. Transitional mechanisms come into play, e.g., college, military, first job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Movement into adult world; structure building</td>
<td>23 - 28</td>
<td>Attempt to establish secure position. Search or self-examination. Tentative commitments to adult roles, responsibilities and relations. Erect occupational and social structures. Mentoring critical. Guides for planning and future actions are provided by one's vision of future possibilities and one's desires.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Transition</td>
<td>28 - 32</td>
<td>Incomplete development or flaws from earlier periods recognized. Reworking or restructuring to correct shortcomings. Great personal instability with job and marriage changes common. Re-examination of personal and occupational attachments. Major occupational changes are not common. Seek deeper relationships and commitments with family, work, organization and other valued group. Desire for greater orderliness and control of factors affecting personal and professional life. Attempts to (further) realise the dreams, visions and idealisations of past periods. Push to achieve career highs, become one's own person. Search for tangible signs of recognition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Setting down and future structuring</td>
<td>33 - 40</td>
<td>Movement from young to middle adulthood stage. (Re)assessment of accomplishments and shortfalls in terms of ambitions and the future visualised in earlier stages. Confrontation with one's finite life span and realisation of aging. Challenge to get in touch with one's self, start on path to self-acceptance in light of realities of accomplishments and shortfalls or inadequacies. Greater focus on the here and now. mid-40's: Crystallising of individuality. Greater sense of reality about what one possesses and less emphasis on competition or occupational hill climbing. Greater desire to enjoy one's own life and work. Further manifestations of self-acceptance and internal rather than external values. Assumption of mentoring job. Successful combination of attachment and concern for others with potential for improved capabilities (as the need for the latter arises).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Levinson's adult career stages. (Burack, 1984)
"The essence of the career development perspective is its focus on the interaction of the individual and the organisation over time"

(Schein, 1978, p.2).

Schein describes his theory of career development from two separate perspectives as the quotation above describes. Firstly, the individual's career is described by the individual's movement through the organisation. Secondly, Schein describes the organisational perspective involving policies and expectations regarding the movement of such individuals (Hall, 1976, p.59).

Schein developed his theory under the influence of the major developmental career stage theorists, including those discussed in this paper (Schein, 1978, p.37).

Schein identified a model of organisational career passages, based on the cone-like shape of an organisation (See Figure 4.).
Figure 4. A three-dimensional model of an organisation
(Schein, 1971)

The three dimensions of the cone represent three types of moves the person can make in the organisation:

Vertical: moving up or down means changing one's rank or level in the organisation.

Radial: moving inside the system, becoming more central, part of the inner circle, and acquiring more influence in the system.
Circumferential: transferring laterally to a different function, programme or product in the organisation.

There are three types of boundaries which correspond to each type of movement.

Hierarchical: these separate the hierarchical levels from each other.

Inclusion: these separate individual groups who differ in the degree of their centrality.

Functional or Departmental: these separate departments, or different functional groupings from each other. (Schein, 1978, pp.37 -39).

As mentioned above, Schein places much emphasis on the individual and therefore relating the career stages to the biosocial stage is a logical step for him. Table 7 summarises the seven stages highlighted by Schein (1978, pp.40 - 46).
SCHEIN'S BASIC CAREER STAGES IN AN ORGANISATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>ORIENTATION, ACTIVITIES AND PROCESSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (a)</td>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>Schooling, preparation, formation of initial ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recruitment</td>
<td>Search, recruitment, pre-employment processing, hiring, orientation, initial exposure to rites of entry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training, Indoctrination</td>
<td>Informal and formal training, indoctrination, exposure to socialisation processes with varying degrees of acceptance by peers and other members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To the extent the person is accepted, he or she gains organisational status and encounters further rites of passage.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>First regular assignment (new organisation member)</td>
<td>Functional/departmental assignment with responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Substages (varying degrees in subsequent assignments)</td>
<td>Indoctrination into subunit's standards for personal conduct, behaviours and procedures: acceptance or rejection of person by immediate super group, associates and other business contacts. Degree of socialising and informal learning affected by acceptance of peers and associates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) Job learning and performance adequacy</td>
<td>Self-test of knowledge, skills and abilities relative to job needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Performance sophistication and efficiency</td>
<td>Response to organisation as business and social unit and identification with people, unit or enterprise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b2) Preparation for mobility of promotion (building critical knowledge, skills and abilities)</td>
<td>Recognition of job as test of one's need for personal growth and judgement of extent to which this can be attained through assignment or organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Performance peak, leveling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(d) Potential for change and obsolescence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Redirection (possible)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Subsequent assignment(s) and substages</td>
<td>Potential to further legitimise status and position, achieve full acceptance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If person remains in the organisation</td>
<td>Various processes of step 3 repeated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Granting or tenure seen as permanent member or senior citizen.</td>
<td>Passage into other organisation status groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Focus on retirement elder statesman/citizen</td>
<td>Consider pre- and post-organisation life alternatives after exit, mate's plans, economic needs and status and location desires and realities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Commitment to retirement without portfolio</td>
<td>Exit preparations, exit rites, preparations for post-company living.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Schein's basic career stages in an organisation
(Adapted from Schein, 1971 and Burack, 1984)
Essentially, Schein brings to the field of developmental career stages an in-depth understanding of the individual, his biosocial life cycle and the interweaving relationships with his family. For Schein, the dynamics of the question of careers lies in the interaction between the individual and the organisation (Schein, 1978, p.81). These particular dynamics will be discussed in detail in further chapters, but are mentioned here for completeness:

- entry into the organisational career
- socialisation and learning to work
- mutual acceptance (psychological contract)
- career anchors

Schein's basic approach is that the dynamic of career experience is related the "rites of passage" theories and are central to his analyses. Schein suggests too, that the individual's movement through the organisation rests on the ideas of realistic expectations and an understanding of the organisational culture. This leads him to the discussion on socialisation and innovation, the former of which will be covered in later chapters (Schein, 1978, pp.81 - 110).

Table 7. represents Schein's career stages and indicates that the individual's contact with the organisation begins in the latter portion of stage 1, Entry. It is at this stage that the individual is exposed to the
values of the organisation as well as the induction, training and socialisation processes (Schein, 1978, p.81). Certainly, the influence which the organisation exerts on the individual continues into stage 2 (and in fact throughout his career) as the individual completes the rights of passage and is either accepted or not accepted as a member of the organisation.

During the entry stage, the individual is faced with a number of developmental tasks.

Task 1: Making a preliminary occupational choice.

Task 2: Developing a viable image of the occupational organisation which serves as an outlet for one's talents, values and ambitions.

Task 3: Preparing oneself for a career through anticipatory socialisation, in order to adopt attitudes and values appropriate for success.

Task 4: Finding a first job.

3.3.9 Dalton, Thompson and Price (1977)

A more recent theory on the performance by professionals as related to career stages has been proposed by Dalton et al (Dalton et al, 1979). The authors concentrated their attention on the career paths of professional people, particularly technical specialists who were promoted to management positions as a method of reward rather than based on competence (Dalton et al, 1979, p.138). The career stages are divided into four phases, namely apprenticeship, self-dependance, mentor and senior management stages (Dalton et al, 1979, p.140).

The stages, their characteristics and critical activities central to those stages are summarised in Table 8.

This career stage model is innovative as it suggests that individuals can develop outside the parameters laid down by the standard career model. The authors question, for instance, whether or not their data will predict that a person who skips a stage will be a failure (Dalton et al, 1979, p.152).
The responses to this question obtained from interviews suggest that managers who might not have developed through stage one report that they were successful regardless of the fact they have not moved "classically" through the stages. In addition, the model does not imply that successful people are only those who have progressed to stage 4. Rather, the authors suggest that people in all 4 stages "make an important contribution to the organisation" (Dalton et al, 1979, p.152).

The value of the model lies in its presentation of career stages as an indicator for various activities related to Human Resources Management. The planning which is associated with a longitudinal view of career stages impacts on areas such as performance appraisal and career development, manpower planning, the management of dual careers, and the allocation of job assignments (Dalton et al, 1979, pp.155-158).
## DALTON’S CAREER STAGES AND THE DEVELOPING TECHNICAL-PROFESSIONAL CAREER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE</th>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>CHARACTERISTICS</th>
<th>CRITICAL ACTIVITIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Apprenticeship</td>
<td>Close supervision, work assignments parts of larger projects, acceptance of direction, exercise of initiative/creativity within well-defined area, learning by observation</td>
<td>Adjustment to dependence, self-discipline for detail, show initiative potential, develop good relationship with mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Self-dependence</td>
<td>Assume responsibility for definable portion of project, relative independence, results identified with person, develop credibility, reputation</td>
<td>Demonstrate capacity for professional work and increase visibility, avoid over-specialisation, develop relations with peers, rely less on mentor, supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mentor</td>
<td>Affect others' careers and development, broaden technical skills</td>
<td>Achieve self-confidence, achievement ability to be unthreatened by success, deal more with external environment, accept responsibility for others, roles may include: informal mentor, idea person/small group leader, supervisor/manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>Assume significant organisational responsibility and direction, achieve orientation to external and internal environment</td>
<td>Outside contacts, delegation to subordinates, proactive rather than reactive, sponsor and develop promising employees, roles may include: idea innovator, internal entrepreneur, upper level manager</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Dalton et al - career stages
(Burack, 1984)

Certainly, the field of research for the model involved technical and professional people. However, the broader implications should not be seen to be restricted to those fields, but contribute valuably to the general discussion on career stages.
In order to organise the review of the major theories, Figure 5. compares the discussed theories by plotting the stages against a common age scale. The adult and career development models reviewed above share a number of features (Campbell & Heffernan, 1983, p.226):

- individual development is sequential through a number of stages, each of which features a number of development tasks or characteristics.

