

**Differences in current and desired work values amongst academic employees
within a Higher Education Institution in the Western Cape**

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DECLARATION

I declare that this work at a University in the Western Cape is my own work.

This work has not been submitted to any other university or any other person for examination.

The resources I have used or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

A Glaeser



DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my supportive family-Macrae, Jessica, Hannah and Faan.

Without their love and support my life would have been very different.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My deep gratitude goes to my supervisor Karl Heslop for guiding me and helping me at so many different levels to complete this work.

My amazing workplace which inspires me to keep on loving life



ABSTRACT

Empirical and anecdotal evidence suggests that organisations, including higher education institutions (HEI's) have a propensity to focus on extrinsic rewards as a main motivator that attracts and retains staff (Kubler & De Luca, 2006). Twenge, Stacy, Campbell and Hoffman (2010) maintain that work values represent people's expectations from the workplace.

Studies performed to determine the impact of intrinsic work values, as opposed to extrinsic work values and rewards, indicate that the sustainable factors influencing long-lasting career choices can be found in the attainment of intrinsic work values (Kovach, 1987; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). With respect to leadership behaviours, intrinsic work values and rewards are seldom considered when focusing on the factors that lead to attracting and retaining academic staff.

Werner (2011) posits the view that an understanding of underlying work values of employees can assist in sound people practices to foster engagement and retention of staff. Aspects of intrinsic work values become more important in the context of literature relative to research done about younger generations, who have different expectations from leadership and different ideas of desired work cultures (Sujansky, 2010).

Brown (2003), as cited by Patton and McMahon (2009 p.41), states that "occupational tenure is partially the result of the match between the culture and work values of the worker, supervisor and colleagues". The alignment of leadership culture to strategies is therefore important (Rhodes & McGuire, 2009). Moreover, the alignment between desired organizational work values and perceived current work values is contended to influence the effective functioning of a workplace.

The current research was undertaken based on a cross-sectional, quantitative survey approach which requested participants to select work values out of a pre-designed list of approximately a hundred possible work-related values as positioned in the vision and mission statements of the institution at which the research was undertaken. The results of the research indicate that the two younger groups of academic staff who were targeted in this research, accord importance to intrinsic work values which relate to meaningful and fulfilling work.

An analysis of the trends which emerged from the data suggest that leadership and cultural aspects designed to support desired work values may influence successful attraction and retention of these younger generations for academic careers. These findings emphasise the importance for leadership to act in alignment with change needs of academic staff and their own stated vision and mission strategies. The results provide useful insight into the current and perceived work-related values and could be used to inform strategic debates within the HEI. Although tentative in nature, the findings provide a heuristic framework within which to align work-related values across generations of academics and serve as an impetus for future research.

Key Concepts:

Work values, Work Culture , Work Climate, Leadership Alignment with Strategies, Generation X and Generation Y, Extrinsic Values and- Rewards, Intrinsic Values and –Rewards.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

In an era of increasingly intense competition for talented personnel at all levels of the workplace hierarchy, procuring and selecting the right people for the right jobs requires proactive selection and development strategies, and hence is of strategic importance for organisations (Smith & Blackham, 1988). Making sound hiring and promotion decisions demands thoughtful judgement grounded in a thorough assessment of all factors known about a current or potential employee (Guerrier & Riley, 1992). These decisions will have an immediate, as well as a long term impact on an organisation; hence it is imperative to preclude the possibility of making mistakes in the personnel selection and development process (Alexander Hamilton Institute Incorporated, 1989).

Against this backdrop, it is becoming apparent that leadership is having to cope with the demands of hyperturbulent and dynamic environments which are increasingly being based on flatter structures, and a more democratic style of leadership. Lewis, Goodman and Fandt (1998, p. 14, cited by Beeka, 2006, p. 26) maintain that organisations “are faced with a condition of rapid, dramatic, complex and unpredictable change that has a significant effect on the ways in which organisations are managed.” Coetzee and Schaap (2005) postulate that leadership takes into consideration the emotional attributes as well as the rational aspects of the individual, as leadership, relationships and the culture of the organisation play an important role in an organisations’ success (Nowack,n.d).

Beeka (2006, p. 11), offers the view that “Leadership is the single most important catalyst for change in any country or organisation”. It is hence imperative for organisations to ensure that they and their employees are prepared for change. Ndlovu and Parumasur (2005) maintain that tremendous pressure is put on organisations to improve their performance and increase their competitiveness in this continuously changing world of work, which is characterised by life-long learning, risk taking, speed and change, networking and measuring outputs (Wentzel & Geldenhuis, 2005).

Pienaar (2005) maintains that the academic profession is central to the functioning of any university. He posits the view that, without well qualified and committed academic staff, no academic institution can ensure sustainability. This is due to the fact that higher education institutions are likely to be more dependent on the intellectual and creative abilities and commitment of their academic staff than most other organisations (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua & Stough, 2001; Küskü, 2003; Pienaar, 2005).

In a study conducted by Anderson, Richard and Saha (2002), it is reported that Australian higher education institutions are being compelled to ensure that retention of academics become a strategic priority, given that approximately 68% of the academic staff reported that they wished to leave higher education. Although not as problematic in South African higher education institutions, available data suggests that between 5% and 18% of academics leave higher education institutions (Koen, 2003). Robyn and du Preez (2012) report that approximately 32% of academics will reach retirement within the next 10 years. While it is deemed expedient to ensure retention of academic staff due to the difficulties in replacing knowledge, skills and experience of academic staff (Simmons, 2002, cited in Pienaar & Bester, 2006), Robyn and du Preez (2012) maintain that a long term trajectory of excellence in research and teaching, necessitates the retention and development of young skilled academics.

Research undertaken by Anderson et al. (2002) among academics in Australian universities, suggests that 79% of the respondents respectively believe that the image and status of an academic career are declining. Phillips and Connell (2003) surmise that it becomes acutely apparent that the management responsible for higher education institutions need to heed these trends, and institute remedial measures. The intellectual and creative abilities of academic staff determine the survival and sustainability of higher education institutions (Martin, 1999; Pienaar, 2005). Consequently, in order to function effectively, higher education institutions are, to a large extent, dependent on the commitment of academics.

South Africa is deemed to be a resource-based economy and needs to join the ranks of a knowledge-based economy. This implies that this country is a medium knowledge producing system because of insufficient capacity to produce optimally in the HE system (Badsha & Cloete, 2012, cited by May, 2012).

The insufficient delivery of HE relative to knowledge workers and the ability to commercialise scientific results also contribute to South Africa being only a medium based knowledge producing country (van Niewenhuizen, 2012, cited by May 2012).

1.1 BACKGROUND RATIONALE

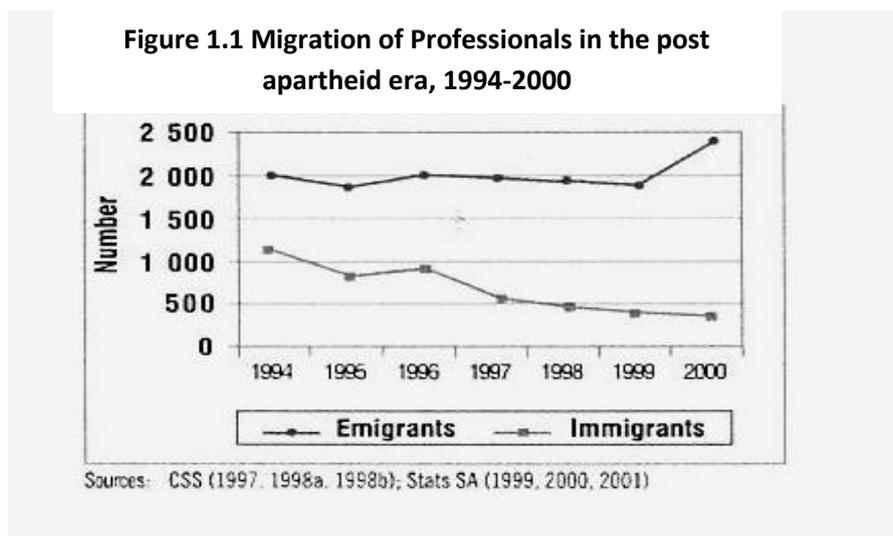
According to Ramphele (2012) values form the basis for transactions between people and a dysfunctional education system undermines not only human development, but the inculcation of the values needed for a principled society. Ramphele (2012) further argues that in the South African context, there is a need to transition from old to new value systems because of the shifting socio-economic and political transitions. This requires shared value systems to govern public life and relationships between people to manage shared resources. Our required conduct in South Africa is encapsulated in our national constitution where values based human rights provide a framework for

our multicultural society. South Africans need to ensure a strong culture of accountability to establish the link between work and excellence.

Bloch (2009) suggests that there is insufficient evidence to show that efforts intended to improve education are progressing at fast enough rates, and lists deteriorating standards of education and incongruence between tertiary and higher education systems, as obstacles to development.

Research by Terreblanche (2002) indicates that half of the South African population is still relatively uneducated; hence it is an issue of national importance and enjoys priority on the national government's agenda. This is because the historical persecution of selected groups still impacts the country's ability to grow, a condition which is compounded by compulsory sub-standard education and differential access to opportunities for intellectual development.

Knowledge is a key resource, which can link employees to the concept of borderlessness because it travels effortlessly (Drucker, 2001). However, given disparities in education, past social and political circumstances continue to exacerbate the loss of South Africans with critical skills. The loss of skilled people in South Africa is depicted in figure 1.1, which demonstrates that South Africa is consistently losing more professionals than it is gaining. The rapid change between 1999 and 2000 (a loss in excess of 1500) suggests that this trend is likely to continue.



Source: Bailey (2003).

This trend is also likely to be apparent in academia. Kaniki, Schirge, Maepa, Netshihefhe, Di Santolo, and Tsebe (2008) cite an example which indicates that, only half of the original sample of young researchers who are classified by the NRF as Y-rated researchers (younger than 35 years of age) in the natural sciences and engineering, remained in South African academia.

Hence, a study of this nature, that is, to establish what would be effective retention measures for HEI's to retain academics, is necessitated. Of greatest concern is the trend that the greatest brain drain was occurring within the younger age groups as depicted in figure 1.2.

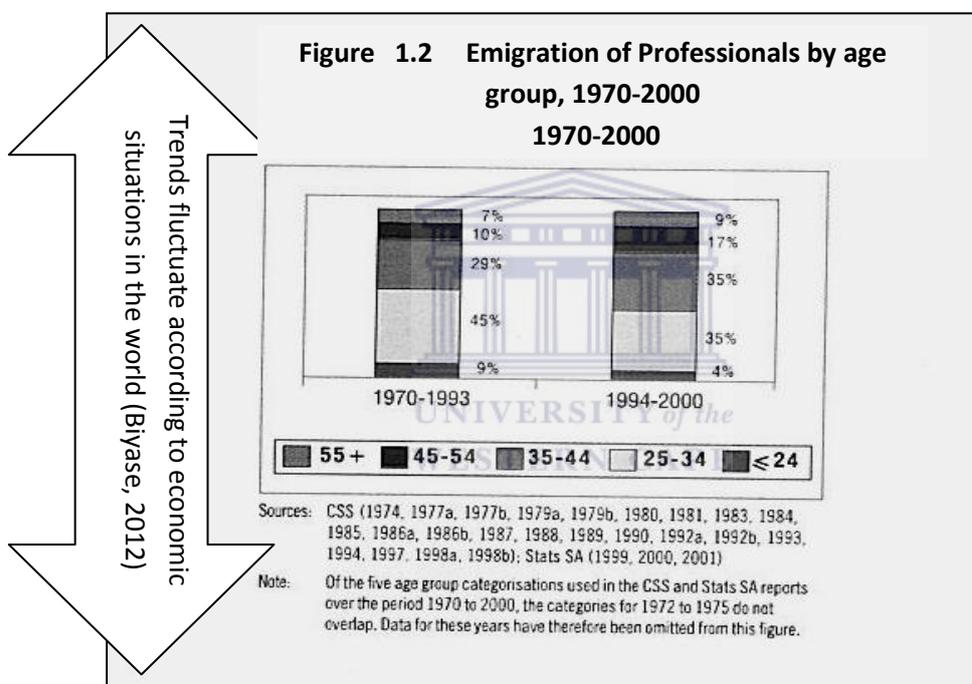


Figure 1.2 shows the emigration of South African professionals relative to their age group. Juxtaposed against this, however, more recent research (Biyase, 2012, p. 5) indicates that “Skills leaving South Africa is definitely on the decline”. A corollary of this is that trends in South Africa indicate that more opportunities are emerging in South Africa, and that internationally, South Africa is in higher demand than before. This situation is postulated to be a result of the financial market confidence which inspires more confidence than in the rest of the world (Biyase, 2012).

Table 1.1 provides an indication of the number of academic staff in Higher Education (HE) within SA. Although the African, Coloured, and Indian staff have increased, the table shows an overall decrease in total numbers from 45 217 to 43 446. A loss of 1 771 academic staff members is particularly significant in growing academic needs areas, and ultimately, this loss of academic staff in HE, disadvantages any academic project.

Table 1.1: All Academic staff in HE in SA during 2003-2009 by population group

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
African	9,615	9,127	9,711	10,352	9,875	10,494	12,169
Coloured	2,049	1,861	1,831	1,960	2,136	2,176	2,263
Indian	3,583	3,352	3,485	3,818	3,705	3,730	3,656
White	27,863	25,745	24,348	25,656	24,199	24,009	25,067
Unknown	2,107	1,435	1,280	1,537	1,468	1,329	0,291
Total	45,217	41,521	40,655	43,323	41,383	41,738	43,446

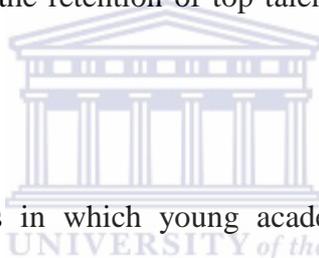
Source: HESA, 2011:7 –“The next generation of academic leaders”.

Careers in education are often unappealing to the younger generations because of a perceived lack of reward. Institutional cultures are also unable to embrace new South African realities fully and Terreblanche (2002) suggests that multiculturalism and diversity still need to be mastered by many South Africans.

The age dynamic is another challenge in securing the next generation of academic staff. While retirement is imminent for the majority of senior staff members (classified in the baby-boomer category), it is unclear if the next generation is willing to replace them (Badat, 2009).

A study to attract and to retain the next generation of academic staff is hence likely to support the national initiative established by Higher Education of South Africa (HESA, 2011 p. 1) "to develop the next Generation of Academics for South African Higher Education".

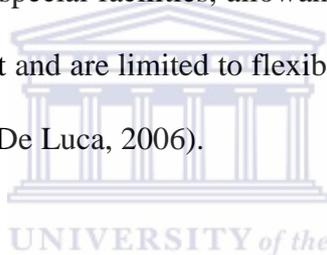
There is a need for higher education to develop a better understanding of the younger generations, specifically the new millenniums (generation Y) and the generation X²-r's (usually parents of the millenniums). This dynamic requires further research and attention to highlight the factors underlying the present situation in the academic world (Twenge, Stacey, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010). Processes for identifying talent for the higher education system have not been established because there is a lack of understanding of the needs, values, and talents of individuals who choose a career in this sector. Schmidt and Schmidt (2010) identified the value of fostering a sense of engagement for enhancing the retention of top talent which was rated as more salient in comparison to financial incentives.



Universities are complex structures in which young academics need support and recognition because they are required to interact with a diverse and growing student population. The transformational agenda in the South African context, including eleven official languages, is demanding and the effects of the past education system, are still evident in schools, with students generally being ill-prepared to enter higher education (Bloch, 2009). Badat (2009) acknowledges that although the HESA project to establish the next generation of academic staff is not a panacea for all the problems in education, it is likely to improve the situation. However the proposal drawn up by HESA-“Next Generation of Academic Staff” (2011) is unclear on how the cultural aspects of intrinsic work value satisfaction should be addressed.

Research suggests that a variety of factors play a role in the success of attracting and retaining talent for key roles. These factors include effective recruitment, professional orientation programmes, early job challenges, frequent and constructive feedback, the impact of a first line leader, mentor relationships, and focus on the concept of career anchors, defined as “a cluster of self-perceived talents, motives and values that form the nucleus of a person’s occupational self-concept” (Schein, 1996, p. 155). Some studies highlight the extrinsic needs of academic employees as a means to recruit and to retain them for HE.

Offering financial incentives is the major strategy in attracting and retaining academic staff. These typically assume the form of direct incentives (in the form of more than normal HE market related salaries) or indirect (research funds, special facilities, allowances, and performance bonuses). Non-financial incentives are less prevalent and are limited to flexible working times, research assistance, and reduced course loads (Kubler & De Luca, 2006).



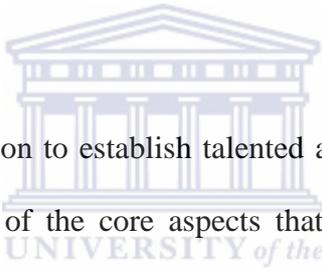
It can be reasoned within the theory of Herzberg (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991) that basic factors (such as salary and benefits) need to be addressed before an individual can achieve satisfaction with intrinsic values. Focused studies also show that employees value non-monetary factors within their frame of reference. Kovach (1987), for example, found that intrinsic rewards are the motivational tasks individuals engage in for enjoyment and to experience value and meaning in life, and maintains that money is an extrinsic need that loses its impact on employees because it is only a short-term motivator. Herzberg’s theory supports this view based on his classification of money as a hygiene factor (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Csikszentmihaly (1990) maintains that unhappiness in the workplace is caused by unfulfilled intrinsic factors: it involves the quality experience of a job rather than material interests.

Comparative research undertaken in eleven countries suggests that values important to people, attached to work, are all intrinsic and related to self-fulfillment (Sverko & Super, 1995, cited by Werner, 2011). It can therefore be concluded that factors outside the tangible reward ambit are likely to play a central role in choosing a workplace. Consequently, Badat (2009) suggests that the task of building the next generation of academic staff in South Africa seems daunting, particularly when emigration statistics and age profiles are examined in detail.

The current predicament can be attributed to the previous political dispensation that reserved quality education for the white population and failed to provide for a future in which all citizens would have the right to equal education (Terreblance, 2002).

1.2 INTRODUCTION

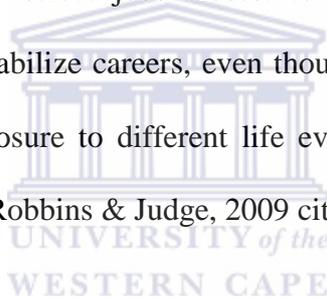


The growing need in Higher Education to establish talented academic staff as dedicated academic professionals calls for investigation of the core aspects that can motivate individuals to choose academia as a career. It is necessary to analyse literature and theory concerning work values, culture, and leadership in workplaces (with a specific focus on universities) to obtain a comprehensive view of how work values may influence career choices in specific generational categories. These three concepts are interdependent in a workplace and are therefore explored in the context of one another. Due to the fact that the general employment market is a fierce competitor for professional talent, the broader view also remains relevant. This lends credence to the necessity for exploring desired workplace values to enable enhanced people practices in universities.

It is also important to have an understanding of the emerging challenges in HE as a working environment. A challenging aspect is determining fundamental motivators that remain long-term influencers in driving career choices. It is therefore deemed expedient to identify the specific incentives that inspire potential candidates to view an academic career as a primary choice.

Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) postulate that people with a strong career calling are likely to experience higher job satisfaction. They maintain further that work values and career motives relate to finding meaning in a profession, and this meaning is associated with an ideal career path (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). Schein (1996, p. 11) supports the view that values steer individuals to a specific “place within spaces”. Moreover, he claims that “values are more fundamental than preferences and interests because values indicate qualities or goals sought”.