- progression through the stages is contingent on success in the previous stage.

- development stages are generalisable to a degree as they are linked to ages (except Dalton et al).

- social and psychological tasks are addressed by Erickson, Havinghurst and Levinson.

- career aspects are highlighted by Super, Schein, Hall and Dalton et al.

- tasks do not cater for differences in race, sex, social class or occupational level.

The literature seems to indicate that four major phases take place during the developmental cycle:
exploration and entry (birth - 25)
establishment and movement (25 - 45)
mid and later career (45 - 65)
retirement (66 -)

(Schullman & Carder, 1983, p.150).

Both the individual and the organisation face some critical issues during these periods and discussion below will centre on some of the more relevant issues which need to be addressed during these periods. The discussion will concentrate on the issues pertaining to work values during the stages.

3.3.10.1 Entry

The entry phase is characterised by a lack of information on the part of the individual regarding the organisation and vice versa. During the pre-entry stage, the organisation utilises a number of selection methods in order to reduce the risk of a mismatch between the individual and the organisation. Mismatches can cause difficult career development problems for the individual, and costly turnover, poor productivity and lack of potential management talent for the organisation. Psychologically, the stage is characterised by the term 'getting into the adult world' and requires the individual to adjust his behaviour to suit the new environments.
Erikson and Levinson agree that individuals who do not establish an initial identity at this stage may suffer from 'role confusion' or an inability to focus on a career which is best suited to their talents, values and interests (Oppler, 1984). Confronted by new values, it is crucial for the individual at this stage to be in a position to access his own value system so as to allow him to formulate 'conceptions of the desirable' career path he may wish to follow. If the individual cannot align his value system to the organisations at this stage, this may then result in the lack of focus mentioned above.

Erikson (Table 5.) suggests further that during this period of young adulthood, the individual is ready to fuse his identity with that of others and to commit himself to affiliations or institutions. This implies that where the values of the individual and the organisation clash, there is a willingness on the individual's part to accommodate other value systems. More so than at any other stage, the individual here is more prepared to accommodate disparate values.

Super (Table 4.) suggests that the self-concept of the individual is tested in the labour market as the individual enters initial employment. An understanding of his makeup and self-concept will assist the individual towards self-actualisation and allow him to play a meaningful role in the organisation.
3.3.10.2 Establishment

Levinson (Table 6.) describes this stage as the settling down (SD) stage. It is during this period that the individual seeks deeper relationships and commitments with family, work, organisation and other valued groups. There is also a desire for greater orderliness and control of factors affecting the individual in both his personal and professional life. Super (Table 4.) suggests that the individual's career pattern picture begins to evolve during this stage as he seeks entrenchment and security. Schein (1971) suggests that this stage indicates movement through the hierarchical boundary i.e. up in the organisation. Furthermore the individual may move functionally, i.e. rotationally. What is significant during this period is that the individual has either adopted or adapted to the organisation's values and has been socialised into the ways and means of the company. Conversely, the individual might not have identified with the values of the organisation and may continue to work in an unproductive, underperforming manner.

This should be a period of rapid advancement (Oppler, 1984). Value conflict is likely to occur at this stage as the individual seeks to balance the values he places on the development of his career and the role he might have to play in a family situation.
If indeed the individual is advancing in the organisation, then he might need to deal with strong feelings of rivalry and competition with peers.

Robbins (1983, p.256) suggests that it is during this period that the individual makes mistakes and learns from these mistakes and that gradually increased responsibility assists his development.

As the individual's performance increases, Levinson (Burack, 1984) suggests that the individual enters a stage characterised by 'becoming one's own man' (BOOM). The individual's career pattern evolves at the end of this stage and the individual becomes liable for promotion.

This period is also characterised by internal conflict and self-doubt, particularly if the individual has failed to reach his aim. The so called mid-life crises or career plateauing describes the levelling off of an individuals performance during this period.

3.3.10.3 Mid and Late Careers

Individuals in the latter part of mid career maintenance stage have prepared for and established themselves in an occupation. Focus on this stage is on stabilisation and entrenching one's position in the organisation. If the individual has been
successful in the transition period immediately prior to the maintenance stage, then the responsibilities and rewards in this stage are probably at their greatest. Erickson (Burack, 1984) characterises the individual's primary concern during this period with establishing and guiding the next generation.

If the individual has not developed successfully through the mid career obstacles, then there is a realisation in this stage that their impact on the organisation will be minimal. Non-work activities might assume more importance than it did in the earlier years. Planning for retirement is a major task facing the individual during this period. Adjustment to retirement has been shown to be positive where individuals have engaged in pre-retirement planning (Schullman and Carder, 1983, p.171).

3.3.10.4 Retirement (66 - )

Traditionally, organisations agree on a retirement age and this is a major transition period for the individual. It may be seen as a beginning or an end. In the former case, individuals are free to pursue interests which until now had to be shelved.

Erikson (Burack, 1984) suggests that this is a time of satisfaction with an acceptance of one's life pattern and activities.
However, if it is viewed negatively, the role change through retirement can be traumatic. Super (Super & Bohn, 1971, p.140) suggests that this is a period of intense adjustments as the individual is divorced from an activity which formed a large part of his identify. This period does not preclude the individual from playing an active role in areas other than the organisation and it also does not signify the end of career planning activities.

The individual's passage through his working experience is fraught with opportunities and constraints. An overview of the career stages allows the individual to gain a deep awareness of his own values, talents, skills and interests in an effort to develop his self concept. Prior knowledge of the pitfalls and careful planning should guide the individual successfully through his life in the working environment.

3.4 SHORTCOMINGS OF CAREER STAGE MODELS

Although there are many advantages associated with an understanding of the career stages, there are some limitations for which there must be recognition and compensation.

3.4.1 Career stage models are simplistic in that the individual's development through the organisation has been determined by a number of developmental tasks.
Both individuals and organisations are complex bodies and the interrelationships cannot fully be described or appreciated by career stage models. Whilst it is recognised that the intention of the models is not to provide comprehensive guidelines, it should still be stated that other processes impact on the individual's development in his career.

3.4.2 Research in the area of career stages is limited. "Career stage conceptualisation would benefit from efforts at theory construction". (Morrow and McElory 1987). Research is needed in the career stage development of women and blacks.

3.4.3 The existence of career stage models has created a "catch - 22" situation. Individuals who do not comply with the traditional models and who, for instance, develop through the stages at an accelerated pace, might be held back by organisations who traditionally adhere to standard career stage models. There is thus, a measure of conformity through the generalisation of the career stage model.

3.4.4 The career stage model assumes a stable economy. High unemployment, economic depression will distort the stages in career development as individuals may experience frustration and not be able to make adjustments or career changes during these periods.
Other social, political and cultural issues may also impact similarly on the development of an individual through the organisation. These environmental issues tend to distort the career stages and new patterns of development arise.

It is suggested that the value of career stage models far outweighs the disadvantages of using them. The applicability of career stage models in the South African context will be discussed in the following section where certain of the shortcomings will be again discussed.

3.5 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES

The question arises as to whether or not the theories on career stages are applicable to the South African situation.

Unfortunately, the answer to this question is racially bound as the races are separated from birth into situations which are critical to the clear formation of career concepts and later development.

Firstly, let us consider the position of the white employee in the South African organisation. It has been suggested above that family and friends form role models for adolescents during this exploration stage as adolescents seek well clarification regarding their choices for careers. In the white society, there are an adequate number of positive roles in industry as whites dominate the professions and management positions in the country. Career conceptualisation then should not be a concern for white adolescents.
In addition, sound educational infrastructures facilitate the placement of whites into the labour market as well as additional factors such as the shortage of skilled labour and the diminishing white population. The white employees' passage through the organisation is not hindered by any extraneous factors and it is suggested that the career stage models, largely researched in the United States of America, are applicable to the white South African employee.

This is not the case with the other races. Role models in the black community have not been in an abundance in the past, although the situation is rapidly changing. With education in a dire state in the black society (Chapter 5) inadequate facilities exist for the guidance of pupils in any given career direction.

These two factors must impact on the ability of the black individual to reach some sort of self-concept regarding his work opportunities. Combined with the fact that South Africa suffers from high unemployment, black work seekers are suggested to be inadequately prepared for entry into organisations. The problem however does not end here. Once in the organisation, the black employee is faced with a largely white management contingency - in 1984, whites held 95% of managerial positions in Sullavan signatory companies, whilst blacks held the remaining 5% (Sebesho, 1984). It is suggested that movement in the organisation may be impeded because of this imbalance. Certainly, inclusive or movement to the centre of the organisation (Schein, 1971) is made more difficult because of the imbalance in the organisation hierarchical composition, compounded by the fact that employees in South African organisations return at night to culturally diverted and socially distanced environments.
Sebesho (1984) suggests that even the amounts of money spent on training in Sullivan signatory companies was in favour of the Whites whilst the blacks are being disadvantaged in this area.

It should be recognised that this study is restricted to Sullivan signatory organisations, which excludes many of the other larger multi-nationals and local organisations. In any event, the impact of sanctions has forced many of these organisations to change their identities, and it is suggested that if such disinvestment has prepared the way for more effective black advancement programmes, then they have served a worthwhile purpose.

For the black employee in the South African organisation, the career stage models do not clearly reflect the passage of an individual through the organisation. Rather, it is suggested that the career stage model is somewhat distorted for Black employees.

Further research is needed to investigate the distortions and the causes.

There is some merit however in exposing black employees to the concept of career stages whether or not traditionally they have followed career stage models or not. Firstly, the organisation operates in a certain context and this is usually in the context in which career stage development is conceptualised in the traditional models. Employees will be able to measure the elements of and requirements for successful career development and identify the issues which might present themselves at different stages. This preparation will assist them to negotiate the pitfalls which might arise during their careers and improve their coping skills.
Secondly, the only effective way of measuring whether or not the models are pertinent to the South African society is to evaluate current working experiences and compare them to the traditional models. Thus, much research is required in this area, but this does not suggest that the 'baby should be thrown out with the bathwater', but rather that it be given some serious consideration. Thirdly, in communicating the concepts concerning career stages and the relevant issues, organisations and employees will be a step further to a harmonious integration of both parties by merely addressing the issue, even if immediate solutions are not apparent.

3.6 CONCLUSIONS

Theorists have traditionally viewed the individual's passage through the organisation as being characterised by a number of stages. These stages require the successful completion of certain developmental tasks and progression is consequent upon success at the previous stage. The stages described in this chapter have been developmental in nature and it should be recognised that other theories of career movement exist.

There is some overlapping in the various theories and four major stages can be identified.

An understanding of the developmental tasks which might present themselves in each stage is beneficial to both the individual and the organisation. For the individual, this awareness of the issues which might present themselves at each stage, if translated into action, facilitates his development through the organisation and personal growth. For the
organisation, an understanding of the particular career stage through which an employee is moving, allows organisations to be proactive in managing and meeting the needs of that employee.

In the South African context, career stage models are more applicable to whites than they are to blacks. Much research is necessary to validate this view if advancement programmes are to have the right focus. However, by addressing the question of whether or not the models are applicable, organisations and employees will benefit from such communication.

As individuals develop and grow in their careers, so they are influenced by and influence the organisation in which they work. Most employees find themselves in organisations where they are expected to align their values with those of the organisation and meet the goals of the organisation. The influence of the organisation on the individual, known as socialisation, will be discussed in the following chapter. However, the concept is not restricted to the organisational context but rather is a general developmental issue which begins in childhood. These and other aspects will be discussed in the following chapter.
C H A P T E R  4

4. SOCIALISATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

A major factor in the relationship between an organisation and an individual is the movement of these two parties towards each other (Schein, 1971). As the individual develops through different career stages, so he develops new values, goals and behaviours to suit the requirements of the organisation. Simultaneously, the organisation accommodates, to a degree, the needs of a wide range of individuals in an attempt to optimise their skills to achieve the mission and goals of the organisation.

How is the individual influenced by others through childhood into adulthood? What influence do organisations exert on employees? Do individuals influence their organisations? These and other questions will be discussed in this chapter in terms of the processes of socialisation and innovation. The emphasis will be on the former.

The process of socialisation is a major factor impacting on the individual's development, both within and outside the organisation. This concept will be defined, followed by an examination of theories which attempt to explain the process. The approach will be to examine a general sociological theory of socialisation, and then narrow the scope of the
discussion to socialisation within organisations. Lastly, the topic will be discussed against the background of the South African situation.

4.2 DEFINITION

In its broadest sense, socialisation refers to the issues of how social roles are learnt and modified, both in childhood and adulthood (Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979, p.204). Children acquire through experience, the ability to represent internally the abstract conceptions of what is considered acceptable or unacceptable behaviour. When these conceptions are carried into adulthood, they then form the frame of reference for the adult's behaviour. The learning continues, however. The major difference between the adult and child socialisation process relates to the content of what is learnt and also possibly the process through which this takes place.

Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.3), a sociologist, defines socialisation as "the process by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions which make them more or less able members of their society". Brim states further,

"A major component of socialisation involves learning the 'role of the other', that is, trying to anticipate the other's response to one's own behaviour, and reflecting upon one's own performance and appraising his behaviour as good or bad. The expectations of others become symbolically". (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.9)
Brim goes on to state that the learning experience of learning "the role of the other" is moderated by interaction with others "who hold normative beliefs about what his role should be and who will reward or punish him for correct or incorrect actions" (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.9). Brim suggests then that socialisation is a reinforcement process in which the individual adapts his behaviour according to the feedback he receives from others.

In the organisational sense, socialisation may be defined as "the process by which a person learns values, norms and required behaviours which permits him to participate as a member of the organisation" (van Maanen, 1976, p.67). That socialisation is a process is supported by Super and Bohn (1971, p.10), who define socialisation as "the process of taking on the characteristics or adopting the behaviour of others".

A rather cryptic definition is provided by London and Stumpf (1982, p.75) who state that socialisation "refers to how organisations attempt to change employees". This cannot be considered an operational definition, but it certainly conveys the intention behind the process of socialisation.

A final definition is provided by Louis (in Blau, 1988). Louis defines organisational socialisation as

"the process by which a person comes to appreciate the values, ability, expected behaviours, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organisational role and for participating as an organisation member".
In summary, organisational socialisation involves a dynamic process during the individual's tenure in an organisation as he moves through various stages which involve the learning experiences or adoption or adaptation to new values thrust upon him to which he must conform. The individual is expected to develop or bring into play abilities which will allow him to be accepted as being a part of the organisation and so must begin to exhibit complementary behaviours to those with whom he interacts.

A number of theorists have conceptualised the socialisation process in organisations (Balu, 1988). Socialisation is influenced by environmental factors and so we begin the discussion on socialisation by examining the process in adulthood, as theorised by Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, pp.1-51).

4.3 SOCIALISATION IN ADULTHOOD

Socialisation does not begin in adulthood. From birth, individuals acquire and develop habits, beliefs, attitudes and motives which enable them to perform satisfactorily in society. The process of socialisation continues throughout the individual's life span and the demands put upon the individual to be 'normal' change during the life span (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.1).

Although this discussion centres mainly on adult socialisation, it should not be forgotten that childhood socialisation experiences influence later experiences.
Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.4) suggests that socialisation has two main consequences:

- acquiring the culture of the individual's group,

and

- learning the prescriptions and role behaviour of society.

It is this view which links Brim's theory to that of Rokeach. Rokeach states that values are culturally defined and transmitted, and one of the processes by which this occurs is socialisation.

4.3.1 Personality and Socialisation

Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.11) suggests that 'taking on the role of the others' involves interacting with others in relationships characterised by different personality constructs. Assuming a new role is a consequence of the expectations arising out of these interactions. From these interactions, anticipations are made as to how the individual will be regarded and judged by others. Ultimately this will result in the individual being accepted or not.

Brim's basic premise is that most of what is learned from socialisation in childhood and thereafter is a series of complex relationships, the outcome of which is the development of the individual's personality (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.8). In other words, the
socialisation process is a learned set of 'self-other' systems or relationships, as the 'self' is moulded by relationships with 'others'.

The formation of an 'I-me' relationship in which the individual develops a stable self concept is the ultimate result of successful childhood socialisation experiences (Van Maanen, 1976, p.70). For example, the individual with this personality construct can say, "I am content with myself", as he is both the subject and object of his personality.

Other self-other relationships involve the individual as either the subject or object in relationships:

- 'they-me', where individual is object of another's actions, expectations or attitudes. For example, "She doesn't want me to do that".

- 'I-them', where the object is some other person. For example, "I want him to be faithful".

Socialisation then is pertinent to the development of the personality and how the individual interacts with the environment. Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.16) links these relationships to the motivation and behaviour of the individual as he seeks to balance his relationships with others through overt behaviour.

These relationships are reminiscent of those pronounced by Martin Buber, the religious philosopher (Stewart, 1980, p.34). Buber's philosophy of the 'experience of
the eternal you' involves relationships based on I - You and I - It pairs. Buber states, "a person is by definition an independent individual and yet also relativized by the plurality of other independent individuals" (Stewart, 1980, p.43).

Although Buber and Brim write from different disciplines, two similarities emerge:

- behaviour of individuals is intricately linked,

and

- the influence individuals have over each other has an element of direction of influence. That influence is one or two directional.

Brim adopts a developmental approach in his theory of socialisation and it is for this and the above reasons that Brim's theory is particularly relevant to the discussion of values and career stages.