Career preferences, as they are influenced by values, are positioned as a key consideration when career decisions are made. Career values in particular are deemed to be important motivators for these choices (Brousseau, 1990). Similarly, Judge and Betz (1992) produced research findings indicating that people will tend to select jobs closest to their own value orientation. Value orientation tends to dominate and stabilize careers, even though clusters of values are more likely than a single value focus. The exposure to different life events, times and technology result in different values across generations (Robbins & Judge, 2009 cited in Werner, 2011).



The younger generational groups –generation Y (the new millenniums, born after 1980) and the generation X’rs (born between 1960 and 1980), constitute the groups of primary concern because it is currently unclear how their value preferences may serve to attract and to retain them for long-term academic careers in Higher Education Institutions. Investigating the interaction of individuals in the younger generational groups with the HE system, specifically in a university in the Western Cape, could highlight values that can influence career choices.

This information could serve as an impetus to assist universities to create a workplace that is more desirable to younger generations, thereby positioning HE as a prime employer. An awareness of the preferences of current and potential knowledge workers in the younger generations will be explored by analysing research of the work values linked to career choices, particularly in the context of

work values manifesting in the work culture and which are influenced by leadership. The assumptions made from theory of how values are orientated, compared to workplace culture and leadership, are explored to aid the interpretation of research results in the context of these critical workplace dynamics.

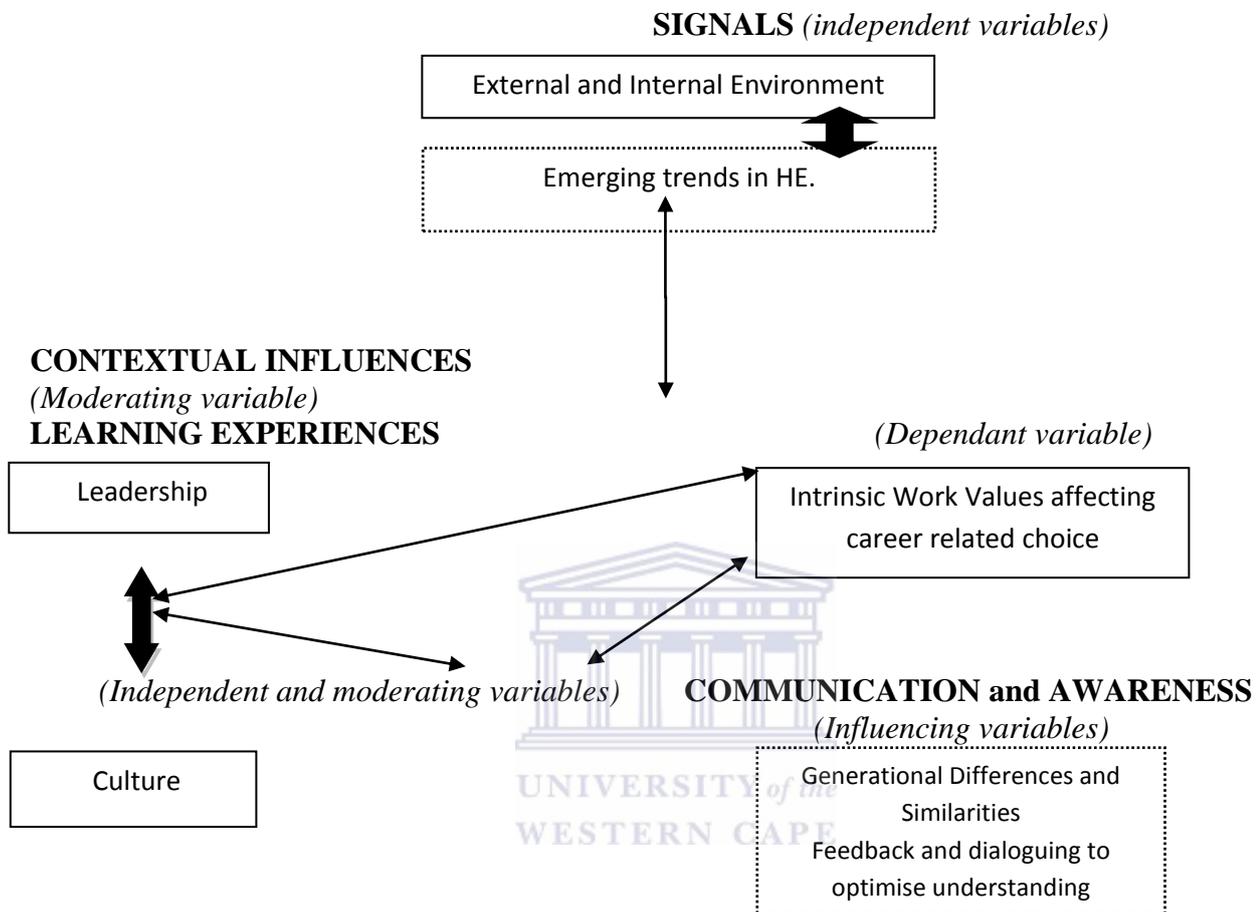
Culture and leadership are mainly the independent and also moderating variables that produce the value outcomes of the workplace. Work values are therefore dependent on culture and leadership, as well as on how individual employees experience the work values of a specific workplace. Organisational Culture and leadership are the critical context issues that lead to the experience of work values.

This particular lens appears to be practically useful for determining work values in an HE context. Leadership and culture in turn are influenced by external and internal factors. The approach adopted for the current research is therefore at a meso-level (within the faculties of a university), with the macro-level theory functioning as a context for comprehensiveness.

The results (which may lead to further research) could have a potentially transformative effect on HE: participative action research could create the higher level of consciousness necessary to identify desired work values in the HE workplace, turning HE into the employer of choice.

Figure 1.3 depicts the conceptual framework (as used in this review) for the different themes and for their relationships with one another.

Figure 1.3: Important Themes impacting on Intrinsic work values.

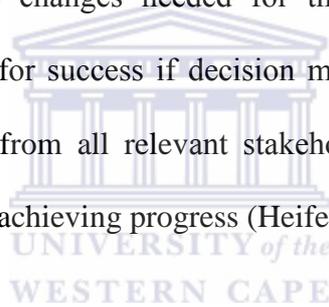


Source: Key themes adapted from Patton and Mc Mahon (2006).

Environmental demands impact on work climate, stemming from constant change, such as changing regulations and fluctuating economic factors and competition being more severe. The workplace's internal change forces add to these complexities with employees making increased demands (Nadler, 1994, cited by Cummings and Worley, 2009). These factors tend to be unexpected challenges, which increases stress factors and also demand receptivity for new ideas, approaches and attitudes to allow for the influencing of future strategies (Bornman, 1992). Kreitner and Kinicki (1992) cite an example of this as the necessity for the changing of workforce values as more women and diversity groups enter the workplace.

The context in which HE functions both nationally and internationally is currently posing many challenges. Work cultures are deemed to be unique because it is "...a complex outcome of external pressures, internal potentials, responses to critical events, and, probably to some unknown degree, chance factors that could not be predicted from a knowledge of either the environment or the members" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992, p. 714).

Changes concerning leadership in workplaces are also emerging, with new models diverting significantly from the deep-rooted view of leadership in which a central individual, or a small group, influences a workplace and its people. To corroborate this, Randall and Coakley (2006, p. 326) suggest that: "The changes needed for the institution to flourish in today's environment have greater potential for success if decision makers view leadership as a 'process' that requires innovation and input from all relevant stakeholders." This method, referred to as adaptive leadership, is necessary for achieving progress (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).



Given the aforementioned, Pounder (2002) posits the view that flexibility is required to ensure that substantive changes occur within HE. This appeal for more openness to change is also advocated by McCauley (2010), who poses change fitness as a collective of leadership, beliefs, and practices (a leadership culture) to replace the focus away from single individuals as leaders of others. McCauley (2010) also cites McGuire and Rhodes (2009) indicating leadership processes to be a leverage for the transformation of culture.

Robertson and Swann (2003) maintain that culture needs to be flexible to allow for ambiguity, which leads to the optimal functioning of knowledge workers. This is because culture is likely to, no longer serve, as the managerial control paradigm introduced by leaders; instead, it needs to be viewed as an agreed set of criteria, originating from a shared vision and mission, intended to

optimise success for the individual and for the system. This thinking also resonates with earlier work done by Strumpfer (1997); who postulates that alignment around core ideas fosters initiative if leaders create a climate of freedom and flexibility in the workplace. These views lead to the interesting challenge of how to consider a shift in HE context for the younger generation to select academia as a career choice in HE.

The themes of work values, leadership, and culture in workplaces are selected as the main influences on intrinsic work values. A study of how to make HE more attractive to young academic talent in the midst of many emerging changes may oppose longstanding worldviews in HE as well as the preferred models about how people experience work.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of this research is to establish the work value needs of the younger generations (X and Y) to understand specific work values which will assist employers to structure jobs, working conditions, compensation packages, and human resource practices to make the workplace more attractive to this target audience.

In order to obtain insights of how work values can influence career choices in the younger generations (the millenniums and generation X), it is necessary to analyse literature about work related values, culture, and leadership in workplaces (with a specific focus on universities). Analysing this in the context of HE and the history of different generations, should surface the key challenges concerning factors that will enable a more stable future generation of academic staff in the HEI where the research was undertaken and could serve as a resource to assist other HEIs experiencing similar challenges in South Africa.

Investigating university life as a workplace requires current younger academic staff to establish their current workplace experiences and desired workplace values first-hand.

- To ascertain what the current perceived workplace values are in two age groups of academic employees in an HEI.
- To determine what the desired workplace values are in two age groups of academic employees in an HEI.
- To establish whether there is any alignment between the current and desired workplace values in two age groups of academic employees in an HEI.
- To offer suggestions to management regarding best practice in order to ensure retention of these groups of academic employees.



1.4 HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference between the desired and currently perceived work values, within each younger academic age group at a university in the Western Cape.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 provides a rationale for the study which indicates the problem of an ever decreasing population of academic staff electing not to follow academic careers; it further introduces the problems in educational standards in South Africa as a result of a historical past of “Apartheid” resulting in a legacy of poor educational standards. An overview of the important themes of the research, namely external and internal change and its impacts on leadership, culture and work values are depicted within the context of generational differences; which then leads to the objectives

and hypotheses of the study which centres on reaching a certain understanding of work values in an academic institution.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature on work values and how it is impacted by generational differences, workplace culture and leadership in general. It proceeds to focus on the literature which pertains more specifically to HE and evolving transformational needs within an educational setting. The context of HE's emerging changes are also highlighted.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology, research design and methodological aspects of the study. More specifically, the population and sample are described, the data collection procedure, measuring instrument and data analysis techniques which were utilised to test the hypotheses, are outlined and their suitability and applications are highlighted.

Chapter 4 presents the most salient research findings which emerged, provides a general feel for the data, and interprets the descriptive and inferential results which were obtained.

Chapter 5 provides an insight into how the results may be juxtaposed against other similar research, presents a critical engagement of previous research findings relative to the current research, discusses the limitations of the study and offers recommendations with respect to future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This literature review explores measures that Higher Education Institutions (HEI's) need to consider when working with younger generations of potential academic employees. It focuses on ways in which work values can attract and retain the younger group of academic staff to stabilize within a career in academia. Generational differences regarding work values can impact the perceived alignment of employees with their workplace. Work values are explored in the context of various other factors to demonstrate how they influence decisions made by younger employees.

The basis for evaluating the environment in which individuals live with their work values is presented based on macro-level and meso-level research views to contextualise the findings for the university as it exists in the global and national context as a higher educational institution. The essential focus relates to work values as a director of career choices and on the interpretation of work values relative to work culture (as it manifests through leadership in the workplace). It is necessary to understand the way employees experience work culture and leadership, as well as the impact of these two factors on groups and individuals (relative to how they interpret real and perceived work values; relative to desired work values).

2.2 THE CONTEXT OF HIGHER EDUCATION (HE) AND THE EMERGING CHANGES

The UNESCO report of 2005 highlights the need for a country to foster its individual version of the global knowledge society: understanding this implies Higher Education (HE) is the conduit to a better future. To support the national development agenda, a society needs its own HE and its citizens need to accept the relevance of higher learning, with specific strategies to support the growth of the country. Some important changes that are affecting the HE system need to be analysed to anticipate the adaptive strategies required in HE better. Massification is changing patterns of knowledge production (“consider that the global student population could reach 150 million by 2025”). Institutional diversification has become essential in order to achieve the development of a national, skilled Human Resource. Engagement with both regional and local governments to accurately determine priorities for learning is also essential.

(UNESCO, 2005, p. 17).

HE has proceeded from a niche service from which a small group benefitted to a mass-market service demanding more diversity awareness, driven by “market” forces; with the maturation of these “markets” quality will become the main differentiator. South Africa is a late entrant in the quality assurance world, systems needs to be adopted following the example of other countries, and valuable lessons may be learned from later developments in this regard as can be found in India, Latin America and Eastern Europe. The HEQC (Higher Education Quality Assurance) are ensuring that graduate programmes are responsive to the Human Resource needs in the country

(Singh, 2002).

In South Africa, the redressing of inequalities in terms of historical imbalances related particularly to race and gender, demands transformational thinking that is not embraced by all academic thinking. Fourie (1999, p. 278) uses the concept of “cognitive transcendence” to indicate that new cultures and the development of new shared work values are essential change elements in the

current HE context because there is a serious need to respond to new realities and opportunities. Research about internationalisation and HE (UNESCO, 2005) indicates that most students studying abroad are from Arab countries rather than from China, as is commonly believed.

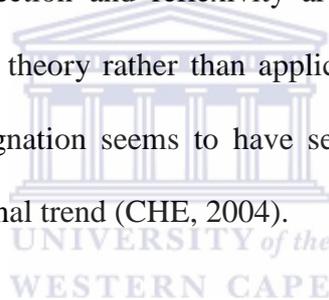
Another emerging trend is the growing interest of African intellectual scholars who choose South Africa as a work destination. This movement is potentially enriching as it provides a diverse and international character to South African higher learning (Higher Education & Training Report, 2011). South Africa has the challenge of responding simultaneously to global trends and to the legacy of Apartheid (Consortium for Higher Education (CHE), 2004).

Quinn (2006) depicts new tertiary educational paradigms in positioning a higher degree of energy in the HE system. These models manifest through learning by taking action or doing, which incorporates more concrete experiences in the learning process. The introduction of more creative processes leads to a departure from the traditional methods of learning in HE. The widening of access leads to open learning, including electronic teaching and learning, a change claimed to be profit driven as it erodes the traditional distinction between distance learning and contact learning. This change area requires more research, but holds the potential to enhance the learning environment (CHE, 2004).

The needed changes in HE will demand much more from lecturing staff that is currently the case (Lotriet, 2012, cited by May, 2012). This notion is supported by Scott (2012, cited by May, 2012) who supports the notion that changed views are required on what curricula are based on because of the need to bridge the gap from school to university; this is the major challenge to translate talent into achievement.

The methodology and mediums used in teaching and learning are also under scrutiny to ensure that knowledge is acquired by candidates. The intellectual complexity of teaching is treated dismissively by some academic staff who favour more technocratic approaches, such as learning a set of skills (Quinn, 2006). This approach ignores both the emotional commitment and the contested field of values and politics. The argument against academic staff development being conceptualised as a skill, focuses on effective public speaking and presentations replacing the academic reasoning and research that stimulates deep thinking.

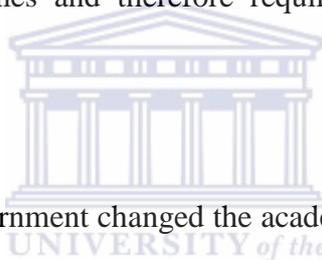
Research grounding is still hailed by many as the key to successful teaching and learning: intellectual content is viewed as primary, while the skills-type approaches are labelled as ‘dumbing down’ (Quinn, 2006). Critical reflection and reflexivity are deemed endangered because their emphasis has been directed to pure theory rather than application. A growing gap in knowledge production exists as a trend of stagnation seems to have set in; it appears that this problem is resource based and it is an international trend (CHE, 2004).



Makondo (2012) reflects on the South African situation, and reasons that a mindset change is a prerequisite for academic excellence and a needed shift is to have Academic Development Centres to ensure that lecturers are optimally equipped to meet the unique South African challenges in HE. Makondo (2012) expresses concern about the emphasis being placed on matters other than teaching; for example dependence on generating private funding, pressure to demonstrate practical relevance, publishing pressures, thus contributing more to the institution and society than to the students' education.

More debates about critical topics, such as academic freedom, managerialism, bureaucracy, increased workloads (also administrative), quality assurance, and accountability, are assessed by some academics as being counterproductive to the academic project because they affect autonomy and academic freedom in a way that limits the production of knowledge (Jonathan, 2006).

Although there is a need for general academic development programmes, no central drive is evident to bring this to reality (Fourie, 1999). Given the heightened attention being accorded to the concepts of managerialism, autonomy and academic freedom, they are argued to be detracting from the action needed to meet the emerging needs in HE. The key argument for academic development is the changing student body: elitism is replaced by masses of students who enter HE with less social capital from their schools and homes and therefore require a different teaching and learning approach (Quinn, 2006).

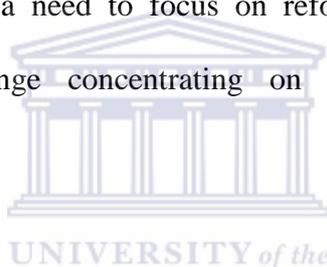


In 1994, the new South African government changed the academic landscape: HE autonomy shifted to that of cooperative governance and conditional autonomy, which for many meant a lesser degree of autonomy and hence diminished academic freedom (CHE, 2006). The absence of regulatory policies across HE creates inconsistencies that can result in misalignment with the national strategic plan, which is important in providing advanced educational opportunities to an expanding population that needs equity of access and redress of resources. The diversification of missions and programme-mix is needed to meet both national and regional needs (CHE, 2004).

It is a challenge to create ambiguity in the working culture, allowing for individual freedom, while still ensuring the overall goals of the institution are supported, integrated, and unimpeded by one another. Participation and engagement in reaching an agreed vision is essential. The shared vision provides the criteria for employees to exist in the workplace in an autonomous way: employees use these criteria to make systemic decisions that serve the collective, while competitive work can still be produced at an individual and small unit level (Strumpfer, 1997).

Knowledge workers in a consulting firm have also reinforced the importance of ambiguity in a culture where they need to produce knowledge; they function optimally when there is the cultural acceptance of ambiguous existence within the workplace (Robertson & Swann, 2003).

Turok (2011) argues that there is a need to focus on reform rather than revolution to effect transformation, a qualitative change concentrating on issues of agreement, rather than disagreements, is required.

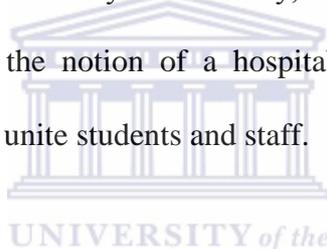


Examining the role of HE in the reconstruction of SA shows evidence of universities shifting towards being more 'open-system' orientated and subject to change impacts, which necessitate responsiveness to accountability and delivery (Buroway, 2010). Buroway further reasons that the new generation of higher learning entrants requires a more flexible and participative approach to ensure optimal delivery of human resources that will meet the strategic needs of South Africa. The twelve per cent participation in higher learning needs to be increased in relation to global trends, which are in the region of 30% and higher.

The Scandinavian countries achieve up to 97% of university entry levels in their populations; this statistic reinforces the thinking that education is part of the new currency (Burroway, 2010).

A new devastation is manifesting with the youth; their desire for material possessions, which is currently unsustainably high, detracts from a needed focus on learning and change requirements in South African society (Soudien, 2011). Students should be challenged to step into a role where they start appreciating environmental dynamics and group awareness as the context for growth. Another challenge for consideration is determining which values can leverage collaborations and agreements to bring about transformation. This also demands a consciousness of the self, which includes being aware of one's self and of one's emotions, values, and abilities.

Soudien (2011) makes a further point when he states that the past, through learning and gradual change, should be left behind in order to achieve new effects. He challenges HE to work on areas of sameness where transformation is everyone's reality, and the university itself becomes a transformative idea. He introduces the notion of a hospitable university, which highlights the concept of creating new cultures that unite students and staff.



A desired outcome of the changing academic environment is the need to challenge the status quo regarding leadership thinking. Current leadership models focus on collegiality to engage faculty and are concerned with satisfying departmental needs over those of the overall university, but taking the bigger systemic needs of the university into consideration is perhaps needed to achieve its mission and goals (Randall & Coakley, 2006). The Leadership Foundation for Higher Education in the United Kingdom published research in March 2012, indicating that participants differentiate academic leadership from academic management and their view is that leadership exists when people work for the benefit of the group.

The research further found that leadership is amplified when the leadership component reinforces academic values and identities; whilst the management part is about academic tasks and processes; thus inevitably introducing business-like and entrepreneurial approaches to leadership and management in universities; leading to hybrid academic administrative roles; which leads to alignment to the overall objectives (Bolden, Gosling, O'Brien, Peters, Ryan & Haslam, 2012).

Robertson and Swann (2003) claim that fulfilment of individual needs and overarching collective goals is possible and positions that it is critical to allow for ambiguity in the culture to allow for specific individual needs. Adaptiveness is emphasised in the sense of the relationship between the organisation and the stakeholders. This requires an understanding of how the younger generations may be different from the older ones: their historical contexts are different, and the younger generations, unlike their predecessors, were exposed to digital technology from an early age (Sujansky, 2010). Generations have dissimilar histories.

Youth surveys conducted by cell-phone in South Africa indicate that a majority of the youth sample have lost confidence in the leadership of the country; the context is that of lack of employment opportunities and good education (Matlala, 2012).

2.3 GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES

A generational cohort is described by Rhyder (1965, cited by Thompson, 2011, p. 1), as a "group of individuals similar in age who have experienced the same time period". Thompson (2011) argues that determining generational levels remains imprecise and complicated; but that the cut-offs provide for greater understanding of human behaviour, as it is noted that landmark events do shape one generation from another. A generation's exposure will be a key determinant as to how they respond and how their outlooks are affected.

Some key events, according to Thompson (2011), affecting generation X relate to the energy crisis, dual income families, having to take care of themselves more, single parents, activism and corporate downsizing. The generation Y group in turn, experienced digital media, were in a child-focused world, were protected, kept busy as children with schedules, came of age in a time of economic prosperity, experienced school aggressive behaviours and even crime, typically grew up as children from a divorce, with aspirations to be the generation to right the wrongs in the world .

Hofstede (1991) states that different values and practices between generations are to be expected because typical attributes of an age group tend to be repeated. He also stresses that historical events and technology affect generations in a unique way. People tend to be shaped by the places they grow up in and by date of birth. The motivations and frustrations of the younger generations need to be understood to inform future employer practices: if employers want to establish a cadre of high performers, they need to consider the expectations of the younger generations (Erickson, 2010). This notion is a demanding one, because there are currently four generations of employees in the HE workplace (Sujansky, 2010): the veterans also termed the silent generation, the Baby Boomers, generation X, and generation Y. The veterans are a small group and tend to focus on research and student mentoring. There are insufficient numbers of younger people (from generations X and Y) entering an academic career (Badat, 2009).

The Baby Boomers (born between 1941 and 1959) currently hold much of the research achievements in South Africa: they are solidly entrenched in HE and appear reluctant to retire (Badat, 2009). The generation X group (born between 1960 and 1980) often resents the baby boomers' seemingly different value system and resilience to remain in the workplace. The generation X group's ability to overcome intimidation by authority differs substantially from the older generations' tendency to respect authority (Sujansky, 2010).

The new millenniums (also spelled Millennialls) (generation Y, born after 1980) are perceived to need much attention (a characteristic that has earned them the label “attention sponges”). Since the new millenniums appear to have an affinity with the baby boomers, the generation X’rs are left feeling stranded amid complex dynamics (Hewlett, Sherbin & Sumberg 2009). The generation X group tends to be self-reliant, but also to have a preference for collective grouping. The new millenniums prefer collective action, a quality they have in common with the generation X group (Sujansky, 2010).

A greater understanding of the younger generations, and their motivations to choose certain careers, can be found in their formative years. Erickson (2010) established the following contrast in mind-set between the baby boomers and the generation X leaders who are poised to take senior executive roles: unlike the Baby Boomers, the generation X leaders are seeking to find new ways to move away from the status quo definitions of how to work and how to live. The reasons for different mind-sets are found in the formation years: the Baby Boomers and the generation X group grew up in different environments. The Baby Boomers are highly competitive because they were raised to be confident in a world deemed too small for them (a world easily conquered), whereas the generation X group lived during times of economic uncertainty and domestic and social change: high divorce rates meant many grew up in single parent families, and children often experienced being left home alone from an early age. Witnessing parents retrenched made many children from the generation X era wary of work commitments.

Because they grew up with digital technologies, they have a strong network building orientation and tend to look outward for solutions. They embrace complexity and deal well with disruptive issues. They are comfortable with the concept of multiple solutions to a problem and have a multidimensional approach to life. It is important to the generation X group to understand what ties them together to be part of a collective; they also shape identity between work and personal values.

Finding balance between work and life is a priority for them because their parents failed to achieve it. The generation X group respects their personal values and the group values of the organisation (Erickson, 2010).

The generation X adults concern themselves with more traditional leadership issues, such as attracting, retaining, and motivating others. Their rich, multicultural backgrounds have equipped them for dealing with diversity. Interviews performed in America indicate they have strong value orientated sensibilities that result from childhood experiences (Twenge, et al, 2010). These characteristics might be inconsistent among South Africans because political inequality was only righted in 1994 (Terreblanche, 2002). Historical struggles probably caused a lag in the South African generational development.



Erickson (2010) also claims that the generation X group is more prepared to trade idealism for realism, a trait potentially useful to future organisations. Disparate life experiences influence a generation's value of extrinsic rewards. Adults who suffered previously from economic hardships will likely place a greater value on compensation. The younger generations in general also tend to place a high value on materialistic gain. (Twenge, et al., 2010).

South African research done by Masibigiri and Nienaber (2011) into the factors that affect the generation X group in the public service sector corroborates international findings and concludes that intrinsic work factors are most important to this group. Most interviewees, all graduates, indicated that their salaries were adequate in relation to the work performed; poor remuneration was blamed on the employer not using their skills optimally; it was seen as not being valued. There is also a difference from literature regarding this research group, valuing security and placing family needs first, as opposed to make risky career changes.

Research done in America indicates that during the economic downturn, the generation Y in particular attached less value to financial rewards; but prefers a re-mix of benefits that include flexibility and opportunities to give back to society (Hewlett, et al, 2009). Meister and Willyerd (2010) surmise that, based on research conducted on the four generations currently in the workplace, the new Millennials (Y generation), are the most socially conscious generation since the 1960s. They are also the first generation which takes technology in all its different forms for granted (Werner, 2011).

The new millenniums view work as more than a separate entity that needs to be balanced: work is an integral part of their lives. Since they tend to outnumber the generation X group, it is important to consider how to prepare them adequately for the workplace. Fulfilling a sense of purpose is a crucial factor for the new millenniums in making job decisions.

The Millennials also have a need to make new friends, learn new skills, and work towards a higher purpose. Due to the contention that intrinsic rewards, which focus more on meaning of work, are reportedly highly valued by both the X and Y generations, workplaces are aligning their policies with identified intrinsic values by increasing autonomy and instituting practices that enable more participation in work processes and decision-making (Twenge, et al, 2010). The research results listed in table 2.1 indicate what the younger generations want to learn and what they require from their leaders and company.

Table 2.1: Millennium’s (Generation Y) expectations from the workplace

FROM LEADERSHIP	FROM THE COMPANY	DESIRE TO LEARN
Help with career pathing	Develop my skills for the future-High ambition is evident.	Technical skills in area of work
Straight feedback	Has strong values	Self-management and personal productivity
Mentoring and coaching	Customisation of rewards to include non-monetary aspects of work life.	Leadership
Multi-cultures’ leadership ability	Diversity competence	Naturally comfortable with multicultural environments
Sponsoring for formal development	Allows for blending work with life	Industry or functional knowledge
Acceptance with flexible scheduling	Offers a clear career path	Creativity and innovation strategies
An orientation to eco-awareness	Networking opportunities	Learn through relationship building

Source: Adapted from Meister and Willyerd (2010);also Hewlett, Sherbin ,and Sumberg (2009).

Meister and Willyerd (2010) identified a major gap between the younger generations’ high need for feedback and the current managers’ inability to fulfill this task. A similar study, focusing on generation Y- MBA students, done at the University of Cape Town, in the context of South Africa shows similar findings, in which much emphasis was placed on flexibility, work-life balance, mobility, career development opportunities, giving back to society and most importantly, 62 % of the respondents rated exciting work as a priority (Russo & Ronnie, 2010).

The need to feel valued, empowered and engaged at work is not generationally specific: it applies to all employees. Employees want to feel that they are continuously growing and learning: they desire job flexibility and they want feedback. The older generations are less vocal about these shared needs. A distinction can be made between age differences, regarding needs at a point in one’s lifecycle, and generational differences relative to history and technology (Twenge, et al, 2010).

Russo and Ronnie (2010) state that a consistent policy and practice approach will not be effective for this generation and that generation Y will impact traditional HR policies and practice by them requiring more flexibility. As this indicates generations are affected by general trends in society.

The naming of generations is to recognize their conformist and civic instincts:

1. The Boomers earned the name after the world war as a result of the increase in population.
2. The generation X naming is a result of an unknown; and lack of consistent personality of a generation.
3. The Millennials came of age at the turn of the new century and therefore earned the name of Millennials.

Thompson (2011) adds other traits to millennials such as high levels of self expression, liberal tendencies, and openness to change, being impatient and selfish. This age cohort is also addicted to multi tasking and technology. The latter may be the cause of their need for instant gratification; which can affect their work when it comes to longer term projects, which may lead to frustration and can affect retention. The Millennials have a high desire for self actualization which is something they have in common with the Baby Boomers. In addition, they crave intangible rewards of which individualized attention and respect rate the highest, this is a result from their sheltered childhoods. Employee engagement is hailed by Thompson (2011) as a top priority for this age group, and being entrusted with leadership tasks gives them ownership which enhances their retention. Furthermore, access to the best technology serves as an important factor in their working lives.

2.4 WORK VALUES AND THEIR IMPACT ON CAREER CHOICES

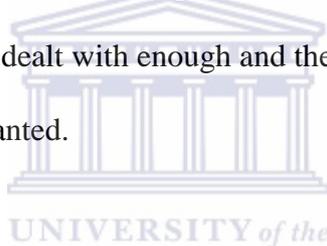
Values relate to the conviction that "specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence" (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003, p.37). Values have both content and intensity attributes, content refers to a mode of conduct or end state of existence as important; whilst intensity attributes specify the importance of the value. Ranking values according to intensity represents an individual's, team's or workplace's value system. Values tend to be reasonably stable and influence attitudes and behaviours. Allowing employees to voice their opinions about work values would be a constructive feedback mechanism to bring about active change. Passivity and inertia about negative work values in turn creates job dissatisfaction (Robbins, et al., 2003).

Several studies confirm that work values vary among groups but that people in the same occupations or categories tend to hold similar opinions about work values. This is proven where a great deal of overlap has been found among groups; as well as significant differences. Cohorts of people entering the workforce at similar historical times also show similarities of work value preferences. This understanding that individuals differ but tend to reflect societal values of the period in which they grew up in, is a valuable aid to understanding behaviour. People tend to gravitate towards jobs that are compatible with their values which are known to influence their attitudes and behaviour. Should there be a dissonance between a person's desired work values and what they experience, it is likely to create complexity and the risk to poor performance and the person leaving the workplace (Robbins, et al., 2003).

Pay considerations for this generation requires a strong rewards package which must include intrinsic rewards; this can also compensate for lack of tangible monetary compensation.

Research done by Thompson (2011) indicates that it rates second highest in research done; but compared to other research where it only rates ninth next to advancement, good colleagues, and work life balance. They seem to favour growth and advancement over pay. The relatively high rating for pay is also interpreted by Thompson (2011) as a form of feedback as workplaces tend to reward good performance with pay which gives significant messages to people.

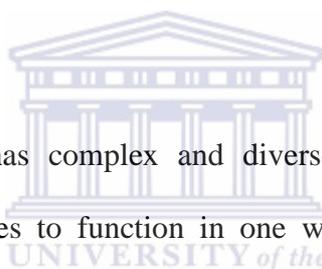
Diversity is an important factor for both generations X and the Millennials; but the latter has grown more comfortable with diversity and tends to see it as part of everyday life (Thompson, 2011). This shows in the Millennials results of this research as the highest rating for current work values but chosen as less important in the desired part of the survey (35% to 21% selections); whilst the generation X group only selected it in a priority position (29%) for the current choice of a work value, this may be signaling that it is dealt with enough and they desire less focus on diversity for an ideal culture as it can be taken for granted.



A study on the retention of generation Y academic staff was done by Robyn and Du Preez (2012). The result of their research is that the retention of the generation Y academic staff is a major concern in HEI's. The most important factors driving them to leave the university employment are employee engagement and job satisfaction. This, according to the researchers, can be counteracted by introducing performance management processes that are reflective of career goals and promotional opportunities; the image of the university is also important and the profiling of the university as an institution that contributes to society will have a retention value for this age group; creating work practices that enhance variety in work, autonomy and learning opportunities will meet critical work value needs; academic leaders must be equipped to both understand and play a more prominent leadership role, specifically with the view to more employee engagement.

Another study on the retention of academic staff in their early career phases, at one specific university in South Africa, also indicates the dangers of not adequately retaining enough numbers of academic staff for HE in South Africa in which turnover ranges from 5 to 18 % (Pienaar & Bester, 2006, p. 32). Reasons for these losses are cited as lack of feedback and mentoring and also a declining image of the academic career. Other factors highlighted for consideration are, autonomy, flexibility, and not enough opportunities to do meaningful work.

Their conclusions also concur with other findings that HE needs to bring in change to take heed of the younger academic staff's career concerns by addressing work-life balance; quality of work life; problematic collegial relationships and also a focus to improve the remuneration levels of academic staff.

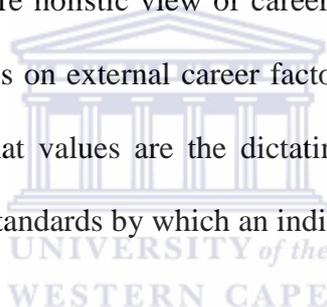


Since the HE workplace in SA has complex and diverse work values, the integration and consolidation of diverse work values to function in one workplace, is a complicated exercise. University educated employees in general need to become more aware of their own work values for three reasons: to enable more conscious career decision-making, to develop awareness of the need for a level of congruence with prospective careers and workplace options, and to ascertain how their work values are satisfied in their current roles (Greenhaus, 1987). Awareness of the status of work value needs for both employer and employee is required to improve alignment, which should provide information leading to dialogues intended to optimise understanding.

Twenge, et al. (2010) maintain that there is a need to determine how the status quo can be changed towards a more desired work value system for all parties involved. This realigned mind-set leads to a workplace culture and climate that has a social capital and “bonding” enhancement in the context of work-life quality; the effort made to invest in the social experience to increase work-life quality contributes to employee stability (Carmeli, Ben-Hador, Waldman, & Rupp, 2009).

Bergh (2011) states that people who work in an environment where their values are recognized tend to be more content as employees. Moreover, Chalmers (1996) postulates that, because values form the basis of self-conception, they significantly influence the behaviours that create cultural norms. Stapp (2007) also views values as arising from self-image: this forms what individuals believe themselves to be in a particular context (self-image therefore forms an individual's perception of values in a particular context).

The emerging career theory of Brown (2003, cited by Patton & McMahon, 2006), focuses on work values as the main determinant of career decisions because people match self-knowledge with work knowledge. Brown establishes a more holistic view of career decision-making as a concept; he is critical of the excessive current focus on external career factors. Brown (2003), as cited by Patton and McMahon (2006), maintains that values are the dictating factor for cognitive and affective behavioural patterns: values set the standards by which an individual decides to function.



In the context of social constructionism, which contends that people create their personal and shared realities through their thoughts and beliefs, values are regarded as a driving force in manifesting objectives verbally, and one should therefore accept that people's values are linked to their actions (Parker, 1998). Patton and McMahon (2006) likewise see career management as a reality created from the inside out, formed in response to environmental interactions. People are therefore regarded as open systems with active agency to create order for the self with symbolic relatedness: they are able to construct ideas within the work context (Patton & McMahon, 2006).

The refinement of needs through interaction with the environment, including socialization, is also pertinent to this concept of value consolidation. As a consequence of socialisation, Super (1995), cited and analysed by Robinson and Betz (2008), believed that people set objectives (as influenced by values) that they pursue to satisfy their needs. People's experiences also lead to the formation of values; they develop intentions and engage in behaviours that are consistent with their preferred values. Furthermore, context plays a role in activating values: "context either strengthens or weakens values relative to behaviours and relationships" (Robinson & Betz, 2008 p. 2).

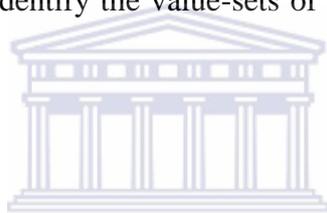
Smit (2011 p. 116) views values from a psychodynamic perspective; she sees values as part of a belief system that people develop gradually. Smit defines values as "the moral principles or standards that we use to guide our conscious behaviour in the world". She proposes that values and beliefs are interconnected, and they originate mainly from personal experiences of interactions, events, and the views of others in the immediate environment. As values are more conscious than beliefs, they tend to operate like self-organising principles in directing behaviour. Smit (2011) also distinguishes between two factors that drive individuals to make changes: attractors (an incentive exists to learn something new), and disturbers (disincentives that prevents new learning). The need to make changes requires choices. People are motivated by either positive or negative drivers to take risks and to pursue new behaviours that promise the achievement of goals (Smit, 2011).

Montero (1998) warns that values are often subjective: they can be directed by the interests and biases of others. Individuals perhaps find meaning only fleetingly. Research yields knowledge that continually influences thinking patterns, thereby introducing change to the environment. Montero (1998) views the systems as being dominated by authority which can prevent people from living according to their own values.

Drucker (2001) predicts that knowledge workers will be the next dominant group in the workforce to create a sustainable future which is the world’s biggest need at this stage of its development. Drucker believes the future is in the hands of the knowledge workers.

Many agree that values play a critical role in career choices, but context influences work value choices. Preferred work values should be analysed in conjunction with existing leadership culture and climate. In South Africa, diversity and historical backgrounds are particularly pertinent, because of the history of segregation amongst racial groups, the values across different generations play a role in the workplace, an analysis of differences and similarities provides important information to help understand the dynamics between generations. Sujansky (2010), independently from Meister and Willyard (2010), identify the value-sets of the different generations in a generic sense (table 2.2).

Table 2.2:



The four generations currently in the workplace

<u>Veterans:</u>	<u>Baby boomers:</u> 1941- 1959	<u>Generation X</u> (1960-1980)	<u>Generation Y</u> (1980→)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hard working • Conformist • Disciplined • Respects authority • Inept with change and technology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal growth • Involvement • Eternal Youth syndrome • Health and wellness • Judgmental • Work equals worth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global thinking • Techno Literate • Fun • Informed • Self reliant • Un-indimidated by authority • Impatient • Reluctant to take on leadership roles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confident • Street smart • Collective action • Techno- savvy • Inexperienced with people issues • Multi task capabilities • Attention “sponges” • Values work life balance

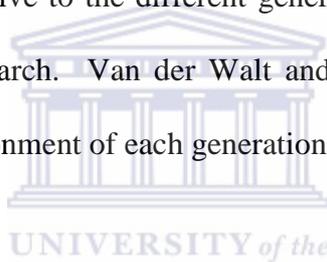
Source: Compiled from Sujansky (2010), and Meister and Willyerd (2010).