4.3.2 Socialisation requirements

Brim suggests that adult socialisation is usually preoccupied with behavioural change and gives little attention to influencing basic values. Consequently, he theorises that the purpose of socialisation is to give a person knowledge, ability and motivation in the formation of both behaviours and values (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.25).
Table 9 illustrates the two dimensions of socialisation:

- the requirements for performance of a social role (motivation, ability and knowledge), and
- the results of learning a given social role (behaviours and values).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirements of Social Role Performance</th>
<th>Components of Social Roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adulthood socialization: Person has motivation and ability and knows the values accompanying a role. Must be taught how to perform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training of basic skills, once values have been acquired regarding role performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Providing person with the motivation to carry out a role, once values have been acquired.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 Brim's (1966) Analysis of Adult and Childhood Socialization
(Whitbourne & Weinstok, 1979 P.206)

Table 9 will be discussed in terms of two questions. (See 4.3.2.1. and 4.3.2.2. below).

Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.25) succinctly summarises the main tenets of adult socialisation:

"there are three things a person requires before he is able to perform satisfactorily in a role. He must know what is expected of him, he must be able to meet the role
requirements, and he must desire to practice the behaviour and pursue the appropriate ends."

4.3.2.1 Sequence

Is there a sequence in Brim's socialisation model?

Brim suggests that the individual moves from motivation through ability to knowledge, and from values to behaviour on a second dimension (Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979, p.206).

There is a causal relationship between the cells. That is, the experience of a preceding cell impacts on the subsequent experience. This is obvious as Brim's model reflects socialisation processes on a continuum from childhood through to adulthood. This progression is characterised by a number of changes, and Brim's model suggests that the content of socialisation rather than the form of socialisation changes dramatically from childhood to adulthood (van Maanen, 1976, p.70). These changes in content include:

- a shift in emphasis from values and motives towards a concern for overt behaviour.
changes require less of an adaptation to new material than they call for a synthesis of old material.

there is an increase in specificity as adult socialisation aims towards filling roles, position and statuses.

there are fewer I - me relationships in the later stages of the life cycle.

the individual's development of methods to mediate conflicting demands are described as metaprescriptions and they take the form of situationally specific guidelines or roles of action.

there is a transformation from idealism to realism (van Maanen, 1976, pp.70 - 71).

4.3.2.2 Changes

How are these changes in content encapsulated in the model?

Cell A (Table 9.) represents the normal organisational situation in which the individual has a need to learn more technical skills which might have arisen as a result of, for instance, promotion. The individual is presumed to hold certain values which are not in conflict with those of the organisation.
In cell C, the individual is motivated to become a productive member of society, but requires training in basic skills. The profile of the individual in cell C would be that of a person who has made a career change to a new field which requires extensive retraining. In cell E, the individual has the required values, but might need to be motivated to prepare him to utilise skills taught in cell C.

On the values dimension, cell F represents initial socialisation experiences in childhood. In cell D, the early established values are brought to bear against those of society and the individual may encounter some conflict between the two. Once again, it is the ability of the individual to handle the conflict that is an issue in cell D. Where an individual has developed certain acceptable values, (moved through cell D), yet requires exposure to new sets of values in adulthood, then the individual would be characterised by the activities in cell B. For instance, a priest who becomes an entrepreneur needs to be made aware of different values systems pertaining to the business world.

Brim's model also highlights the developmental sequence of socialisation. van Maanen (1976, p.71) sites the example of a police recruit who is issued with a service revolver and told how to operate the weapon.
It is assumed that the recruit already possesses the necessary hand/eye co-ordination and the strength to fire the weapon. Also, it is assumed that the recruit wishes to identify himself with the Police Department and the ideology of handling a weapon. If the recruit does not know how to use the weapon, a training programme can rectify this lack of skill. If he does not see the need to set aside time to learn the basic operation of the revolver, then attempts will be made to motivate the recruit through the use of special rewards and punishments (cell E). However, if the recruits' values are an issue, the individual is coached, pressured or otherwise persuaded to accept the general values of the department (cell B). If the values between the Police Department and the individual differ irreconcilably (cell D) then special therapeutic counselling is instituted. In extreme cases, the recruit is immediately dismissed.

The attempts at socialisation on the behaviour dimension are less complex than those on the values dimension. (Table 9.) For this reason, organisations often restrict their overt socialisation activities to behavioural issues. However, it is often the values issues which alienate the individual from the organisation. This aspect will be discussed below in the discussion on the inter-relations between values, career stages and socialisation processes.
Numerous theories of organisational socialisation exist (Blau, 1988; Charoux, 1986, pp.127-130). This discussion will centre on Schein's (1971) theory as it links to career stage theory in chapter 3. Schein's (1971) theory of movement in organisations has also been discussed above (Chapter 3). To recap, an individual may move in one of three directions:

- hierarchical movement means up and down movement, for example, from clerk to accountant.
- functional movement involves changing one's sphere of operation, for example, from marketing to production.
- inclusion movement involves moving to the core of the organisation, for example, being accepted and consulted.

Schein (1971) goes further to propose a set of hypotheses to account for the series of interchanges between the organisation and the individual during the individual's passage through the organisation. The hypotheses capture the essence of the interrelations between the two parties.

4.4.1 Hypotheses One

Socialisation, or the influence of the organisation on the individual, will occur primarily with the passage through
hierarchical and inclusion boundaries. Education and training efforts lead the individual through functional boundaries. The amount of effort and socialisation and/or training will be at a maximum just prior to movement across a boundary, but will continue for some time after boundary passage.

Schein (1971) suggests that the underlying assumption regarding this hypotheses is that the organisation will concern itself chiefly with the correct values and attitudes of the new member at the point where it allows that member more authority or centrality. Also, the individual is most vulnerable to socialisation pressures just before and after boundary passage. Schein (1975, p.1) emphasises the importance of the value and attitude components as he believes that attitude and value change "is not only an important consequence of shifts in organisational role, but may well be a prerequisite for such shifts". The relinquishment of the individual's values and the adaptation of consequent behaviours is described by Schein as "the price of membership" (In van Maanen, 1976, p.68).

4.4.2 Hypotheses Two

The individual's influence on the organisation is termed 'innovation' (Schein) 1971). This will occur in the middle of a given stage of a career, at a maximum distance from boundary passage.
Schein suggests that before innovation can occur, the individual must have learnt and adapted to the requirements of his position and earned centrality in that position; yet must not be close enough to the next boundary passage so as to allow him to be fully involved in the present job without being concerned about future preparations.

4.4.3 Hypotheses Three

The process of socialisation occurs at all stages in the individual's career, but is more prevalent in the early stages and during the process of innovation late in his career.

4.4.4 Hypotheses Four

Organisational socialisation involves the more labile or changeable social selves of the individual, whilst innovation results from the stable social selves of the individual.

4.4.5 Hypotheses Five

A change in the more stable social selves as a result of socialisation will occur only
under conditions of coercive persuasion. These are conditions where the individual cannot or does not feel psychologically free to leave the organisation. Conditions include, hire and employment, 'golden handcuffs', pension plans and similar fringe benefits.

For Schein (1971) innovation and socialisation are processes which should complement each other in every career.

The relative effects of socialisation and innovation differ during the stages of the individual's career (Schein, 1971). Figure 6 indicates the relationship between socialisation and innovation during the pre-entry, entry, initiation, promotion and tenure stages as proposed by Schein.

Figure 6 Socialization and Innovation during the career stages (Hall, 1976, P.63)
Innovation is obviously low in the initial stages and in fact only increases dramatically once the individual has reached maturity in the organisation.

The socialisation process however, is at its peak during the initiation stage or the stage in which the individual receives his first assignment. During the basic training or entry stage, the influence of the organisation on the individual is high as the individual is conditioned to the organisation's value systems and the roles of other colleagues. The socialisation process declines as the individual moves through the organisation and correspondingly adapts himself to the norms and values prevalent in his milieu. Schein (1971) is suggesting here that the socialisation process will only decline if the individual remains with the same organisation and he allows himself to be conditioned to the acceptable behavioural roles. The degree of innovation does not match the level of socialisation, suggesting an imbalance in the favour of the organisation. It is further suggested that this imbalance will be compounded by the size of the organisation. That is, it is suggested that the 'corporate giant' image will increase the level of socialisation and make it more difficult for the individual to innovate or influence the corporation to any degree. If the individual does not move within the organisation and climb the hierarchy, then the innovation curve itself may remain at a fairly constant level. Also, the level at which the individual enters the organisation will influence the development of the curves. For instance, a janitor entering the organisation will need to remain in the company for an extensive period of time as he moves through the stages to effectively influence the company. However, a senior manager who has greater decision making powers, will be in a better position to innovate sooner in his career as he enters the organisation at a different stage.
4.5 METHODS OF SOCIALISATION

van Maanen (1976, pp.102 - 114), discusses five methods of organisational socialisation, namely training, education, apprenticeship, debasement experiences and co-option. Discussion will centre around these operations.

4.5.1 Training

The traditional view of training is that it is an opportunity for the organisation to impart new skills or behaviours. Caplow (in van Maanen, 1976, p.102) states that training programmes are often concerned with the communication of values, the development of the individual's image, and directing the individual's motivation.

Certainly, the training method of behaviour modelling involves the training of the employee in developing and applying certain critical steps in handling situations. Inherent in these programmes is a set of values regarding the basic attitudes which the organisation would want its employees to foster. For example, issues regarding self-esteem and empathy are the preferred modes of conduct and trainees are measured on the application or not of these principles.

Sanders and Yanouzas (1983) suggest that trainees come to new learning experiences with pre-existing attitudes and expectations about learning based on previous learning
experiences. It is the trainer's role to socialise the trainees by defining a number of norms for both the trainer and the trainee. Such norms include, for the trainee, adopting new values and norms and 'unfreezing' incongruent values and expectations. A 'hoped for outcome' is that trainees will develop new learning self-images. When considered in the light of Brim's model, the socialisation proposed in this approach would constitute reorganising the childhood socialisation process of learning to the learning values which the organisation upholds.

4.5.2 Education

Education is defined as those learning experiences which occur outside the organisation. In this context, organisations influence educational institutions to a degree, in terms of their requirements and financial support. The argument here is that education as such can then be considered a form of socialisation, as educational facilities prepare future employees to more easily become members of such organisations (van Maanen, 1976, p.104).

4.5.3 Apprenticeship

Apprenticeship can be considered to be similar to training as it usually occurs within the organisation. The processes of
role models and mentoring are powerful agents in the socialisation process. Role models demonstrate the values and behaviours to which trainees aspire as they see role models as being 'successful'. Mentors on the other hand who are involved in the daily process of developing individuals, influence those individuals to adopt certain roles congruent with those of the organisation to facilitate their development.

4.5.4 Debasement Experiences

Typical of activities under this heading are the attempts by the organisation to break down the individual's self-image and to replace it with an image concurrent with organisational needs. These include standardisation of appearance, strict application of disciplinary procedures, subjection to demeaning routine experiences and verbal abuse. van Maanen (1976, p.106) suggests that individuals will accept these types of experiences to the extent that they feel there are sufficient rewards. Consider the situation in which an individual is forced to work under an ineffectual management style. The individual will remain under that manager as long as either his remuneration serves to compensate for the debasement or he is not able to leave the organisation and find new employment.
4.5.5 Co-option

This method of socialisation is described as the process in which the new member of the organisation is first admitted into the organisation and then absorbed into a particular sub-culture within the organisation. By locking-in a divergent sub-culture, that sub-culture loses its identity in the face of the larger organisational culture.

In this way, the organisation curtails deviancy as the new members, whilst expressing their own expectations and interests, find that these are absorbed into the goals of the organisation and so lose their impact.

Within the framework of the above five socialisation methods, fall many common everyday organisational practices. For instance, the organisation's attempts at induction and providing induction training serve as an impetus to the formal socialisation processes within the organisation. Additionally, informal socialisation activities such as adherence to equal opportunity codes, non-racial facilities and integration of individuals on training courses, serve to provide the individual with a clear picture of the intention of the organisation and the values held by the organisation.
4.6 Resocialisation

How do organisations deal with the deviant behaviours of their employees? That is, deviance which is counterproductive and acts against the aims and goals or standards of the organisation?

There are some options:

- the individual is prevented from moving in the organisation, either hierarchically, functionally or inclusively.

- formal disciplinary procedures are brought into motion which could result in the individual being excluded from further participation.

- the individual is shunned and regarded by co-workers as an outcast or renegade.

These and other reactions may be included in the term 'resocialisation'. Resocialisation refers to those actions which have as their purpose, the analysis, redirection or correction of deviant behaviour. Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.40) suggests that resocialisation leads to conformity and proposes a general model to identify the types of deviance. The following discussion is based on Brim's (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, pp.40-46) work, but adapted to suit the organisational setting. Basically, the model is similar to the adult socialisation model (Table 9.), but has been adapted here to indicate the six basic types of deviance (Table 10.).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KNOWLEDGE</th>
<th>VALUES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee ignorant of correct behaviour.</td>
<td>Employee unaware of end values - i.e. value systems of organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CELL : A</td>
<td>CELL : B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| ABILITIES | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| Behavioural/performance deviance through lack of training. | Employee cannot adopt a value as it conflicts with own values. |
| CELL : C | CELL : D |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOTIVES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee has no motivation to achieve.</td>
<td>Employee behaves in the right way but for the wrong reasons - works hard, but motivation is wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CELL : E</td>
<td>CELL : F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10. Types of deviance
(Adapted from Brim, 1966, pp.40-44).

Brim (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.40) suggests that the sources of deviance include an individual's ignorance (Cells A & B), his lack of ability (Cells C & D) or his lack of motivation (Cells E & F).

Examples of each of these deviances in terms of behaviour and values are shown in Table 10. These six examples may occur in tandem or singly as presented. For instance, an employee may have deviance in both behaviour and values. He may behave incorrectly through ignorance and be unaware of value consequences of his actions.

An example may explain this more clearly. A junior employee makes a statement to the press denying disinvestment accusations by stating that his organisation is apolitical. If the employee was not
told that only the Managing Director may make press statements, then his behaviour was deviant in terms of ignorance (Cell A, Table 10.). Also, if the organisation is political in some way and he does not know the organisation's political value stance, then his own value system is deviant from that of the organisation through ignorance (Cell B, Table 10.).

There can of course be many more situations and combinations which could give rise to deviances. How the resocialisation is handled is critical. In the above example, if the employee's behaviour is interpreted in motivational terms and he is punished for his intentions rather than for his ignorance, then the effect can be counterproductive for both parties.

So, effective resocialisation requires that each party identify and understand each other's frame of reference in order to arrive at the precise nature of the deviance.

How can resocialisation benefit organisations? Through a careful analysis of the problem, companies are placed in a better position to handle the situation correctly. Also, they will grow to more fully understand their employees as they resocialise earlier development and plan for further development. Individuals using Table 10. to analyse themselves will benefit by developing their self concept as they understand the nature of their behaviour. Gaps in earlier socialisation experiences may present themselves and the individual may be guided and motivated towards further self development.
Resocialisation is a key aspect of the discussion on socialisation. Inefficacious socialisation may prevent an individual from developing in his career and so becoming a productive member of an organisation. Through effective resocialisation, organisations "must develop members who conform and fit into existing order, as well as those who are better equipped to live in the world to come" (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.46).

4.7 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES

How does the above discussion on socialisation relate to the South African context? Do South African organisations socialise their employees in ways in keeping with the above discussion? Are South African people socialised through adulthood in ways consistent with Brim's theory? The answer to these questions is 'yes'. What is especially characteristic in the South African context is the cultural diversity of the workforce which requires enormous efforts by organisations to effectively socialise these people. As socialisation involves 'taking on the role of the other' (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.9), it stands to reason that the further apart the parties are in behaviour and values, the more difficult the socialisation process becomes.

In general, most whites in South Africa identify with the western world's work ethic. However, it has been mooted that black employees do not share this view and so socialisation efforts for these employees should differ from those for whites.

This section will review this issue to discuss how organisations in South Africa can approach this dilemma, if it exists.
There is a trend in academic circles to suggest that the application of western derived theories are not applicable to the South African context, particularly with regard to black employees. However, the reality of the situation is such that South African organisations operate within the milieu of the first world and compete in this arena. The setting is thus that of a first world setting and employees are expected to perform accordingly.

However, black employees find themselves rooted in third world social conditions and naturally this impacts on their behaviour, both socially and within the organisation. With regard to the socialisation issue, the gap between the organisation's needs and the black employees' ability to fulfill these needs, results in increased attempts at socialisation by the organisation. As has been stated elsewhere in this paper, the factors impacting on the development of blacks in South African organisations include the racial issue, educational crises and divergent social conditions.

Human and Hofmeyr (1985, p.80), have suggested that black managers, when compared to white managers, indicate:

- a greater need for adequate and meaningful relationships;

- a greater need for feedback and access to superiors;

- a greater need for support, appreciation and encouragement;

- a greater need to 'know where he stands'.

A key aspect of the socialisation process is whether or not the organisation in South Africa is attempting to shape the black employee to fill the role of his white
predecessor or whether or not the organisation will allow itself to adapt to the needs of the black employee. In the former case, the level of socialisation as proposed by Schein (1971) will be higher than that of the latter approach as there will be less conflict.

Given the inadequate environmental background of the black employee, socialisation efforts cannot be restricted to the behavioural dimension alone, but should move into the value dimension of Brim's model as well. This is not to say that the intention of socialisation is to change the black employees values and behaviour to that of the organisation, but rather that the development of self-concept and the I-me predisposition becomes more difficult in a disadvantaged society.

The divergence between the white child socialisation process and the black child socialisation process across the values and cultural chasms, suggests that socialisation in organisations must of necessity address these issues. It is also suggested that the innovative influence of the individual on the organisation will be lessened if the individual has failed to become identified with the organisation through ineffectual socialisation.

What is apparent is that there is a dearth of research into the organisational standing of the black employee (Charoux, 1986, p.150).