Bova and Kroth (2001) depict slight differences for these age categories but this was not considered to be material for this study.

Table 2.2 also reflects the current four generations in a university. The different generations share some common values and attributes. Table 2.2 provides an overview of this concept, although the information is based on international research, it nevertheless provides interesting information that resonates with familiar issues in all workplaces.

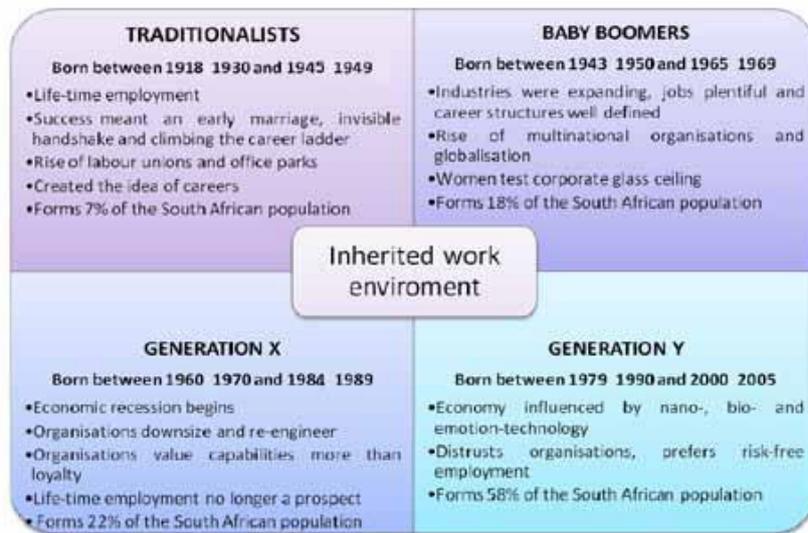
The naming of the generations also vary as follows: Veterans are also listed as Silent Generation, Traditionalists or Pre-Boomers. The Generation X group are also known as Slackers or MTV Generation. The Generation Y are also referred to as NetGen, Milleniums, GenD and Echo Boomers (Van der Walt & du Plessis, 2010).

Research done in South Africa relative to the different generations proves to indicate no material differences to the international research. Van der Walt and du Plessis (2010) indicate research findings on the inherited work environment of each generation which is depicted in table 2.3.



This depict that there are four generations currently in the workplace which requires an understanding of age diversity (Van der Walt & du Plessis, 2010). The categorisation of generations according to birthdates is different across countries. For example Sayers (2007) cited by van der Walt and du Plessis (2010) indicate the following categories for South Africa: Veterans range from 1930 to 1949; Baby Boomers from 1950 to 1969; Generation X from 1970 to 1989 and Generation Y from 1990 to 2005. These are the names used for this study but the age categorization is as indicated in table 2.2.

Table 2.3: Inherited work environment of each generation

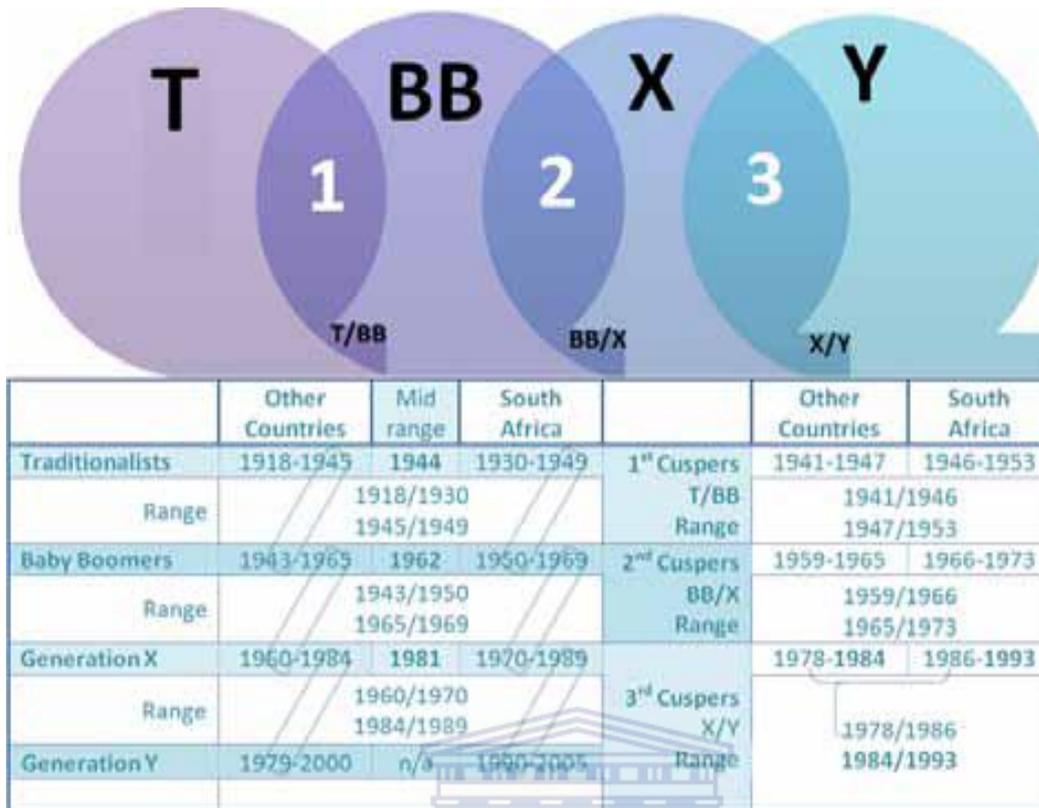


Source: Van der Walt and Du Plessis(2010).



Van der Walt and Du Plessis (2010) also refer to the concept of a cusp period where there may be an overlap with the different years, as illustrated in table 2.4. Considering these cusps, there may be some overlay in the research results; meaning that people born early or late in the generational category may share characteristics of the generations close to their birthdates; but the frequency of the total responses should surface the majority views.

Table 2.4: Cohorts currently active in the workplace



Source: Van der Walt and Du Plessis (2010).

Greenhaus (1987, p. 42) offers a more inclusive perspective: “values are abstract outcomes that a person wants to attain”. A distinction is made between general values and work values. Work values are the outcomes people desire from (and feel they should attain at) work. Work values are the lenses that shape employees’ perceptions and determine workplace preferences. Work values therefore exert influence over attitudes, behaviours, job decisions, and problem-solving approaches (Twenge, et al., 2010).

Intrinsic and extrinsic values are also differentiated to indicate major influences on individuals. Extrinsic values focus on tangible rewards (external to the individual), such as remuneration, promotional opportunities, and increased status. Intrinsic values focus on the following intangible rewards: interest in engaging work, opportunities to learn, freedom to be creative, the chance to help others (or society in general), close interpersonal relationships, more leisure time, autonomy, job stability, and the fulfillment of personal values that are difficult to verbalise. Spargo (2007) makes a distinction between tangible and intangible rewards in the context of the levels of consciousness which builds on the concept of Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy, the understanding is that the individual has a need to transcend the individual levels of being, to also take cognizance of the collective good (Barrett, 1998).

Spargo (2007) identifies the following intrinsic (intangible) rewards values, relative to seven levels of consciousness, devised by Barrett (1998) Figure 2.1: Survival is depicted as an individual's safety and job security; the need for relationships manifests as camaraderie and respect; self-esteem requires recognition and learning; transformation is the point that extends the Maslow's (1970) model by shifting into growth and change renewal in what one does; internal cohesion relates to work values relative to the search for meaning, to reach the 6th level of personal fulfilment by being able to make a difference and lastly people also want to serve humanity by being of service.

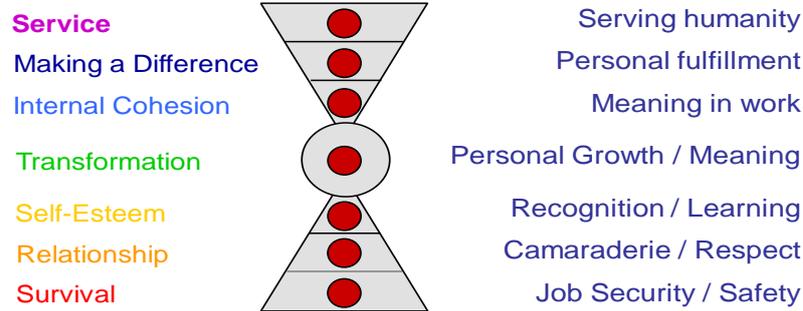
Spargo (2007) also identified the tangible, more extrinsic, seven levels of rewards as follows:

The first level being guaranteed pay, followed by pay equity, then performance, moving up to being aligned with ethos, next the acknowledgment of an internal context, followed by external sensitivity and finally acknowledging the importance of long term sustainability.

The Barrett (1998) mindset is to recognize that people feel they are successful when they are able to experience full spectrum rewards across these seven levels.

Figure 2.1

Full-Spectrum Intangible Rewards



Source: Spargo (2007).

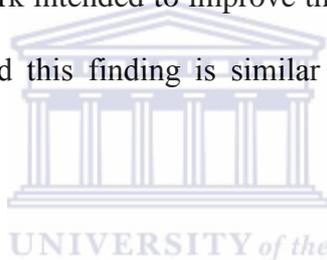
Career planning programmes usually encourage individuals to analyse their values. Practices are available to help individuals determine career choices through values, for example, an inventory designed by Super (1984) provides quantitative scores for different values. Interests are seen to derive from values, while remaining attached to specific tasks and activities.

Individual talents ultimately ensure a certain degree of success in life. People use their value system to measure career success. Although money, status, and possessions are generally the dominant criteria for achievement, knowledge workers tend to have different paradigms on what constitutes success, they attach more value to the contribution and achievement, what the tangible reward provides is a secondary matter (Robertson & Swann, 2003).

Kovach (1987) directed research focusing on work as a positive experience (rather than focusing on extrinsic rewards) to further awareness of how deeper values can be created in the workplace. It is also indicated that extrinsic rewards can decrease the experience of intrinsic rewards (Kovach, 1987; Pink, 2011).

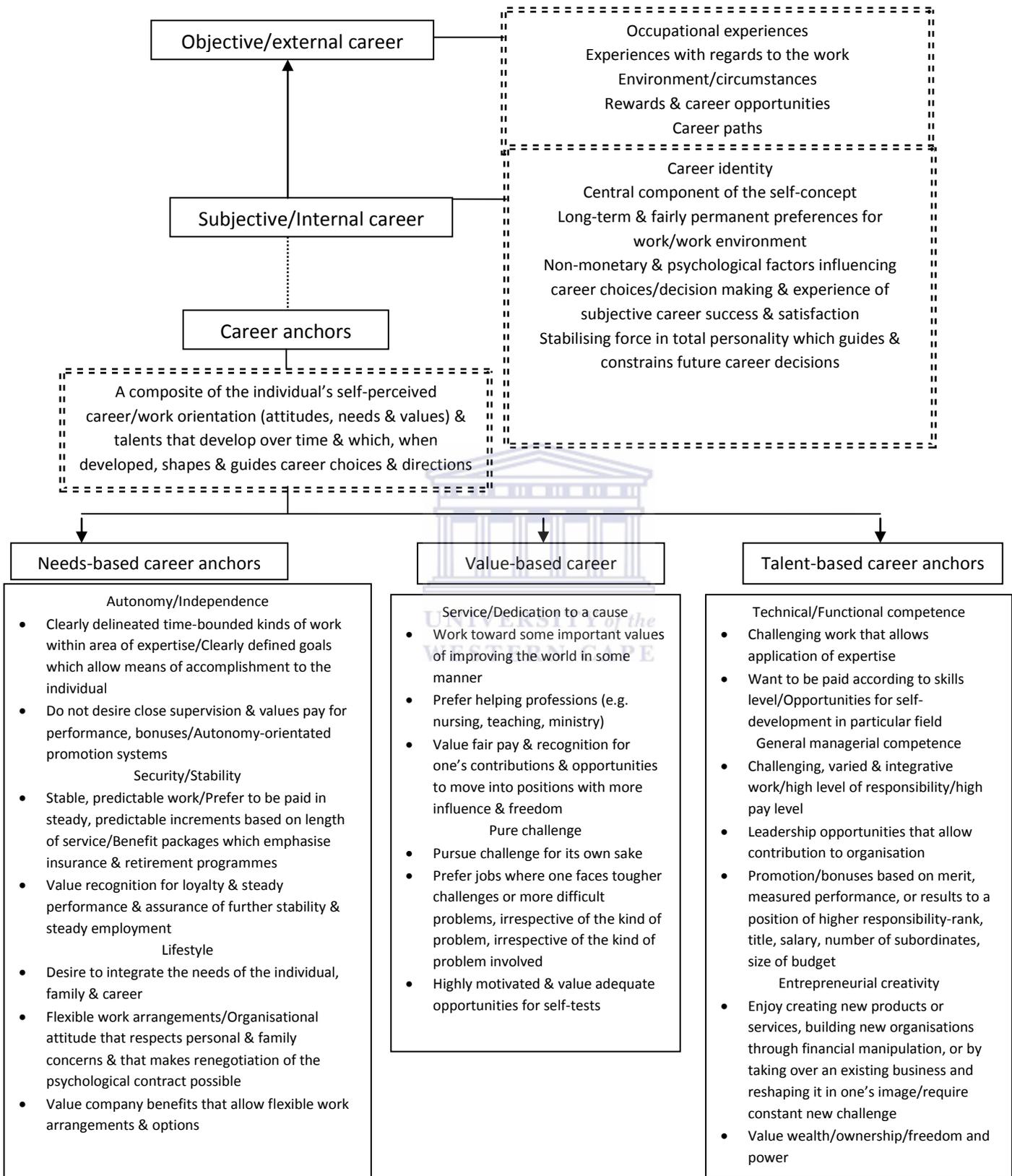
Schein (1998), who developed the concept of career anchors, places importance on the continual assessment of employees' talents, values, and interests in order to determine the best career choices for them. He also advocates the desirability of a new employee's acceptance of pivotal values and norms in a workplace, which fuses a psychological contract that assists with retention. If less critical values are later rejected, the impact on an employee's sense of well-being in the organisation will be only marginal.

Feldman and Bolini (1996) furthered Schein's work on career anchors. They devised three grouping that focus specifically on talents, needs, and values. Figure 2.5 indicates the different connotations in each category. The value-based career anchors focus on the need to have a calling rather than just a job: they reflect on meaningful work intended to improve the world and to help others. The issue of more freedom is also highlighted this finding is similar to Robertson and Swann's research (2003).



The value of challenge as a career anchor refers to being confronted by difficult goals that motivate one to create new knowledge and to help others to grow and to develop. Challenge is an example of a self-test that an intellectual environment is able to offer (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).

Table 2.5 : The Integrated theoretical model of the construct career anchors



Source: Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009.

Table 2.6 explores the psychological factors that influence career decisions (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). The psychological career resources are linked to life satisfaction and to job satisfaction. A positive career resource profile enables people to self-manage their careers. Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) position that a balance between psychological career resources provides for self-directed career behaviour, suggesting that choices are driven internally by career preferences, values, enablers, drivers, and harmonisers. Each person has a unique view about which career path to follow. Career preferences and values influence career choices: preferences guide career moves, while values influence the motivation for a specific, long-term career choice (Brousseau, 1990).

The psychological career resources are deemed to provide the energy necessary for a career desire, and career anchors as an aspect of intrinsic career consciousness provide career direction similar to a “cognitive compass”, thus providing an inner motivation towards the desired career (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009, p. 4).

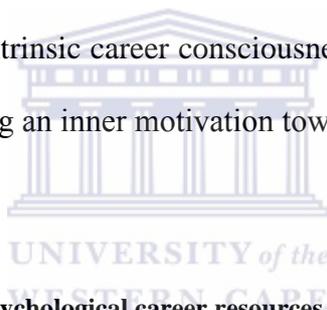
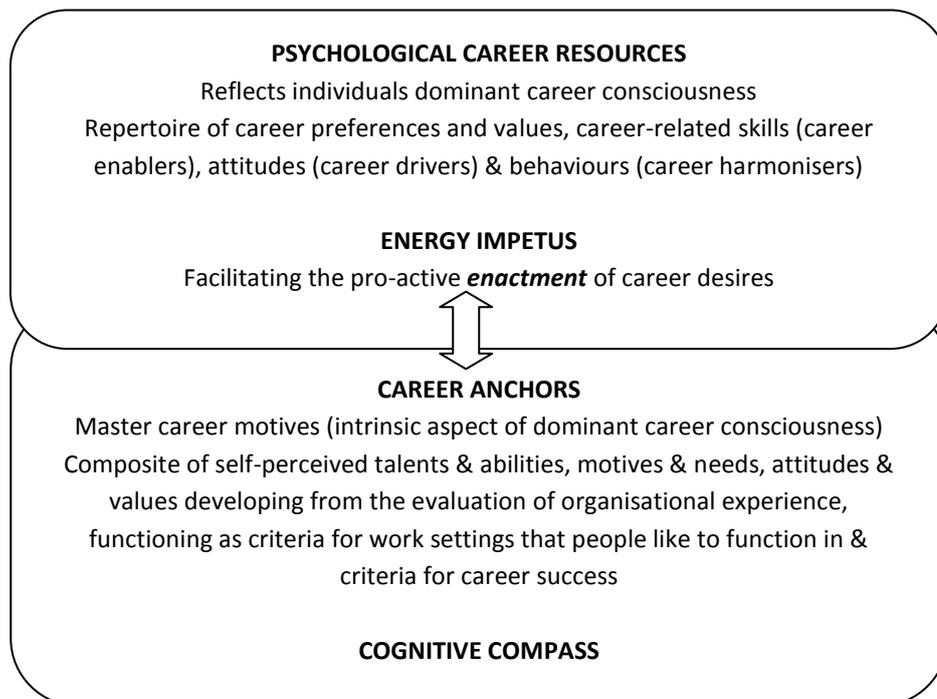


Table 2.6: The theoretical link between psychological career resources and career anchors



Source: Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009.

Rampersad (2009) stressed the importance of employees' congruence both within themselves and in the workplace. The organisational vision is also derived from shared values, and it is a mechanism to achieve like-mindedness, commitment, and devotion among employees (inspiring positive behaviour towards the organisation).

To achieve a democratic workplace, the individual needs to be considered as equally important to the organisation; meaning the individual contribution is valued in the same way as the value add to achieve the collective goals of the organisation (Barrett, 2012).

Egan (2009) stated that the role of career counsellors is to assist clients to use their values when they consider career choices, as well as when they set career goals. Rampersad (2009) also positions a personal scorecard as an important mechanism to align ambition with values and behaviours. Figure 2.3 illustrates the importance of alignment (for an individual) in making and living with career choices.