Turning to Schein's socialisation model, it is believed that black managers are able to develop up the hierarchy and cross-functional boundaries through training and academic qualification. However, inclusion boundaries are more difficult to cross as these boundaries are not formulated or articulated and so provide no criteria for their transgression (Charoux, 1986, p.128).
4.8 SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

Socialisation is an ongoing process. People are subject to socialisation influences from birth and the success of childhood socialisation transfers into adulthood. Also, inefficacious socialisation in childhood can result in inadequate development of the individual through adulthood.

Socialisation models were discussed from both a sociological and industrial psychological perspective. There are many theories which deal with socialisation (Charoux, 1986, pp.127-130). The intention of this chapter was to discuss how the individual is influenced by others from childhood into adulthood. Brim's (Brim & Wheeler, 1966, p.4) model was used to facilitate discussion on adult socialisation. Within the organisational context, Schein (1971) proposes a theory for the influence of the individual and the organisation on each other.

Lastly, the concept was discussed in the South African context.

Organisations may be encouraged to see their employees as individuals who develop and grow. Also, organisations should examine their activities so as to understand the impact or influence they may have on their employees. Socialisation efforts should facilitate growth rather than decline in the individual's performance, and should assist him to develop a healthy integrated self concept.

The following chapter will show the relationship between values, career stages and socialisation, by presenting a model which highlights factors critical to the operationalisation of these concepts.
5. VALUES AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT - INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANISATIONAL ASPECTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The individual's movement through an organisation, its influence on him and the way in which he values his work are all elements of the broad concept of career management. But what is career management? Simonsen (1986) provides definitions for a number of related terms:

- Career management is defined as the identification of the collaborative efforts between the individual and the organisation that result in career development.

- Career development is the outcome for the individual of personal or organisational career planning.

- Career planning is an active process whereby an individual, alone or with organisational assistance, determines short- and long-range career goals.

- Career pathing is an organisational process which identifies promotional possibilities or sequencing.

What is apparent from the above descriptions is that both the individual and the organisation play a part in
career management activities. Also, career management is an ongoing process involving employees, managers and human resources personnel. The term career 'management' and 'development' are often interchanged to describe the activities of both the individual and the organisation.

Many employees do not understand the general tenets of career management and so cannot begin to conceptualise strategies for their development (Kaye, Leibowitz, Farren, 1988). Because of this ignorance, employees often rely on their organisations for direction and don't take responsibility for their own growth.

In many organisations, career development is undertaken as just one more programme which may have a favourable impact on the satisfaction, motivation and effectiveness of employees. When treated in this way, even the most successful career development programmes miss the target and fail to help employees realise their full potential.

Career management needs to be viewed as a strategy. Integrating the values of the individual and the career management activities of the organisation should be seen as a process rather than a one-off activity. This integration is also facilitated by an understanding of the interrelationships between the individual and the organisation, between all other human resource development activities and career development programmes. Giving the individual the opportunity to understand and develop himself, opens the way for employees to accept responsibility for their own careers.
The purpose of this chapter is to discuss issues of importance and concern for both the individual and the organisation. Earlier discussions on values, career stages and the socialisation process will be brought to bear in the presentation of a model which will describe the interrelation between these processes. The employee in the South African organisation is unique in many respects and the model is presented with a view to preserving his uniqueness, respecting his values and facilitating his development in the organisation.

5.2. AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL

As has been discussed previously, research into the areas of work values, the socialisation process and the development of employees through the career stages in the South African context, has been both scarce and problematic (Godsell, 1986, p.111). Nevertheless, organisations and individuals meet in the here and now, and the issues surrounding their relationships need immediate attention. Certainly, it is recognised that research is vital and necessary to provide a sound basis for further understanding in this area, but the relationships need to be understood before such research can take place.

Owing to the lack of research, the question of work values in particular has been neglected. Other factors such as the ambiguity of work values have impacted on researchers' reticence to become involved in this field, and they have treated the subject with some caution (Godsell, 1981, p.12). Charoux (1986, p.136) in proposing a black leadership integration model, states:
"We know so little of the organisational socialisation of black managers in South African organisations that to advocate a particular theoretical base at this point in time, would be tantamount to ridicule".

Despite this statement, Charoux proposes a three-stage integration model as an impetus for further research in the field of black management. The mere fact that the fields in question are under-researched should be the driving force for further research rather than being a limiting factor.

The interrelationships between work values, the socialisation process and the development of the individual through the career stages is represented in Figure 7.

Figure 7. An integrative model - work values, socialisation and career development.
Figure 7 comprises essentially two parties, the individual and the organisation, who interact with the environment in an open system. The influence they have on each other is dynamic and comprises socialisation and innovation. These influences are operationalised by the activities at the hub of the figure. To interact effectively, both parties have critical areas of concern which must be present if the individual is to develop in the organisation during his movement through career stages.

This is the essence of the model. Each facet will be briefly discussed below in order to facilitate understanding of the values issues in the socialisation of the individual through the career stages.

5.3 THE ENVIRONMENT

On a macro perspective, the social, political, economic and cultural issues in South Africa are very obviously unique and have a marked impact on the labour front (McCarthy, 1988). The issue in this paper centres around the divergent environmental influences on black and white employees in the South African context. The model proposed by Davies (1986) illustrates the dichotomous world of the African manager. (Figure 8.)
Figure 8. Some components of the dichotomous world of the African manager.
(Davies, 1986)

The model reflects the environmental influences in very practical terms. Housing, community services, high crime rate and intolerant authorities characterise the residential environment in which the black manager resides. Within the confines of this residential environment, the black manager interacts with his family, friends and the community at large.

However, the employment environment, represented by a variety of first world urban conditions, provides a contrast to the social, political, economic and cultural conditions at home. In the employment environment, the black manager interacts with the organisation, other employees and peers across racial groups and social classes. The workplace is in all probability non-racial and the black manager might enjoy a sense of equality. Figure 8. reflects the challenge facing not only black managers, but all employees of all races. The white employee who might
not be vacillating between first and third world conditions, nevertheless moves into an environment in the workplace where black employees have representation and where black employees compete on an equal basis. Similarly, the other racial groups are equally affected. The interface then between the individual and the organisation plays a leading role in the South African context due to the polarisation of workforce across political, social, economic and cultural fronts.

"When you deal with a worker on the shop floor, he does not cut himself off from his home life or his religion or his politics or his loyalty to this football club; all these are with him and in him, and they all impact on his behaviour as a participant in industry".

(De Beer, 1987)

There are certain environmental factors which bear special mention as having a particular influence on individuals entering the labour market or already within South African organisations. Many writers have acknowledged a plethora of important factors impacting on employees, particularly black employees. Subjects which have received specific attention include:

- the crisis in education
- the shortage of skilled workers
- divergent fertility rates

An understanding of some of the more pertinent factors impacting on black employees particularly is essential for an understanding of the core values which these employees might hold.

Only certain elements of the above mentioned topics will be discussed, in particular where they impact on the socialisation process in organisations and employees' career development aspirations.

5.3.1 Education

"Black education has suffered from low per capita spending, high pupil to teacher ratios, underqualified teachers and poor facilities and equipment" (Lillicrap, 1987, p.19).

Certainly, the statistics which reflect the qualifications of teachers and the standard ten examination results in themselves highlight a dismal picture.
Figure 9 indicates some interesting facts:

- Of primary school teachers, some 20% are considered underqualified. However, if one extrapolates the figures, some 70% of primary teachers have a standard 8 education or below.

- There are no degreed teachers with the appropriate diploma in primary education.
In secondary schools, only 5% of teachers are considered underqualified, but a total of 10% have standard 8 education level or below and 34% standard 10 or below. Thus, one third of the black teachers in secondary education are underqualified.

In the self-governing states, 64% of black primary teachers have standard 8 or below education level, with some 26% being unqualified. In secondary education in the states, 42% of secondary teachers have a standard 10 plus a primary teacher's certificate which is considered to be underqualification for secondary school teaching.

The statistics are not encouraging but should not be seen in isolation.

"The issues and problems in South African education are thorny and complex - like Ireland, South Africa can be said to have a problem for every known solution" (Hofmeyr, 1987, p.123).

Another factor impacting on the South African labour situation is the number of adequately qualified matriculants entering the job market. An analysis of the matriculation results for black pupils in 1986 shows that only 11 000 of the 30 000 matriculants wrote examinations in full during that year (DET, 1987, p.234). Of the 38% of pupils who wrote the examination, 48% passed. Only 13% obtained a matriculation exemption.
The picture is not however totally dismal. The enrolment at the Northern Transvaal Technikon is highest in Management, with Health Sciences and Teacher Training following (DET, 1987, p.336). The total number of students being trained in the Management course is 310. Human and Hofmeyr (1985, p.28), project that the South African labour market will require an average of 3 700 executives per year over the next 20 years.

At University level, 3 600 degrees and diplomas were conferred on black students at black universities (excluding UNISA and white universities) in all disciplines (DET, 1987, p.395). Of these, only 131 were in commerce and administration, the majority being in arts, education and health sciences (DET, 1987, p.391).

Education is a vital element in career development and it would appear that the black employee is disadvantaged when compared with his white counterpart. Also, it is suggested that because of the educational deficiencies, the black employee's development in the organisation will not follow the classical stage models, but would rather distort the models as his development might be slower.
5.3.2 Cultural Issues

It has been argued that black people, because of their culture, lack the necessary entrepreneurial attitude or ethic, as well as the required ambition, initiative and reliability, to make a success of a career in the business world (Human and Hofmeyr, 1985, p.18). The authors, whilst stating the problem, assert that this cultural argument should not be overstated. Mkhwanazi (1988, p.16) reiterates the misconception of culture fit by stating that the problem of cultural differences is perceptual rather than factual. Certainly, in modern South Africa, the many cultural differences have decreased and are diminishing whilst cultural similarities are increasing (Phatudi, 1987, p.5). Certainly the urbanisation process is regarded not only as the statistical movement of numbers of people to the urban areas, but rather the processes of social, political and economic transformation (Spies, 1987, p.9). Viewed in this light, the movement of blacks to urban areas can be seen as a socialisation process over a broad number of issues.

It is becoming increasingly clear that the needs and aspirations of black employees closely resembles those of western groups (Human and Hofmeyr, 1985, p.118; Lillicrap, 1987, p.13). The subject of cultural differences is not simply an open and shut case; rather, an effort should be made to highlight the similarities rather than the
differences in cultures between the heterogeneous workforce in South Africa.

5.3.3 Marginality

The black employee in the South African organisation is a marginal man. By this it is meant that he must function in a variety of diverse, conflicting and often ambiguous environments. His performance in the work situation also reflects many conflict and ambiguities that he is faced with in his life outside the workplace. Davies' model above clearly illustrates the dichotomous roles which face the black employee as he vacillates between his work and home environment. In the work situation, the black employee is expected to perform as an equal with his white colleagues and yet return at night to an untenable social environment. Black managers, when interviewed about their position in the workplace, reported that they felt schizophrenic; they were living in a "no man's land between two cultures, they were partially accepted and partially rejected by the white world in which they were expected to perform, they faced the psychological burden of not knowing where they stood" (Human, 1987, p.35). The black manager is placed in the situation where he is mistrusted by his peers and suffers the possibility of being labelled a sell-out by his community.
Certainly, in the white society, the attainment of managerial status is perceived to be synonymous with success and white managers do not experience the same pressures which their black counterparts do.

One prerequisite for the development of an individual through his career is the ability of the individual to set goals and monitor his progress against those goals. Where the individual is placed in a marginal position and where advancement might mean rejection, the desire to advance might be impaired. However, the desire to improve his station in life might serve as a motivator to achieve and so improve his social standing. Regardless of the consequences, the marginal position of the black employee as compared to the white employee is a crucial factor in his development both within and without the organisation.

However, it is not only the black employee who can be considered marginal in his roles. Whites in South Africa today experience equal opportunity in the workplace, but return at night to 'whites only' areas. As society changes, so there is a need for white employees within organisations to adapt. Thus, there is resistance to black advancement in what is termed 'white backlash' (Bruniquel, 1986, p.30). Non-racial advancement programmes or endeavours to develop employees should consciously attempt to reduce the marginality of the South African situation through co-operation and association.
5.3.4 Other Factors

There are a number of additional factors which impact on the individuals development in the South African organisation. By not attributing a lengthy discussion to each of these, it is not suggested that they are irrelevant, however they have already received considerable attention in literature and it is not the intention to readdress these issues but rather to include them for the sake of clarity.

Demographic trends indicate that the different cultural groups in South Africa are growing at disparate rates. Whites have an annual growth rate of 1.42% as opposed to 2.4% of blacks (Central Statistical Service, 1988). Compounded with this phenomenon, is the fact that the white population is an aging population with less than 27% of the population below 15 years of age and 8% 65 years and older (Spies, 1987, p.8). Comparatively, 43% of the black population is below 15 years of age and only 3% 65 years and older. These growth rates have resulted in the proportion of whites in highly trained manpower being reduced to 55% in the 80's from 70% in the '60's (Spies, 1987, p.10). A further aspect of the high growth rate of the black population group related to the skills shortage is the fact that the ratio between entrepreneurs to other classes in the South African labour force is 2: 42 (Lillicrap, 1987, p.6). As compared to other countries,
South Africa does not fare well in this comparison. However, the bottom line on demographic trends is that South Africa is changing at a dramatic rate and organisations will need to adapt to these changes.

Other factors which receive attention include issues related to:-

- justice (Spies, 1987, p.12; Human, 1987, p.20)
- management Style (Lillicrap, 1987, p.17)
- achievement motivation (Human and Hofmer, 1985, p.31)
- values (as discussed in Chapter 2).

The environment cannot be separated from the organisational setting, particularly in the South African context. Every facet of the individual's tenure in the organisation is tainted by his environment and the organisation operates within the milieu of an environment in a state of emergency.

5.4. THE INDIVIDUAL

Within the organisational context, it is suggested that the individual is confronted by four major issues. These issues can be described by four questions which relate to his knowledge, ability and motivation:

- do I understand the mission and values of my organisation?
- have the job requirements been clearly explained to me?
what possibilities are there for advancement and how does the organisation facilitate my development?

do I understand my own values, interests and abilities?

Sharing the organisation's mission with employees will provide them with direction. Naturally, the interpretation of the mission as it occurs through the ranks needs not be conveyed to the employees as a general statement, but rather should be translated into the requirements which pertain to a particular division or department. Together with clarification of the mission, employees should be able to identify the values which the company upholds. This is of particular significance in the South African context where organisations are faced daily with social justice issues. The influence of the environment necessitates the expression of value statements from the organisation. It also goes without saying that the manner in which the organisation conducts its business must be congruent with its value statements.

A second major requirement for individuals is an understanding of the requirements of the job. Performance standards and evaluation criteria must be clearly identified and communicated to the employee. Focus in these areas will allow the individual to gain insight into his own abilities and rationalise his concepts of development. Too often, employees are not made aware of the required behaviours necessary to perform particular tasks and it is suggested that this vagueness results in a decline in performance as they develop through the career stages. Thus, rather than increasing performance during the advancement stage, employees tend to level off or enter a maintenance stage at an earlier period in their careers.
The career development field is getting much attention, but employees are not being given the opportunity to understand the importance of career issues and even the meaning of the word career (Rothenbach, 1984). The individual must be exposed to the fact that the responsibility for his development through the organisation is the result of outcomes emanating from a combination of individual career planning actions and organisational career management activities. Thus, both the individual and the organisation are responsible for developing the careers of employees. The role played by the organisation in developing its employees must be clarified and discussed with the individual if he is to develop focus in this area. Unfortunately, too many employees believe that their destiny lies in the hands of the organisation and they should be exposed to the reality that they can play an innovative role in the organisation. Thus, the individual should be made aware of the opportunities available to him as well as the need to make certain choices. Employees are unlikely to change their behaviour if they do not know where they are going, and therefore it is essential to share with them a picture of the requirements for career advancement (Nattrass, 1987).

Organisations cannot expect employees to take control of their own development if employees do not understand their own values, interests and abilities. It has been suggested that owing to inadequate childhood socialisation experiences, black employees might be unable to develop clear self-concepts. At best, these self-concepts, including their value systems, would in any event differ from their white counterparts. Work values, on the other hand, may not be as disparate as has been suggested, but nevertheless, the individual must be able to identify the work values he upholds as they contribute to his behaviour.
How are the issues pertaining to individuals catered for in the organisation? It is suggested that through the socialisation processes of training, education and informal socialisation that these issues be addressed. What is required is the proactive intervention of the organisation in introducing these issues into its various structures. For instance, in Induction courses, the issues relating to the organisation's mission and values can be dealt with as well as issues relating to the individual's job.

Career issues and personal assessment issues can be dealt with in the running of career planning workshops during which time the individual is provided with an opportunity for assessment of a number of criteria. The contents of such a workshop might include:

- individual assessment (needs, values, interests and abilities)
- environmental appraisal (organisational skill needs, career paths, developmental policies)
- integration and match analysis (fit between individual career aspirations and organisational requirements)
- career action planning (goal development)
- implementation tactics (job moves, formal education, on-the-job training) (Gutteridge and Otte, 1983).

The issue when addressing the individual's needs is that the organisation takes an active interest in assisting the individual towards realising his potential.
5.5 THE ORGANISATION

It is well and good suggesting that the organisation facilitate the growth of their employees. This view presumes that the organisation itself is clear about certain aspects and these aspects are considered issues as they impact directly on the individual and the fit between the individual and the organisation.

The issues confronting the organisation include questions relating to:

- is the organisational mission understood, interpreted and communicated?

- what values does the organisation uphold?

- what is the organisation's policy on representation and social justice?

- who works for us and what are their needs, values, interests and abilities?

- do the human resources activities address career management issues?

Organisations must be clear about their mission and be sure that the strategic decisions which are made down the line are interpreted in terms of that mission.

"A coherent mission is a potent tool" (Toffler, 1985, p.110).

In this sense, the mission is a workable instrument which, when interpreted in terms of the organisation's activities, becomes a tool for progress. By
communicating its mission, the organisation frees its employees to develop in a particular direction, to the advantage of both the organisation and the individual.