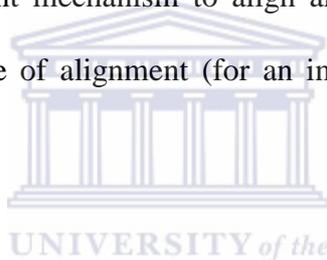
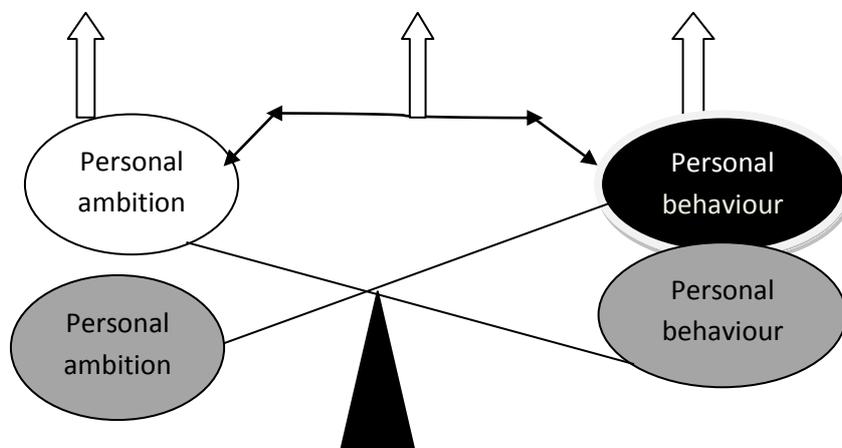


Figure 2.2: Aligning personal ambition with personal behaviour

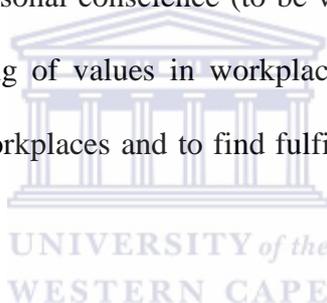
Invisible behavioural patterns	-Conscience	-Visible behavioural patterns
Higher level of consciousness	-Inner space	-Present way of acting
Personal intentions, identity, ideals & values	-Charisma	
Personal driving force	-Credibility	
Self-image & self-knowledge	-Energy	
	-Ethical behaviour	



Source: K Rampersad (2009).

Greenhaus (1987 p.23) supports this view of alignment, stressing the importance of self-awareness and awareness of the environment within the context of career choices. He also states that work values play a critical role in the analysis and assessment of choosing a career because “people may not know themselves as well as they think they do, they need to become more aware of themselves and the world of work”. He stresses the importance of setting realistic goals: a task that requires an accurate view of self and the ‘work’ of choice. People who are extensively aware of their values tend to set better career goals than those who lack self-awareness.

Rampersad (2009) supports the belief of individuals creating congruence within themselves to create harmony in terms of their personal conscience (to be without inner turmoil and conflict). It appears that a general understanding of values in workplaces will support the idea that values influence people to select certain workplaces and to find fulfillment in a workplace, if it resonates with who they choose to be.



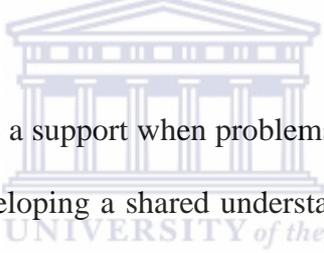
The competency theory strongly advocates the concept that inner needs and motives drive the behaviour of an individual to produce skill (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Because the innateness of the inner motives is difficult to change, suitable selection practices are designed to evaluate an individual’s core personality to predict future success in a defined role.

Schein’s research (1996) indicates this factor to hold implications for career development. His original research (in the mid-1970s) showed five categories that reflect basic values and needs: autonomy/independence, security/stability, technical functional competence, general managerial competence, and entrepreneurial creativity. In the 1980s, further research indicated three additional anchor categories: service or dedication to a cause, pure challenge, and lifestyle.

It is important to note that Schein's concept of values (1998) tends to focus on the practical and the visible, rather than deep inner values. Values are an inherent part of culture: a perspective on work values in the HE workplace needs to reflect either systemic congruence or an understanding of how culture can be more conducive to a younger generation selecting academic careers.

Hofstede (1991) poses values as critical in a system: people seek values, and they feel helpless if the bigger system or culture does not provide them with a value perspective. He also emphasises the importance of the national culture (containing the subcultures in which people exist). According to him, history also plays a role in how culture unfolds in various environments.

2.5 CULTURE AND THE RELATIONSHIP TO VALUES



The culture of an organization can be a support when problems emanate from external forces; and a need for internal integration, by developing a shared understanding of mission, strategy and goals that requires collective effort from the employees (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1991). There is interdependency required for organisational culture, strategy and leadership, to optimally attain the goals of an organization. All of these factors are tied to the values and norms that are emphasized within the workplace (Garsombke, 1988).

McGuire and Rhodes (2009) position culture as the context allowing values to thrive in the workplace; culture provides the parameters within which employees must function and survive. Culture is also the mechanism for sustainability and survival in specific population groups. A culture is either deterministic (with the power placed at the top) or emerging, which allows for beliefs, choices, and the participation of employees (McGuire & Rhodes, 2009).

A more flexible culture accommodates diversity and the diverse needs of knowledge workers; it allows more freedom for individuals to contribute optimally, while remaining in structured workplaces (Robertson & Swann, 2003). Visionary employers are learning to embrace different needs of employees and cater for it by being more flexible; in turn this results in less absenteeism, better work results and less resignations; it also assists to gain employee engagement for more positive responses, to external and internal changes that need to be made. Creative ways in introducing positive work participation enhances the fit between people and their work roles (Hall & Parker, 1994). Culture is therefore significant. Culture is experienced through the leadership of an organisation (Barrett, 2005).

A leadership culture that can invite or expand employee participation will achieve the development of core capabilities for a future vision better than a leader-follower paradigm, especially in the current turbulent times (of change and transformation) facing organisations (McGuire & Rhodes, 2009). The literature about South African universities and their educational change challenges exposes a need for new thinking (CHE, 2004).

Work values as a key driver for career choices are interlinked with culture and leadership: all three of these aspects become important in understanding the dynamics of workplace experiences relative to work climate, which relates to how people feel at work because of good leadership practices (such as tactful feedback and appreciation). To understand the impact on values formation and values selection fully, it is necessary to grasp both the essence of culture and the impact of leadership on culture.

Organisational culture refers to a system of shared values, beliefs, codes of conduct, and minimum standards of performance that influence worker behaviour (Van Tonder & Roodt, 2008).

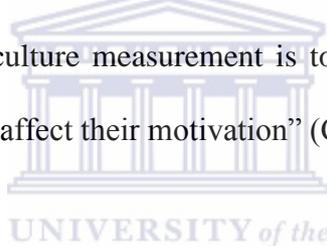
According to Schein (1996, p.328) culture is the aspect of the organisation and the environment assumed to be true; culture is unconscious, learned and reinforced, “shaped by values”, and tends to be unconscious. Since complex workplaces can have many cultures, sub-cultures could possibly overlap and contradict one another. Cummings and Worley (2008, p.505) define culture as “the patterns of assumptions, values, and norms that are more or less shared by organisational members”.

It is generally agreed that values, play the dominant role in shaping a culture, and it is also culture that has a motivating impact on people. Research conducted with knowledge workers introduces the idea of strong individuals who, although their goals are their primary focus, must also exist in an organisation where overarching and collective goals are equally important for sustainability reasons. According to Robertson and Swann (2003) self-verification argues that people seek out and create opportunities to verify self-beliefs and to reconcile self-beliefs with the perceived views of others. The focus is on interpretations and experiences as drivers of action towards defined objectives. Organisational research establishes that values are a key feature in many models depicting culture, as corroborated by Hofstede (1991) and Schein (1996). Culture is also described by Smith and Tunnicliff (2005, p. 3) as “the values, behaviours and beliefs that distinguish the people of one organisation from another”.

Culture in the university context has been depicted as the prevailing ethos, with the prevailing deep-seated norms, assumptions, and values viewed as the “sum total effects of the values, attitudes, styles of interaction, collective memories - the way of life of the university, known by those who work and study in the university environment, through their lived experiences” (Steyn & van Zyl, cited by Higgins, 2007, p. 107).

A culture in the workplace can be deemed to be self-organising if it is geared to change and to evolve, ensuring survival (which although often threatened by external forces, must be overcome from within); through the motivation of its people, “culture is changeable to meet the needs of the organisation” (Cartwright, 1999, p. 22).

The essence of cultural awareness is the readiness of the leadership and of the people to create a measure for culture and its continuous improvement, based on a system of ethical beliefs and values. According to Cartwright (1999, p. 32) the three basic systems of cultural authority are: “governance, control, and values.” only the people who work for an organisation know what its real values are. Culture is measured by its motivational effect on employees. Because “it is realised that no two people see things in exactly the same way, a measure of motivation is subjective (rather than objective). But the whole point of culture measurement is to measure the subjective response of individuals towards those issues that affect their motivation” (Cartwright, 1999 p. 75).



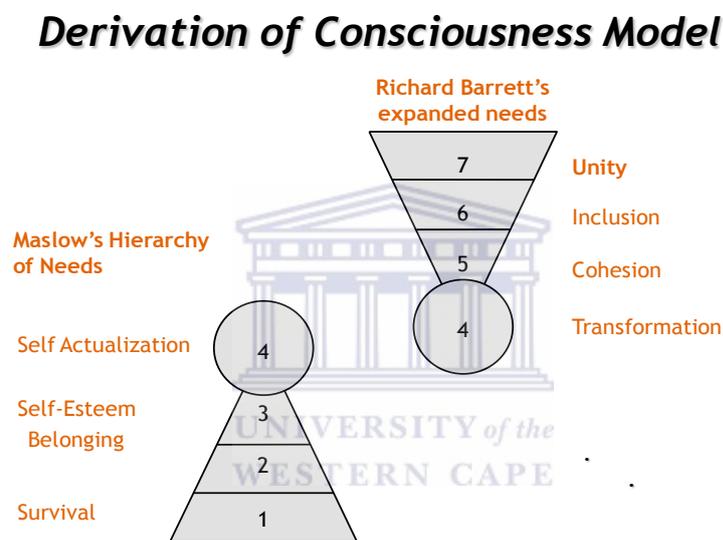
Awareness can lead to a conscious creation of a desired culture (Barrett, 1998). The transcendence of Maslow’s theory as positioned by Barrett (2005), is a contemporary model of culture; needs and values are deemed to be closely related (cf. figure 2.3). Bergh (2011) claims that frameworks such as these are valuable to understand values in the context of a working culture.

Lawler (2006) states that Maslow’s theory excludes the need for spirituality and meaning in life, Maslow only refers to personal growth and development. Lawler (2006) posits that the neglect of spirituality in Maslow’s theory is an oversight and that people want to position their life experiences in a spiritual context. There are also the aspects of cultural conditions that influence an individual’s experiences and how this factor serves as an attractor towards certain choices (Lawler, 2006).

Barrett (1998) uses the concept of consciousness to depict a state of awareness of the self (thoughts, feelings and ideas) which is what individuals use to verbalise their beliefs and values to interpret their reality. According to Barrett (1998) work values is a reliable cultural measure to assess different levels of work values that are important to people.

Figure 2.3 shows how the Maslow (1970) concept of different levels have been extended by Barrett (1998) to transcend to higher levels of collective awareness.

Figure 2.3



Source: Barrett, 1998.

The fourth level in this figure is significant because it transcends individual needs and values (unlike Maslow's (1970) model that was more concerned with the individual); thus shifting to a collective focus that adds value to a team, to a society, and eventually to the global community. Although the use of levels in social theory tends to be broad, it remains important because of the notion of constant emergence, which implies that there is no closure to levels, but rather a propensity for feedback influenced by attitudes as affected by values.

Wiley (2007, p. 1) states that Meta levels, in addition to being higher than first order levels, act back on first levels cognitively because “a meta level is an intellectual perch from which you can examine lower level meanings, seeing them in ways that cannot be seen from within the first order level”.

Even though philosophers and socialists worked with different levels to understand the human dynamics better, the levels all contain similar concepts. As far back as 1895, people identified levels in the social context, ranging from egoism to altruism and from individual to collective interests, and noticed the lack of integration that causes social problems (Wiley, 2007).

Rousseau’s model (1990) also depicts culture in layers of consciousness: Rousseau focuses on a multi-layered model to indicate the elements of culture. His model provides a continuum from unconscious to conscious, from interpretative to behaviour, and from inaccessible to accessible (figure 2.4). The meaning of values in this model represents an intrinsic motivation for action (unlike Schein’s use of values, which is more visible and espoused).

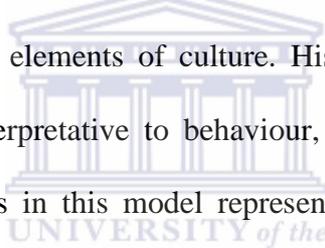
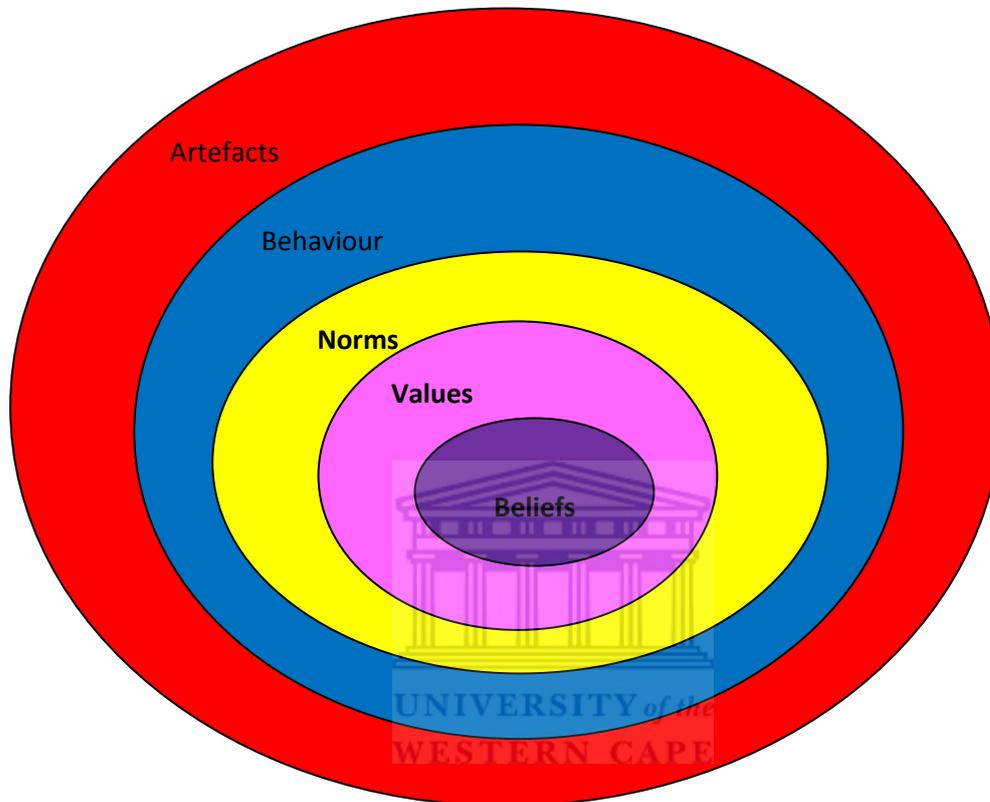


Figure 2.4 Layers of Culture

- Outer ring-visible signs of culture
- Inner ring-hidden feelings of culture

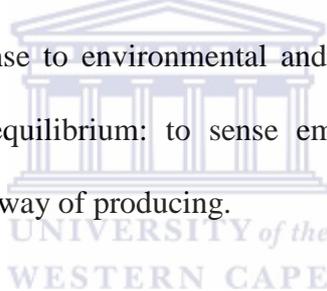


Source: Rousseau, 1990.

Organisational culture change needs to be adaptable and responsive to the internal and external forces that impact on it. A collective personality of leadership can shape the culture of a workplace. Since culture becomes embedded gradually and can shape leaders, it can be potentially bigger than its leaders (Robertson & Swann, 2003). People respond positively at work if their own values are congruent with the organisation's culture. Different forms of culture are evident in one organisation, for example, task cultures (which align groups to work in sub-groups), and workgroups formed by specialists with shared disciplines.

Organisational culture, as it is influenced by leaders, becomes evident in management practices such as structures, procedures, communication processes, and values. Internal organisational culture tends to have sub-cultures; people tend to position their specific sub-culture as the best. One can therefore expect differing views on the culture of an organisation. Cummings and Worley (2008) make the following distinctions: Complex organisations can have many differing cultures, and subcultures may overlap; whilst cultures that dominate can be influenced by structures e.g. Centralisation; they also state no single culture is likely to exist in an organisation and also that organisations are dynamic, and change over time.

This idea of continuous change corresponds with many improvement processes and models devised previously by theorists. For example, Schein's (1996) Adaptive coping cycle depicts the most common steps for change in response to environmental and organisational shifts. Schein (1996) proposes two stages in reaching equilibrium: to sense emerging change, and to respond by researching further to achieve a new way of producing.



The concept of cultural change deserves special attention because it is core to change and transformation processes; cultural considerations also need to be aligned to leadership and new strategies (this is mostly followed by new designs and new structures). Approaching transformation in a congruent manner supports sustainable change, which impacts the entire organisation. An integrated view of organisational culture focuses on culture as an organisationally shared phenomenon: “it represents a stable and coherent set of beliefs about an organisation and its environment” (Cummings & Worley, 2008 p. 251). The differentiated view sees cultures as sub-cultures; the fragmented view sees culture as always changing, dominated by ambiguity and paradox. These different views have commonalities that exist at different levels of awareness and are measurable (making culture more tangible and influencing basic assumptions).

The commonalities are positioned by Rousseau (1990) as artefacts, behaviour, norms, and values. The pattern of these four levels provides cultural guidelines on how to work in a specific environment: culture is an outcome of prior choices made. Culture is also the basis for either helping or hindering change because “a particular pattern of values and assumptions that once was a source of strength for a company can become a major liability in successfully implementing a new strategy” (Cummings & Worley, 2008 p. 251). The notion of ambiguity in a culture, as opposed to an integrative culture, poses interesting dilemmas. Robertson and Swann (2003) found that knowledge workers in professional consulting firms hold autonomy and ‘freedom’ as strong values for selecting workplaces. Culture could perhaps become an instrument for controlling people: to achieve tasks and goals, the identity and values of the individual could suffer as a result of a management created culture that dominates workplaces.

Handy (cited by van Tonder & Roodt, 2008) links organisational culture to structure. Handy depicts four types of culture: power, roles, tasks, and individuals who see themselves as better than the system. The knowledge workers in the Robertson and Swann study (2003) fit the person orientated perspective, which relates the differentiated views of the individual knowledge workers that only shift to an integrated view of the organisational needs, once there is a clear requirement to support overall goals.

Bergh and Theron (2009, cited by Werner, 2011) posits that individualism is high when people are bound to an organization by a contractual agreement as opposed to being bound by moral convictions which tend to foster collective thinking. The dominant image of culture as an orderly unit is perhaps less realistic than recognising several subcultures. This implies that the common mind-set about culture (and about how individuals perceive it) is perhaps constrained, which results in a narrow interpretation of culture rather than a multidimensional interlinking of images.

Smircich (1983) positions culture as something that 'is' and not something an organisation 'has'. According to her, culture exists independently in the organisation: an organisation does not own culture. This considers organisations as a particular form of expression rather than as a purposeful instrument and adaptive mechanism. Smircich (1983) created the concept of culture as a 'root metaphor', positioning it as an independent manifestation of the consciousness of an organisation's members. She describes culture as driving organisations, rather than organisations being driven by management. Alvesson (2002) highlights the debate around this notion, which has been neither resolved nor extensively researched.

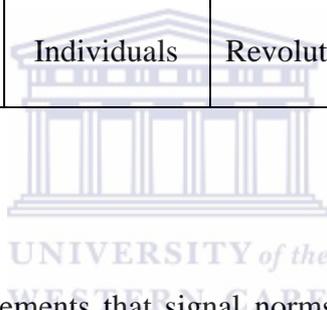
The different paradigms of culture are not mutually exclusive to one another; the traditional concept of culture being shaped to support optimal goal achievements still remains feasible (Barrett, 2005). Robertson and Swann (2003) conclude that the integrative notion of different needs becomes self-imposed if autonomy and freedom are regulated by the employees themselves to ensure that organisational goals are still met. This same notion is also positioned by Schein (1988) as follows: employees and workplaces are interactive, unfolding through cross influencing and mutual bargaining to invent and re-invent psychological work contracts. These are complex interactions needing systemic analyses to manage interdependencies (Schein, 1988).

The ambiguity of creative individuals working independently in academic environments, combined with the need to be part of the overarching goals and strategies, can be understood in table 2.7, designed by Schein (1988) to demonstrate relationships of individuals to their workplace relative to accepting norms. McGuire and Rhodes (2009) highlight the danger of consistently challenging and behaving differently to primary values in a given culture: it can threaten a person's sustainability in a workplace if they are not able to accept the pivotal norms of a workplace.

Table 2.7: Individual adjustment to the Organisation

		PIVOTAL NORMS	
PERIPHERAL NORMS		Accept	Reject
	<i>Accept</i>	Conformity	Subversive Rebellion
	<i>Reject</i>	Creative Individuals	Open Revolution

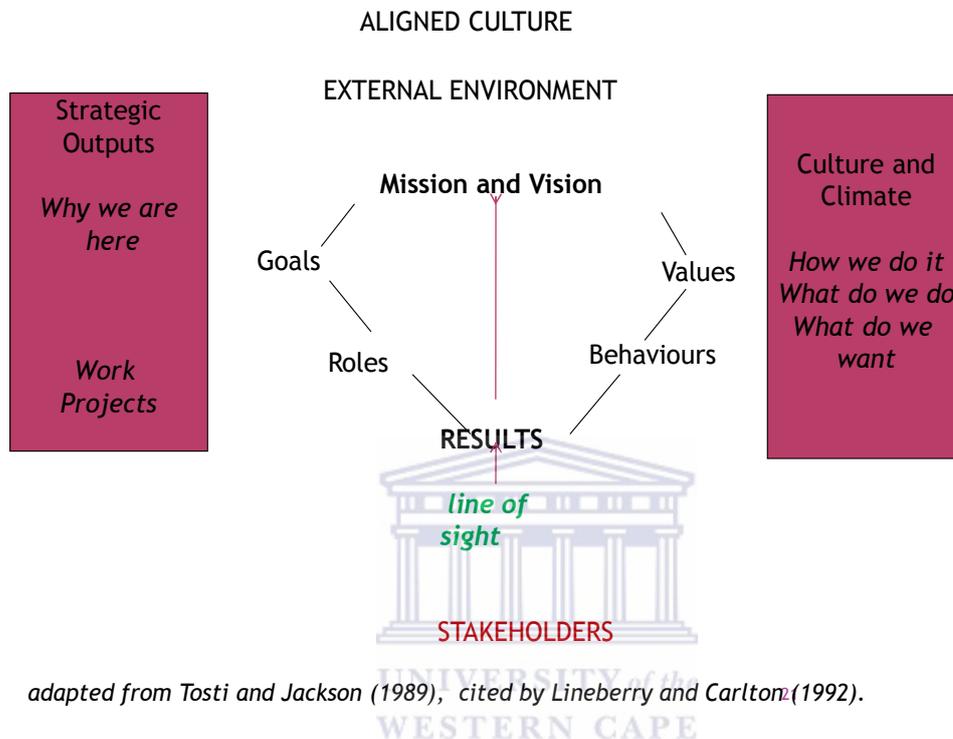
(Source: Schein, 1988).



Core values and mission are key elements that signal norms of an organization (Van Tonder & Roodt, 2008). The dependency between work strategies and culture is important to have alignment with the organizational mission and vision. Figure 2.5 depicts this needed congruence.

Figure 2.5

Aligned Culture



adapted from Tosti and Jackson (1989), cited by Lineberry and Carlton (1992).

Figure 2.5 indicates that culture relates to behaviours and values: it provides the ‘how’ of achieving the strategies that represent the ‘what’ that is set to be achieved in an organisation. Culture has also been described as an agent of either stasis, or of change, or of transformation. A clear distinction is also being made between two popular views of culture: channelling choice and steering behaviour in a way that can limit individuality, or connecting with emerging social change and encouraging beliefs to expand behaviour and learning (McGuire & Rhodes, 2009, p. 34).

McGuire and Rhodes (2009) claim the latter view of culture can be achieved if leadership is engaged in participative leadership practices (focused on direction), and if leadership is aligned and committed to a more collective leadership style as the key principle.

Leadership influences employees' formation of values and employees' experience of the culture of an organisation. It is therefore important to understand the aspects of leadership as related to values. Culture in South African HE has a particular context as a result of the political history that changed dramatically in 1994 when the new government was democratically elected. The goal of HE to redress racial inequality is progressing in its attempts to integrate different racial identities to change the perceived white dominance of academic culture. This includes challenging the view of a dominance of modified Western European values and attitudes, which are reproduced in South African Higher Education institutions (Higgins, 2007 CHE report).

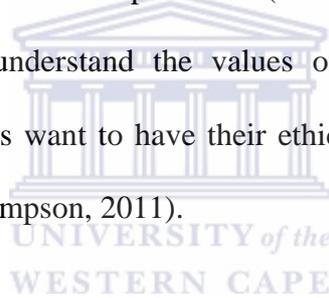
Research on work values suggests that if employees experience a match of their own work values, with that of the workplace, job satisfaction increases, also commitment and a desire to remain in the organisation. Organisations' cultural effectiveness manifests in policies and practices and this is the foundation for successful workplaces (Amos & Weathington, 2008, cited by Martins & Coetzee, 2011). From the literature discussed one can conclude that leadership functioning, in a pro-active manner, will be cognisant of the ideal culture to pursue; and the pervasive effect culture has on its employees.

2.6 LEADERSHIP AND THE RELATIONSHIP TO CULTURE IN THE WORKPLACE

The employee-manager relationship begins at the first employment interactions and emphasis needs to be placed on strong relationships from the start. Clarity is important when staff are new and establishing communicative relationships from the start will meet with the Generation Y employees high expectations to feel employers are investing in them (Thompson, 2011).

The "happiness" level of employees is affected by policies in the workplace and HR needs to facilitate the shared understanding of how people policies holistically contribute to staff development and wellness; as well as how these activities relate to the vision and mission of the workplace (Nzonzo, 2012). The psychological contract fused with employees during a good induction program is important to build emotional intelligence for the particular workplace. Psychological contracts have proven to show relevance with respect for the workplace and retention of employees.

The Millennial generation seek a different psychological contract with future employees; they want their own needs to be balanced with that of the organisation; failing a clear commitment from the employer they would opt to retain their independence (Thompson, 2011). People feel they will become better socialised if they understand the values of an organisation before making a commitment to join. The Millennials want to have their ethical values reflected in the workplace culture (Chatman, 1991 cited by Thompson, 2011).



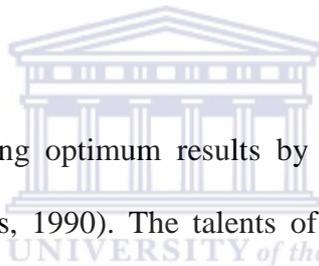
Millenniums place a high value on quality of managers; this signifies the need for leadership understanding and adjusted styles to enable a positive new generation workforce (Thompson, 2011). Praise is one aspect that satisfies their insatiable need for feedback; this stems from fast technological responses and encouragement from a young age to seek feedback. They are also not accustomed to rigid schedules and require a flexible workplace. A frustration for them is bureaucratic and hierarchal systems which slows their activities down. Problems that require long term thinking, ambiguity and vagueness, presents a risk when wanting to enable and retain this generation.

This generation demands more leadership challenges and the role of mentoring appeals to this generation. Teamwork is an aspect that helps Millennials thrive in a work environment and influences their career choices greatly (Thompson, 2011). The demographic profile of employees has transformed and is still transforming dramatically, the resulting diversity brings new demands for leadership such as sensitivity, understanding of differences; as well as responsiveness to appropriate employment practices (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1991). Managing change and transformation has become synonymous with effective leadership and translates into the new type of leadership required to effect change strategies for workplaces. Inherent to this concept is the understanding of the workplace culture to help leaders to adapt and meet operational needs (Mc Guire, Palus, Pasmore & Rhodes, 2012).

Cultural assessments such as enquiring into work values can signal needed adjustments according to expression of needs of staff, this will assist towards cultures becoming more congruent with people strategies to impact favourably on the achievement of workplace goals (Greenhaus & Callan, 1994):”In order to add value from diversity, people must behave and relate to each other in new ways” (Dodds, 1995, p. 40).

Answering to the challenge of new forms of leadership to be inclusive of diversity and acknowledgement of individual needs, while also being able to integrate work and people at work to perform effectively as a collective, is very much the order of today’s call for leadership profiles (Higgins, 2007-CHE report). Schein (1988) postulates that leaders create culture, and culture creates the next generation of leaders, thus the influence of leaders’ values on others in a work system plays a role in shaping individuals’ careers and experience in the workplace.

Greenhaus and Callanan (1994) posit the view that workplaces have not been as successful in managing women and diverse race groups to the extent that they were able to manage the dominant white male workforce in the past. Valuing differences fosters acceptance, understanding and an appreciation for diversity which results in productive relationships to enhance the performance of the workplace, resulting in support from a broad spectrum of different views. This appreciation of differences supports a higher degree of excellence when employees also accept the common purpose that ties them together. (Hall & Parker, 1994). To achieve this, the competency of leadership, to manage diversity, is an imperative and this supersedes a mere appreciation of diversity (Thomas, 1991); “an environment catering for the full expression of the self, in a situation that is freely changing in reaction to the needs of all participants” (Biko, 1978, cited in Human, 1995, p. 122).



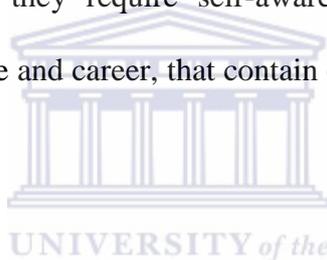
Leadership is charged with achieving optimum results by having a diverse workforce without creating artificial standards (Thomas, 1990). The talents of all employees can be fully used by adjusting work practices to accommodate differences (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991). Several research findings indicate that South African workplaces still does not reflect the new political democracy in South Africa. Employee involvement and participation in decision making processes are still rigid and bureaucratic (Slabbert, Theron & Roodt, 2001).

In a study of values across generations, Twenge, et al. (2010, p. 13) defines work values as “the outcome people desire and feel they should attain through work”; it is further explained that work values shape employees preferences for workplaces, exerting a direct influence on employees’ attitudes and behaviours, which create social capital to nurture employee vigour. This requires a focus on relationship building, and it demands leaders to bring about collaboration as well as to establish high trust.

This approach creates intrinsic value for employees by building a social capital that enhances morale and fosters relational health. Working in a high relationship environment is a workplace advantage that attracts potential employees (Twenge, et, al., 2010).

According to Barrett (2005) leadership has a direct impact on workplace climate. In this context work values have also been defined as a degree of importance given to modalities of being and behaving that are relevant to the work context activities (Crozier & Dorval, 2002). Individuals who have their work values crystallised tend to make lasting career choices (Patton & McMahon, 2006).

A study conducted on talent retention demonstrates that financial rewards are not the most important factor for retention: employees seem to have more open and flexible attitudes about their relationships with employers, and they require self-aware leaders who can conduct critical conversations, regarding performance and career, that contain elements of coaching in the dialogues (Kovach, 1987; Franzen, 2003).



More recent studies corroborate earlier views claiming that extrinsic rewards can sometimes work in a narrow set of circumstances; but that they prove not only ineffective in modern times; but may also have a negative effect on high level, creative and conceptual abilities, that are central to current and future economic progress. The success of rewards is stated to be part of our deep seated desire to direct our lives, to extend and expand our abilities and to make a contribution (Pink, 2009).

The compatibility of employees is affected by generational differences. Most founding members are from the Baby-boomer generation, and their values often ignore the needs for participative and flexible work practices. Their influence on work climate reflects their childhood era. New employees entering workplaces often have work values different from the Baby boomers, they experience person-organisation misfit dilemmas that render resignation likely (Twenge, et al., 2010).

A further phenomenon with the Baby boomer generation is a trend where they are carving out a new career category referred to as “encore careers”: Instead of retiring they are creating jobs that emphasise meaning and contribution to the world. This contributes to the changing world of work and how we will experience it in the future (Pink, 2009). This is also the aspect that connects them with the younger generations as referred to in table 2.8.

Leaders are responsible for retaining talent: retention and engagement are strongly correlated. Research conducted on seventeen thousand people identified shared engagement factors (listed in order of importance in table 2.8).

Table 2.8 Factors a leader is able to influence to effect retention of talented staff

1. Exciting work and challenge	2. Career growth, learning and development
3. Working with great people	4. Fair pay
5. Supportive management/good boss	6. being recognised, valued and respected
7. benefits	8. meaningful work and making a difference
9. pride in the organisation, its mission and its product	10. great work environment and culture
11. Autonomy, creativity and a sense of control	12. flexibility, for example: work dress
13. location	14. job security and stability
15. diverse, changing work assignments	16. fun on the job
17. being part of a team	18. responsibility
19. loyalty, commitment	20. inspiring leadership

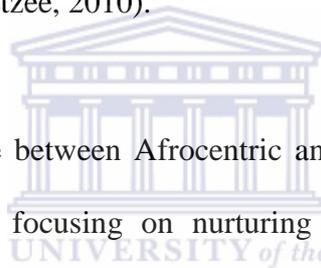
Source: Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2010).

The sample of employees was random, 91% of participants listed the top two factors as important. Senior leadership support is also rated very highly (ranked fifth) as a success factor for working with and retaining talent positively.

Good leaders recognise that managing talent is the top priority in ensuring sustainability for an organisation (Oakes, Thompson & Lykins, 2010). A critical leadership capacity, researched by Shankman and Scott (2008), relates to support for the ‘consciousness of others’ by focusing on awareness of relationships with others and by looking at how relationship affect leadership.

Important leadership capacities (according to Shankman and Scott, 2008) are: empathy, citizenship, inspiration, influence, coaching, being a change agent, conflict management, relationship building, teamwork, and diversity management.

A South African study in the public sector also reinforces the importance of the leadership role in retention of the younger generations; the research found that employees in the generation X category were most discouraged by the non-supportive nature of their leaders (Masibigiri, & Nienaber, 2011). The development of desirable leadership behaviours in leaders will be of high importance in creating knowledge workers for the future (Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007 as cited by Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). The new technology driven world will lead to increased levels of mental and emotional pressure, requiring leadership to attend to wellness at work in an ever increasing amount(Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010).



There is also a differentiation made between Afrocentric and Eurocentric work values. The first relate to a more feminine culture focusing on nurturing and commonality; whilst the latter represents more masculine concepts such as assertiveness, ambition, and competitiveness. According to the researchers Africans and women relate better to Afrocentric work values (Smit & Cronje, 2002, cited by Martins & Coetzee, 2011). Barret (2012) claims that Ethro-centric belief-based cultures tend to separate people by focusing on differences. In contrast cultures of meaning (value-based cultures) transcend differences by reinforcing shared values (“meaning ties”). This leads to collectively achieving together.

The characteristics of the emerging workplace are being shaped by the new workforce. The new millenniums are all about collaboration, partnerships, and alliances; they see the world as a community where inclusion needs to be expanded (Hesselbein, 2010). Hesselbein identifies the following critical keys to lead this emerging workforce: ensuring a clear vision (based on organisational values), feedback, meaningful work, teamwork and inclusion, opportunities to lead,

balanced communication methods, and ways to serve society. These aspects resonate with the factors employees wish to experience in workplaces, as indicated in the work done by Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2010) in table 2.8. These results are similar to the Barrett leadership values model (figure 2.3), indicating that new workplace trends tend towards collective and societal needs; workplaces previously worked more keenly with models relating to individual interest (Maslow, 1970) and individuals that were charismatic leader (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002). The concept of re-conceiving the intersection between workplaces and society is shifting old paradigms to emphasise the role of organisations to add value to society as opposed to only focus on core business (Porter & Kramer, 2011)

Hesselbein (2010) believes the future working force can teach leaders to build relationships, to balance work-life, to give back to society, and to celebrate technology. Coaching can be positioned as the most highly rated leadership activity, especially in being the key leadership success quality for talent development (Betof, 2010). Shankman and Scott (2008) emphasise that leadership cannot be a standalone process: multiple people have to be engaged to support the main thrusts of the organisation.

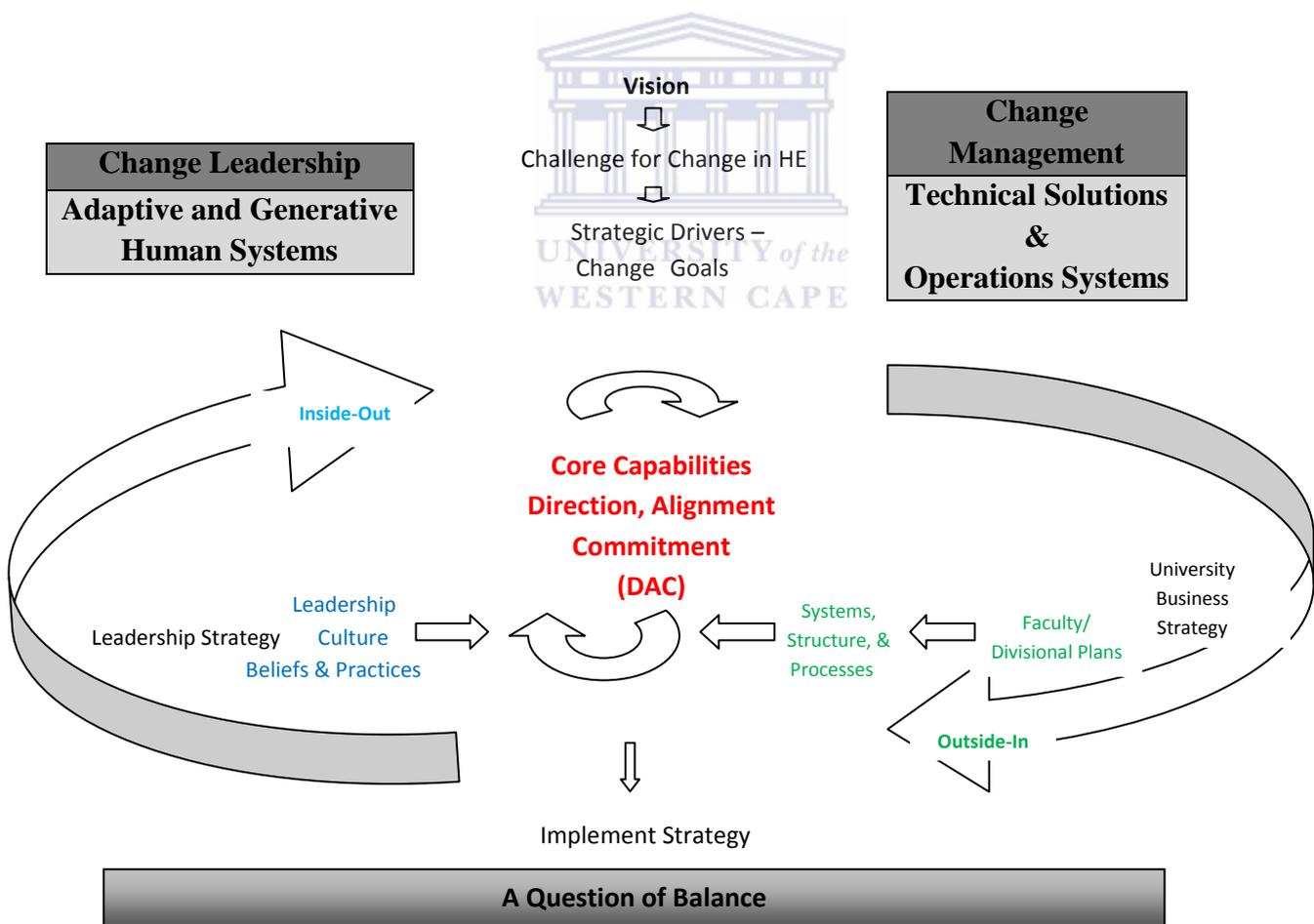
This view is further amplified by the emergence of the concept of adaptive leadership, reinforced by Randall and Coakley (2006, p.325): “leadership is more than an individual acting in a position. It is a process from which change initiatives must emanate from key stakeholders, all of whom are engaged in that process”.