The guiding principles which are an expression of the company's basic philosophy are the values which the organisation holds. These values might extend from profit maximisation to social responsibility issues. In the context of development, the core values which the organisation holds with regard to advancement of its people should be expressed, and human resources activities should address themselves to the realisation of these values. An expression of these values becomes a necessity if organisations wish to influence their employees to identify with those values. Value conflicts can be counter-productive and if organisations are to be successful in the socialisation of employees, then the company's value needs to be clarified and communicated.

Careers flow from jobs. Therefore, the organisation's responsibility in recruitment and selection of employees is crucial to the individual. The better the fit, the more likelihood there is of the individual being able to impact on the organisation. In the development function, organisations need to be able to profile their employees in terms of the criteria mentioned above. This information will result in the manpower needs being realistically assessed, and succession planning will be based on not only the organisation's requirements, but the aspirations of individual employees.

Organisations have a commitment to supporting the career planning activities of individuals, by providing them with counselling and guidance as they develop through the various career stages. In this way,
employees who are learning to identify and deal with the pressures peculiar to each stage will be more satisfied and motivated. As discussed in above (5.4), companies need to become involved in career seminars which will allow employees the opportunity to develop their self-concept and set career goals. If organisations do not set up career seminars, many employees will never set career goals. They will not analyse their value systems and remain unproductively unaware of their many skills (Kaye et al, 1984). As individuals are exposed to the human resources functions including training, education and development programmes, so they are assisted in aligning themselves with the values and goals of the organisation. The socialisation process takes place in a broad range of activities related to the human resources function.

Based on its needs, the company must plan for the development of its employees by establishing policies for development and advancement.

5.6 ORGANISATIONAL PROCESSES

Figure 7. above indicates that the issues pertaining to the individual and the organisation are not separate but meet in the socialisation and innovation processes. Thus, these processes are dynamic and are indicated as such by arrows indicating that they move between the various issues mentioned above. This is a significant fact, as these processes become the result of the interaction between the individual and the organisation and at the same time the driving force between the two bodies. The socialisation process has been discussed in detail above. The innovation process
is described as the influence which the individual exerts on the organisation. This influence will be felt by the organisation as it engages in succession planning, training and personnel administration activities. It is suggested here that the aspirant individual will put pressure on the organisation to move in the organisation. This will require further training and will impact on the remuneration and other benefits which such an individual will receive. Thus, the interaction between the individual and the organisation is a dynamic process which is constantly interweaving and changing to accommodate each separate entity's needs.

5.7 FEEDBACK

The model proposed is not a closed system but rather one which interacts with the environment. It has been stated above that the environment exerts pressure on the activities of both the individual and the organisation. However, the reverse is also true; the individual and the organisation both influence the environment. As the individual progresses through the various career stages, so his life-style is also affected. His needs in the community change and his values might result in the need for a different life style. The organisation contributes directly to the economic well-being of the country and plays a part in the political, social and cultural arenas as well. Therefore, there is a feedback loop between the environment, the individual and the organisation suggesting that each influences the other.
5.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE MODEL

It is recognised that the model presented in Figure 7. is limited in a number of respects.

The model restricts itself to the inclusion of those factors which are considered essential to an understanding of the development of individuals through organisations. Certainly, not all the factors which contribute to the individuals tenure in the organisation are included, as the model would them be too generalised. As it is, many of the concepts indicated on the model are not clarified but, as they are covered extensively in literature, there did not seem to be a need to replicate these areas.

The issue of work values plays a small part in the overall model. The reason for this is that there is much ambiguity about the subject of work values and rather than wait for conclusive research in this area, attention to other aspects should be used to compensate for this lack. Also, individuals are complex beings and the model proposes that organisations contribute to the development of the self-concept in the individual by addressing a number of issues including work values.

The "how" in the model is discussed in terms of the socialisation and innovation processes. However, these are coined in general terms rather than advocating specific programmes. It is suggested that organisations include the issues raised by the model in their existing programmes. This obviates the need for the development of new policies and procedures and the accruing delay in addressing the issues. Rather, the model can be used as a reference check for
organisations to ensure that they are covering areas of importance both to themselves and their employees.

5.9. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The focus in this Chapter is on the issues confronting individuals and organisations, and the interaction that these two bodies have with their environment.

Issues central to the development of individuals include on the macro perspective, direction from the organisation in terms of the individuals' understanding of the organisation's mission values and other crucial standpoints. In addition, individuals need to be made aware of the performance standards of the task they are to perform and how they will be appraised. Issues relating to the advancement of employees need to be clarified and employees need to understand the possibilities for further development and the organisations' policies in this regard. Lastly, because of the disadvantaged environmental conditions under which some employees develop, organisations have a responsibility to assist the individuals within their organisations to develop clearer self-concepts in terms of their values, work values, needs, interests and abilities.

On the organisations side, in order to accommodate the issues raised above, there needs to be clarification regarding a number of areas including the organisation's mission, the values it upholds, its manpower resources and the various activities surrounding career management processes. Only in this way, can organisations address the needs of its employees.
Its purpose is to ensure that the employee knows the organisation's direction, has the ability to work and is motivated to do the job.

The activities of the individual and the organisation cannot be separated and they interact in a dynamic way through the processes of socialisation and innovation as the two bodies influence each other. The relationship between the individual and the organisation is ongoing and calls for honesty and boldness on both sides.

"Simply working harder is not sufficient - we need to be ruthlessly honest with ourselves when we examine strategy if we wish to leap the chasm into the next century. Anything less will mean that we will stumble into the chasm".

6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study has reviewed the literature on the complex, enigmatic subject of values as well as the topics of socialisation and career stages. The purpose of the study was firstly to bring some further perspective to these subjects and to discuss their influence on one another. Secondly, a model was proposed which sought to operationalise the influence of work values on the career development process.

Due to the lack of research in South Africa on work values, it was decided to restrict the study to a literature study. This literature study then covered values, career stages and socialisation. These subjects were incorporated in a model which sought to reflect the relationships between the variables.

6.2 VALUES

The term 'values' was defined in general and the nature of values discussed. The two most significant points from the discussion are that values are interdisciplinary and are culturally based conceptions of the desirable.
Work values are derived from general life values.

However, the precise nature of values, including work values, is uncertain as even interdisciplinary research results are inconclusive.

This should not exempt the subject from further clarification, but should rather serve to motivate researchers to become active in this area.

The 'conceptions of the desirable' behaviour of individuals in organisations is often viewed differently by those individuals and their organisations. There is an attempt, from both parties to impose their work value systems on each other and this could lead to value conflicts. Such conflicts could be counterproductive and adversely affect the individual's development and his contribution to the organisational goals.

In the light of the uncertainty surrounding work values other factors which impact on behaviour should be discussed to give further focus to the causes of behaviour.

6.3 CAREER STAGES

The major theorists agree that individuals move through a number of stages in their careers. Each stage is characterised by a number of developmental tasks, the successful completion of which ensures passage to the next stage.
Understanding the demands of each stage can be beneficial to both the individual and the organisation. For the individual, an awareness of the types of demands which will be made on him during his career will prepare him to deal with difficulties proactively. Organisations which have identified the developmental stages of their employees are placed in the strong position to optimally utilise their employees by minimizing obstacles in the career stages.

Further research is needed to ascertain to what extent the career stage models are applicable in the South African context. Also, research should hone in on the relationship between career stage development and occupational choice, against the background of the prevailing environmental issues, such as unemployment and skills shortages.

6.4 SOCIALISATION

Individuals are the subjects of socialisation throughout their life cycles. Naturally, their years spent in organisations represent only a particular period during their adulthood. For this reason, a broader sociological perspective was adopted in examining the nature of socialisation. The effect of childhood socialisation is felt in adult socialisation: the extent to which an adult is 'successfully' socialised in adulthood depends on the results of childhood socialisation.
An appreciation of the nature of adult socialisation is important for organisations in South Africa as the environment is a great influence on the behaviour of employees. The major methods of organisational socialisation were discussed, as well as the nature of deviant behaviour.

The extent to which employees and organisations adopt each others work values in the South African context is uncertain. The role which socialisation agents can play in synergising work values is unresearched. What is certain is that organisations do try to socialise their employees and the nature of the South African cultural diversity increases the organisational socialisation efforts.

6.5 WORK VALUES AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

How does the proposed model (Figure 7) incorporate the influence of work values on career development? Both the individual and the organisation influence each other, via the processes of socialisation and innovation. Work values are best interpreted as they relate to other concepts such as needs, interests and aspirations. In the career development process, that is, the outcome for the individual of personal career plans, work values and other issues must be clarified. Such clarification will facilitate development of the individual through the career stages. This in turn will benefit the organisation.
Career management workshops should address these issues and the model is proposed as a guideline for this purpose. In addition, effective career management is a dual responsibility and employees should be encouraged to recognise their role in their development.

6.6 RESEARCH PRIORITIES

It has been stated that urgent research should be carried out on the topics under discussion in this paper. The literature indicates much uncertainty and some contradictory research results.

Specifically, research should be carried out to determine:

- the nature and influence of work values in the South African context.

- the applicability of career stage theories to black employees in South Africa.

- the influence of environmental factors on organisational socialisation in South Africa.

- the effect of career planning workshops on the career development of employees in South African organisations.

There are other related areas of interest which could generate further investigation and discussion.