Heifetz and Linsky (2002) also support the term of adaptive leadership which postulates that it is more of a process than an individual’s personal capability. The adaptive leadership model seeks active participation from all who are in a workplace. This overcomes historical constraints which people may have been trapped in past practices, allowing change to progress unimpeded. “When the level of leadership culture aligns with your organisational strategy your performance will be stellar” (McGuire, et al., 2012, p. 90).

One of the biggest obstacles, claimed by Slabbert, et al (2001), is that core and personal values in South African organisations are not integrated; and the lack of attention from leadership to create a value-driven leadership culture is slowing down the pace of transformation. Accordingly, the model devised by McGuire and Rhodes (2009) provides a good understanding of how transformational work needs to be supported by that of transactional efficiencies and of how both leadership and management are needed in the change processes. The concept of leadership differs because it is presented as a process in which everyone participates, as opposed to leadership from the top.

Figure 2.6 indicates the different dimensions of leadership and the balance that needs to be considered during complex change processes.

Figure 2.6
LEADERSHIP CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL TRANSFORMATION



Source: Adapted from McGuire & Rhodes, 2009.

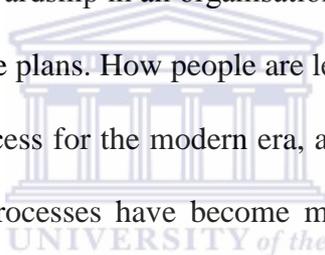
The consideration of complex change processes initially requires awareness of the need for change, followed by framing the issues in a way that focuses the attention on the change needs and then to sustain the focus until the new goals are entrenched (maintaining a degree of stress at a productive level to continue effort towards the change objective). The stakeholders must own both the problem and the solution (Randall & Coakley, 2006).

2.7 CONCLUSION

Retention forms the cornerstone for the success of any organisation. It is clear the emerging changes in Higher Education, specifically in South Africa, require new human paradigms to enable career processes more attractive to the younger generation. This requires attention to how values are demonstrated through leadership and ways of working to create a leadership culture that manifests the needs and work values of a younger generation. The work climate must reflect the factors and values that attract younger people to commit to an academic career. Values influence what we pay attention to and how we emot about making sense of our actions, this combined with the new types of diversity that must be taken into account for a fully functional workplace, requires new strategic thinking and alliance building with diverse groups of people, to ensure the optimisation of social capital for an organisation, it is important to bear in mind that a value-based culture unites employees.

Work values are positioned as the most important determinants influencing career choice (Brown, 2003, cited by Patton & McMahon, 2006). This is a powerful process to set off a collaborative energy to inspire collective action towards achieving what we agree on in HE (Blakeley, 2005 cited in Smith & Tunnicliff, 2005). Universities are normative organisations; on a value driven path to affect positive outcomes; a talent stewardship programme would be an example of a critical change strategy to achieve. McGuire, et al. (2012) position the premise that culture can neither be right or wrong but the awareness need to exist to match leadership culture to operational needs.

Leadership capability must be developed to match a strategic need and is therefore a dependency to meet a deliverable such as talent stewardship in an organisation. Knowledge of one's current culture is required to develop feasible change plans. How people are lead; and how organisational culture is influenced, provide leverage for success for the modern era, as the other sources, such as finances, physical infrastructures and good processes have become more dependent on how people work together. Leadership and Culture are workplace variables that influence work values.

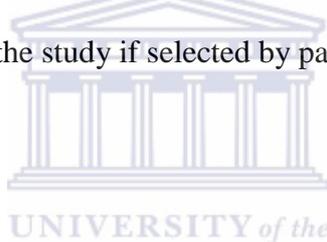


CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review draws attention to the variables that have an effect on how employees experience values in the workplace. This chapter focuses on research, identifying the processes followed to establish the trends between desired workplace values and currently experienced workplace values for two specific age groups : the millennials or Y's (ages 18 to 32), and the generation X r's (ages 33 to 52). Although the study intends to focus on intrinsic work values, extrinsic work values will be part of the study if selected by participants.



3.2 OBJECTIVES

The outcome of the research will provide information that will be further explored to introduce change in Human Capital practices:

- To gain insight into the perceived work values of two age groups (ages 18-32 and ages 33-52) of academic staff at a HEI in the Western Cape in order to facilitate and promote the attraction and retention of these age groups for future stability in academic careers. The work values will be assessed in two categories: perceived current work values, and desired future work values.
- To compare the differences and similarities of perceived current and desired future work values, by establishing frequency of choice for both current and desired selections ;and to establish the size of the gap between current and desired work values.

- To determine how the findings can influence the shaping of future leadership and people practices so as to attract, to retain and to develop the next generation of academic staff optimally
- To understand what the younger generation of academic staff value in the workplace, and to be able to devise work practices that will make the academic institution an attractive career option.

3.3 HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference in the current and desired work values within each of the younger academic age groups at a university in the Western Cape.



3.4 POPULATION

Wegner, (2002 p. 4) refers to a population as: “the collection of all the observations of a random variable under study and about which one is trying to draw conclusions in practice”. In this instance, academic staff – ages 52 and younger, using a categorisation of two different age groups (in 2012)–working in a specific university in the Western Cape, constituted the designated population. The interests for this study were academic staff aged 18 to 32 (Group Y, representing generation Y or also known as new millenniums) and academic staff ages 33 to 52 (Group X, representing generation X).

The number of academic staff in the first semester of 2012

18 to 32 age group: (Table 3.1) staff at academic job levels, such as junior lecturers, lecturers, and a few senior lecturers; but also including the tutor group (Table 3.2); which represents the source for future recruitment possibilities*.

33 to 52 age group: (Figure 3.1) staff at academic job levels such as lecturers, senior lecturers and some associate professorial levels.

*The tutor group– ages: 18 to 32–will be included per faculty in the Y group –Table 3.2

Table 3.1: Full time academic staff –first semester 2012.

Includes: Full time, Permanent, Contract, Donor and Foundational Course Lecturers.
Part time staff with 12 months and longer contracts is also included.

FACULTY	AGE 18 - 32	AGE 33 – 52	AGE 53 – 65 and older	Total
A	4	49	43	96
B	27	83	32	142
C	5	33	22	60
D	0	17	21	38
E	11	63	24	98
F	20	31	12	63
G	17	93	50	160
Totals	84	369	204	657
Percentages	13%	56%	31%	100%

Table 3.2 Average Number of Tutors for a year period (2011).

FACULTY	AVG. NO. OF TUTORS PER ANNUM
A	74
B	27
C	0
E	106
F	10
G	20
Total	237

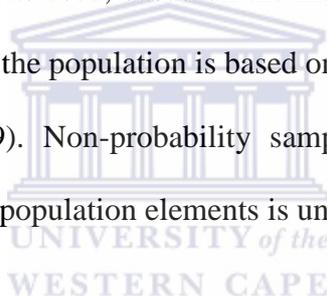
Source: University HR information system.

3.5 SAMPLE

A sample is a subset of a population it comprises of some members selected from the population. It is impractical and costly to attempt to get all members from the population to participate (Wegner, 2002). The individuals in this study participated voluntarily from the selected two younger age groups of academic employees at a specific university.

3.5.1 Convenience Sampling

A non-probability sampling design was used, based on the method of convenience. In convenience sampling, the selection of units from the population is based on easy availability and/or accessibility (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Non-probability sampling is a subjective approach and therefore the probability of selecting population elements is unknown.



Cooper and Schindler (2001) cite some practical considerations for using this less precise method compared to probability sampling:

- It satisfactorily meets the sampling objectives.
- Less costly and time consuming-carefully controlled non-probability sampling often seems to give acceptable results, so the investigator may not even consider probability sampling.
- The possibility also exists that non-probability sampling may be the only feasible alternative as the total population may not be available for study in certain cases.

3.6 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Quantitative research is seen as numerative induction that can be an exact measure; qualitative research is beneficial to understanding people relative to how they describe their world (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). The combination of both research methods in one study is referred to as the triangulated method. This approach, supported by Creswell, Trout, and Barbuto (2003), helps to secure a deeper understanding of the research (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005).

3.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

An individual quantitative study was utilized in the current research which involved the selection of current and desired workplace values, using a pre-programmed computer based selection method, or respondents were invited to complete a pen-and-paper version. This result was analysed to provide information for future improvements and change processes relevant to people practices. Respondents were requested to make separate selections of 10 current work values as well as 10 desired work values out of a possible list of concepts, representing a university specific generic list of work values (both positive and negative).

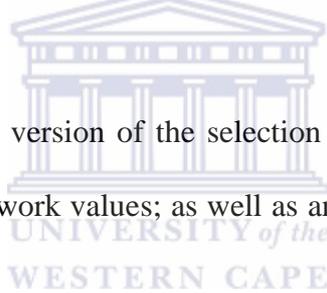
The results were then ranked per frequency relative to same and similar work values selected for each of the two categories, thus yielding the top current values as perceived and the top desired values. A work value selected by at least 15 % of the sample was regarded as part of the top values in each category.

- The Current workplace values encompass participants' experiences and perceptions at the university through faculty culture and leadership behaviours.

- The Desired workplace values for the university, as participants would like to experience them through faculty culture and leadership behaviours, were also included for consideration by respondents.

A list of almost 100 possible concepts to select from was provided to respondents. These 100 concepts mainly represent values that have been drawn from general workplaces and from the specific university's vision and mission, and values statements. This list had been verified by senior leadership, in the form of several discussions and executive sign off, to represent the university's customary language, and also to achieve espoused values currently contained in the university's vision and mission statement. The values ranged from transactional to transformational concepts and include both intrinsic and extrinsic work value choices.

(Worksheets A1 and A 2 depict the version of the selection sheets from which participants were asked to choose current and desired work values; as well as an opportunity to add values they need to express that are not be listed).



3.8 DATA

The information required for the study (the total number of academic staff in each age group) was obtained from the university's HR department staff database in order to establish the ideal numbers for the sample size. A collective report was automatically generated by the computer programme to indicate frequency of choices made by each age group. The data from the manually submitted forms was captured to form part of the computer based information gathered.

3.9 SCORING PROCESS AND PROJECTED INTERPRETATIONS OF TRENDS

The data from the value selection sheets was automatically compiled into a total result, ranking the most frequent choices made under different categories to establish trends in the outcome.

Conclusions were drawn under the following headings:

1. Work value trends selected in the current work value and the desired work value sections for each age group.
2. The potentially limiting work values as perceived in the selections made under the current section for each age group.
3. Differentiating between intrinsic work values and extrinsic work values for each age group
4. Comparisons of outcomes between the two age groups.
5. Relationship of survey outcomes to other research evidenced in the literature review.

These comparisons were reported on in a matrix format and displayed by using descriptive statistics (such as graphs) to portray the results in a meaningful way, ensuring adequate understanding of the information gathered.

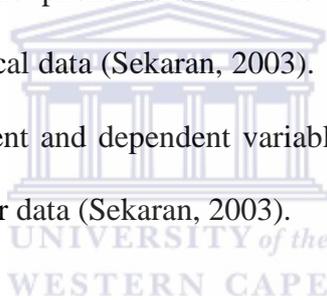
3.10 DATA ANALYSIS

The research data were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS is an appropriate tool as it allows the researcher to draw objective conclusions. For the purpose of testing the research hypothesis, certain statistical techniques were employed. These included descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. The data analysis techniques employed in analyzing the results of the study relate to the Chi-square technique.

3.10.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to present data in a structured, accurate and summarized way (Huysamen, 1990) and the descriptive data employed in the presentation of the data collected in the survey includes frequencies, percentages, means and deviations. Descriptive statistics look at how frequently certain phenomena occur (frequencies), the mean (average) score of a set of data collected, and the extent of the variability in the set, namely the central tendencies and the dispersions of the dependent and the independent variables (Sekaran, 2003).

Descriptive statistics allow the researcher to display the obtained data in a structured, accurate and summarized manner. It describes the phenomenon of interest and is used to analyse data for classifying and summarizing numerical data (Sekaran, 2003). It includes the analysis of data using frequencies, dispersion of independent and dependent variables and measures of central tendency and variability and to obtain a feel for data (Sekaran, 2003).



3.10.2 Inferential statistics

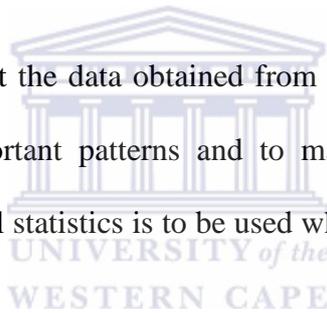
Inferential statistics enable the researcher to infer from the data through analysis, the relationship between two variables, the differences in a variable among different subgroups, and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2003).

Inferential statistics enable researchers to know how variables relate to one another, and whether or not there are any significant differences between two groups.

By utilising inferential statistics, a researcher is able to infer from the data through analysis that (1) there is a statistically significant relationship between two variables (2) there is a statistically significant difference in a variable among different subgroups and (3) how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2003).

The two categories of inferential statistics are parametric statistics, which is based on the assumption that the population from which the sample is drawn is normally distributed and that the data is collected at interval or ratio scale, whereas non-parametric data makes the assumption regarding the normality of the distribution, and is used when the data is collected on a nominal or ordinal scale (Sekaran, 2003).

This allows the researcher to present the data obtained from the research in a statistical format to facilitate the identification of important patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful. Sekaran, (2003) states that inferential statistics is to be used when generalizing from a sample to the population.



3.10.2.1 Chi square (χ^2 -test)

The Chi-square test is used to determine whether there is a relationship between nominal variables or whether they are independent of each other (Sekaran, 2000). The Chi-square test is a non-parametric test; therefore parametric conditions need not be met in order to use the test.

3.11 RISKS, BENEFITS AND ETHICAL CLEARANCE OF THE STUDY

All employees in the target age groups received an invitation to complete the survey anonymously. The Research adhered to the codes of ethics of the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) and related to the following considerations:

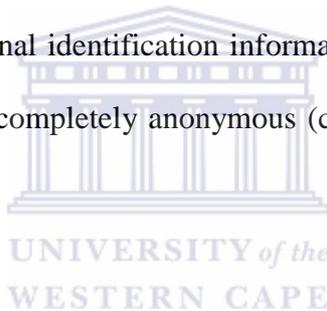
- Maintaining respect for the dignity and human rights of the person(s) involved.
- Exercising responsible caring to avoid harm.
- Conducting relationships with personal and professional integrity
- Respecting the privacy of participants by observing their rights to confidentiality and anonymity.
- Acknowledging social responsibility.
- Obtaining informed consent for professional procedures while allowing for freedom of consent (participants have the right to refuse to participate).
- Prioritising the well-being of participants as primary (with research as secondary) to avoid a conflict of interest.
- Providing feedback (in a general report) to employees.
- Data is presented at an aggregated level and no possibility exists to trace the source of the input.
- Obtaining ethical clearance before the research was conducted.

The survey was primarily computer based and, once submitted, became anonymous as part of the collective pool of information. An opportunity was also made available to respondents to complete and submit manual forms. Before the survey was submitted, participants could still choose to withdraw anonymously. Surveys that were withdrawn before submission could not be traced to the participants who attempted them.

Participants that needed to discuss the survey could request meetings with one or more of the following leadership figures: the chair of their department, the dean, any member of the Human Resources department or any member of the executive.

3.12 PROCESS FOLLOWED

The worksheets (A1 and A2) required participants to select ten current workplace values and ten desired workplace values. Employees gained access to it by entering the i-enabler site and clicking on the link marked “survey”. The link opened the survey, which consisted of two sheets of possible values: one for current and one for desired workplace values. Once their choices had been made, they submitted the survey and personal identification information was eliminated by the computer program. The survey was therefore completely anonymous (choices could not be traced back to a specific participant).



Manual copies of sheets A and B were also made available through a third party and submitted back anonymously to the researcher. Participation was requested by an invitation letter to employees in the two age groups. Both processes allowed participants to add additional work values they needed to express which may not have been on the list.

3.13 CONCLUSION

This quantitative study should be able to give insights into the work values of two age groups representing an important part of the university's academic population. An opportunity to compare the perceived current work values of two age groups relative to their desired work values will provide information to review the people policies, practices and leadership culture.

The statistical data required careful analysis to interpret the result in the context of the different variables as a purely mechanistic observation would not yield the most feasible outcome.

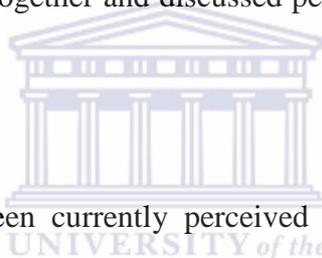


CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives an overview of the results of the workplace values survey information gathered to establish currently perceived and desired work –values in two younger academic age groups. This data is graphically presented, for each different age group, by means of bar charts and also matrixes. The frequency of work value choices and meaningful percentages (15 % and higher), within each age group, are grouped together and discussed per age group-generation X (33-53) and generation Y (18-32).



The differences and matches between currently perceived work values and desired workplace values are graphed and discussed. Potentially limiting values (negative connotations to selected current work values) are identified and analysed within a specific university's context. This result will provide information relative to work value choices made by two younger academic age groups as they currently perceive it and how they ideally would like it to be (desired).

Although there was opportunity to add work values not on the list, no participants added additional values . The samples for the age groups are as follows:

1. Generation X 33 -52: 65 (18% of the target population).
2. Generation Y 18 -32: 51 (16% -based on estimated population-84 permanent staff and 237 part time tutors; it is not possible to determine this exact sample due to short term contract arrangements; which is the nature of tutorial work).

4.2 RESULTS OF WORK VALUE SURVEYS

This section will be divided in firstly the descriptive statistics and secondly the inferential statistics

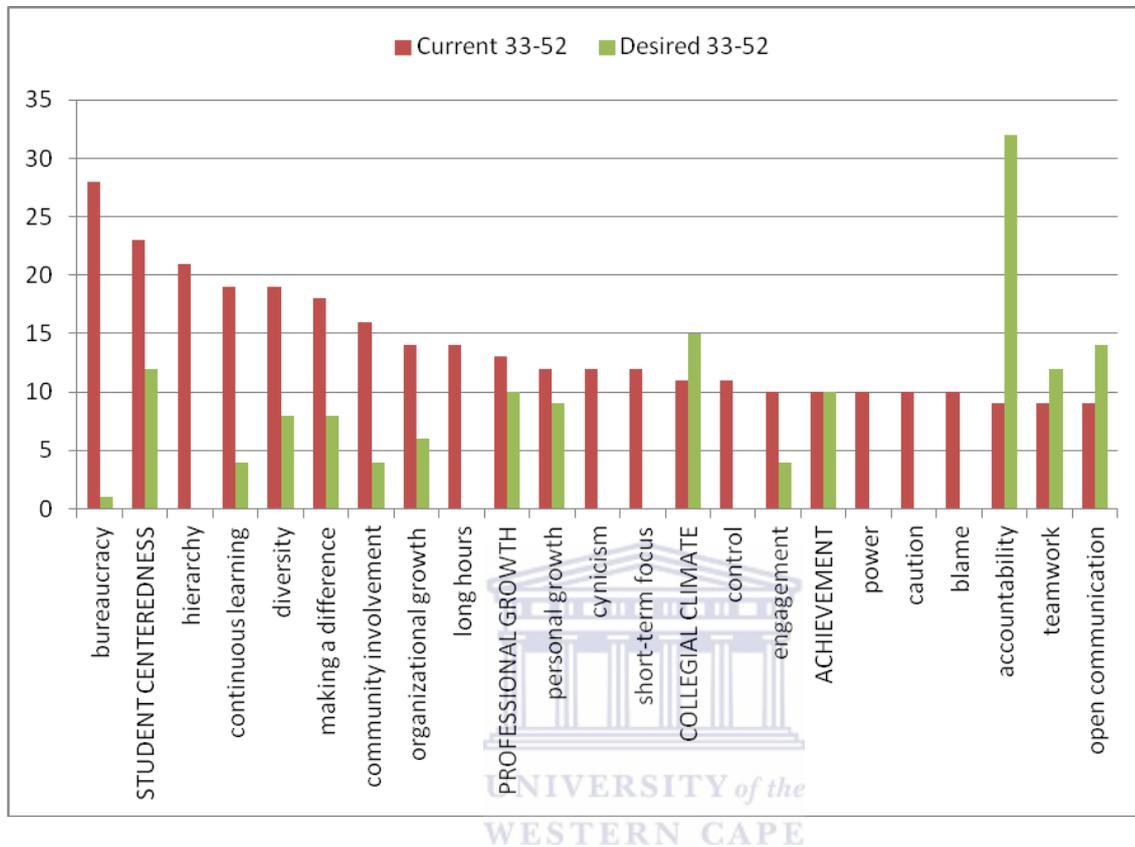
4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics will be presented in the figures to follow.



Figure 4.1: Current work values- Age Group 33 to 52.

Work values currently perceived in rank order of selected frequency, desired work value choices are indicated alongside for comparative reasons (in green).



The results reflected in figure 4.1 depict the current and corresponding desired workplace value rankings for the age group 33-52 and indicate that the top 10 most frequently selected as current workplace values are bureaucracy, student-centeredness, hierarchy, continuous learning, diversity, making a difference, community involvement, organisational growth, long hours and professional growth.

Capital letters indicate the same high ranking (prioritised) work values as selected for both current and desired work values.

Accountability, professionalism, excellence, efficiency, collegial climate, open communication, salary and benefits, transparency, leadership development and balance(home/work life) were rated as the 10 most desired workplace values for this age group (33-52) (figure 4.5).

Figure 4.2 -Current work values Age Group 18 to 32

Work values currently perceived in ranking order of selected frequency, desired work value choices are indicated alongside for comparative reasons (in red).

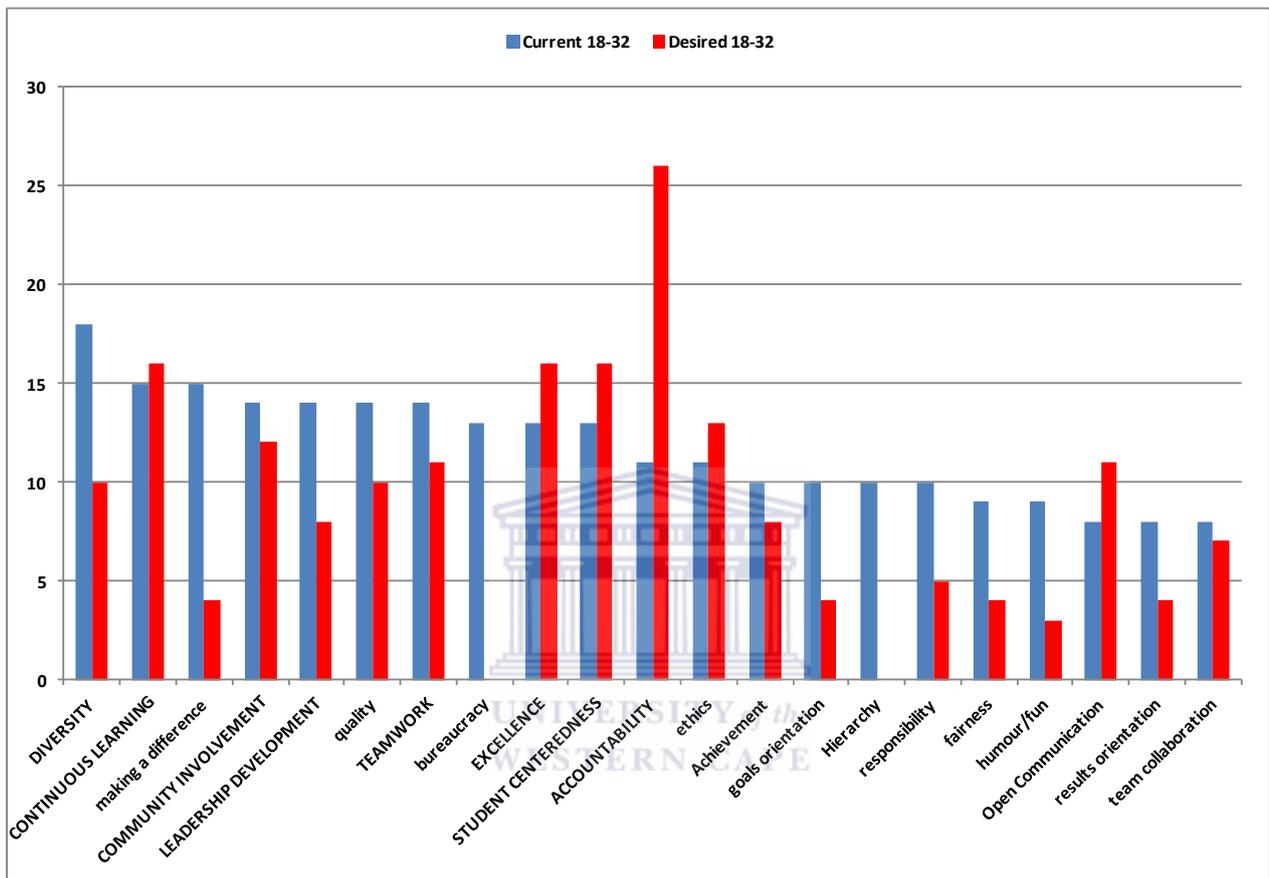


Figure 4.2 illustrates the results obtained for the age group 18-32, depicting the most frequently rated current perceived workplace values, the first 10 relate to diversity, continuous learning, making a difference, community involvement, leadership development, quality, teamwork, bureaucracy, excellence and student-centeredness.

The top 10 rated desired workplace values are accountability, continuous learning, excellence, student-centeredness, mentoring, financial stability, transparency, salary and benefits, ethics and integrity (figure 4.6).

Capital letters indicate the same high ranking (prioritised) work values as selected for both current and desired work values.

Figure 4.3- Ranking of current work values age group 33-52.

Same selections are indicated between the two age groups relative to current work values. The darker indicated (purple) selections show overlaps between the two age groups' selection of work values that were frequently selected by both age groups.

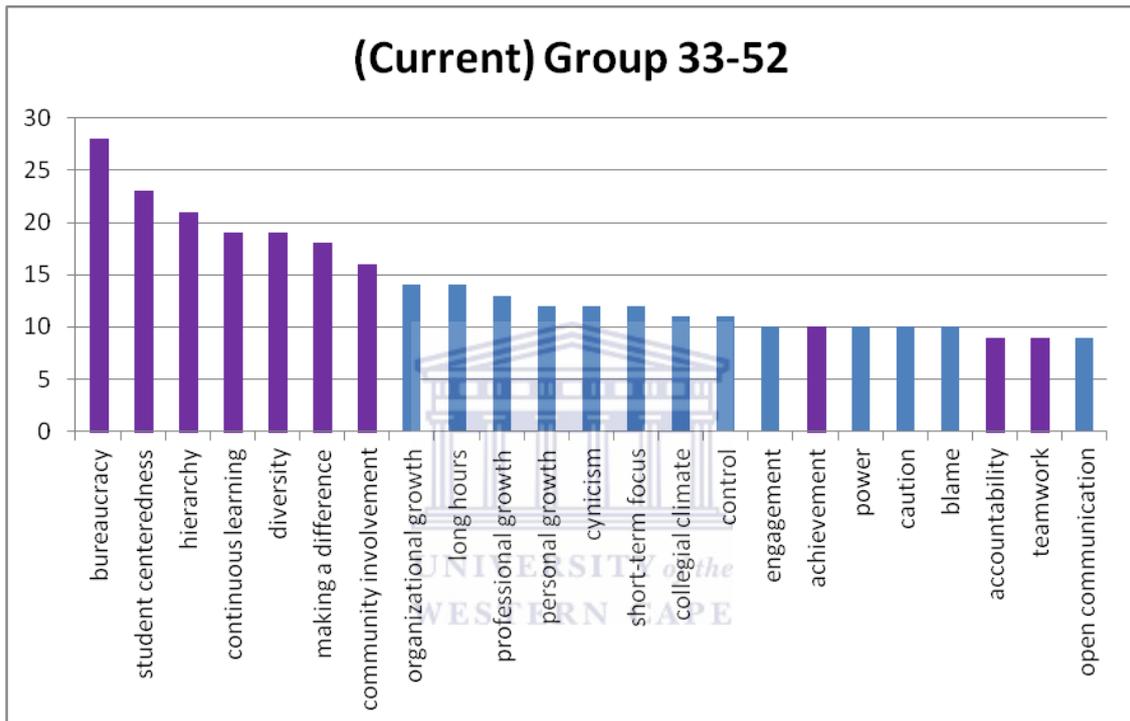


Figure 4.3 provides a graphical representation of the current workplace values as perceived by respondents in the age group 33-52. The results suggest that bureaucracy, student-centeredness, hierarchy, continuous learning, diversity, making a difference and community involvement were rated as the most common workplace values (perceived) in this age group.

Figure 4.4: Ranking of current work values age group 18-32.

Same selections are indicated between the two age groups relative to current work values.

The darker indicated (purple) selections show overlaps between the two age groups' selection of work values that were frequently selected by both age groups.

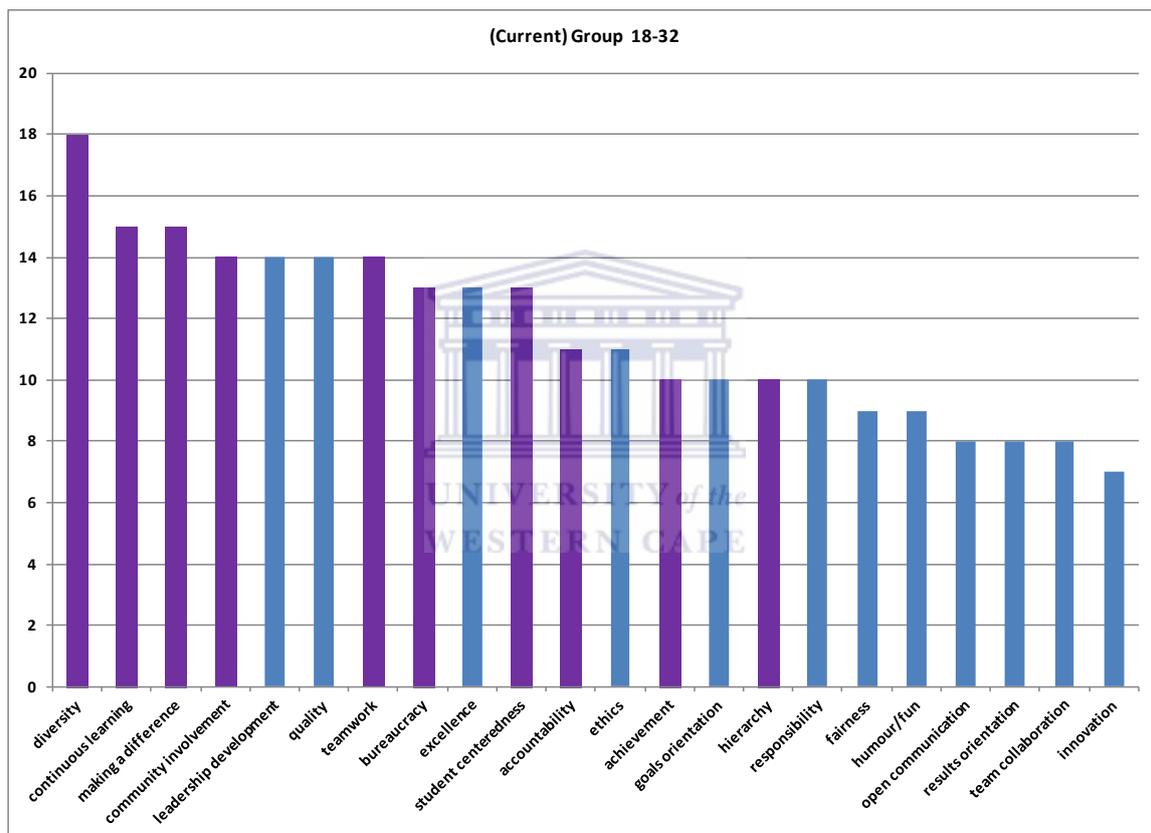


Figure 4.4 provides a graphical representation of the current workplace values as perceived by respondents in the age group 18-32. The results suggest that diversity, continuous learning, making a difference, community involvement, leadership development, quality and teamwork were the most common work values (perceived) for this age group.

Figure 4.5: Ranking of desired work values age group 33-52.

Same selections are indicated between the two age groups relative to current work values.

The darker indicated (purple) selections show overlaps between the two age groups' selection of work values that were frequently selected by both age groups.

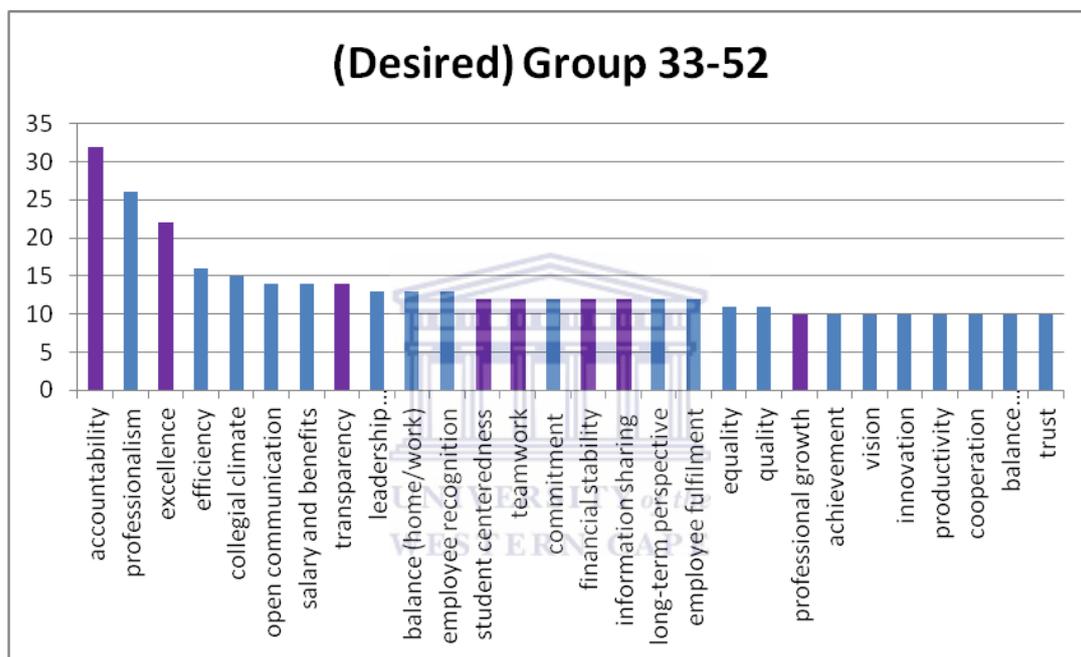


Figure 4.5 provides a graphical representation of the desired workplace values as perceived by respondents in the age group 33-52. The results suggest accountability, professionalism, excellence, efficiency, collegial climate, open communication, salary and benefits are the most common desired work values.

Figure 4.6: Ranking of desired work values age group 18-32.

Same selections are indicated between the two age groups relative to current work values.

The darker indicated (purple) selections show overlaps between the two age groups' selection of work values that were frequently selected by both age groups.

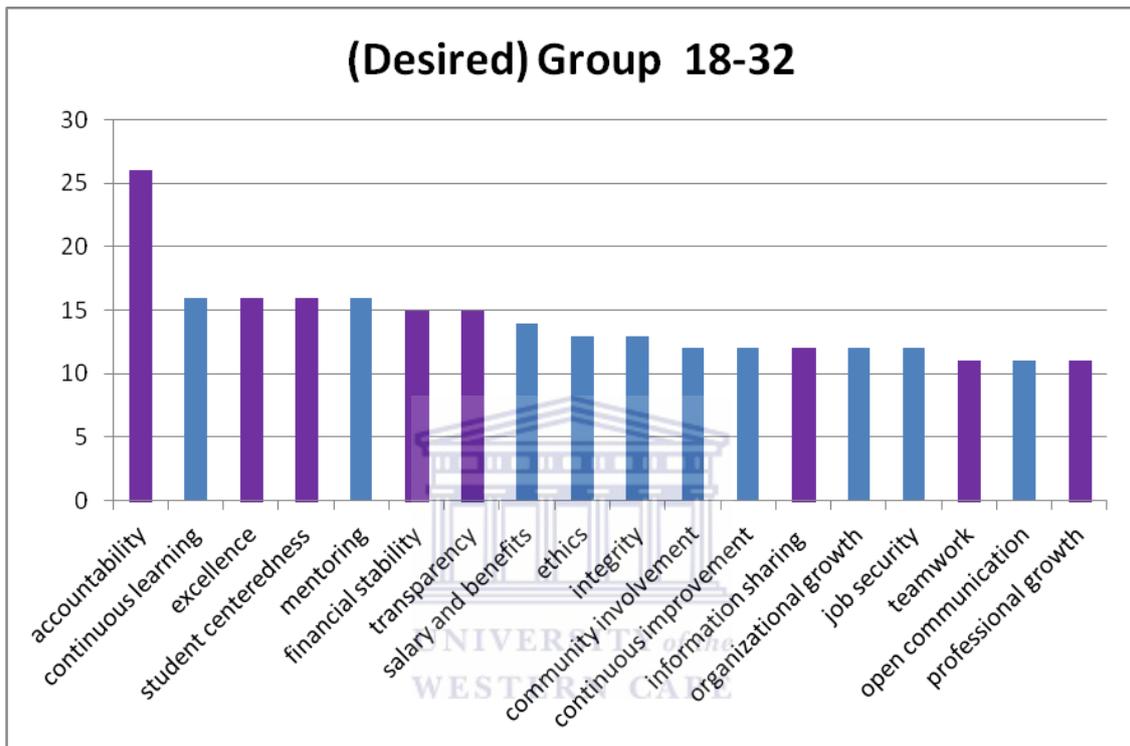


Figure 4.6 provides a graphical representation of the desired workplace values as perceived by respondents in the age group 18-32. The results suggest accountability, continuous learning, excellence, student centeredness; mentoring, financial stability and transparency are the most common desired work values.

4.2.2 Inferential statistics

The following part of this chapter focuses on the inferential statistics utilized to establish relationships between the currently perceived and the desired work values made. Normality of distribution is not assumed therefore the chi-square test was used to compare the expected frequency based on probability with the observed frequency. The sample sizes require caution to interpret the result within a given context.

Table 4.1: Comparison between work values – Current and Desired per age group.

Age Group 33 to 52 (Sample size 65)

CURRENT PERCEIVED WORK VALUES	Frequency	DESIRED WORK VALUES	Frequency	P VALUE
Bureaucracy	28	Accountability	32	
Student Centeredness	23	Professionalism	26	
Hierarchy	21	Excellence	22	
Continuous Learning	19	Efficiency	16	
Diversity	19	Collegial Climate	15	0.048*
Making a Difference	18	Open Communication	14	
Community Involvement	16	Salary and Benefits	14	
Organisational Growth	14	Transparency	14	
Long hours	14	Leadership Development	13	
Professional growth	13	Balance(home /work life)	13	
Personal growth	12	Employee recognition	13	
Cynicism	12	Student Centeredness	12	0.000**
Short term focus	12	Teamwork	12	
Collegial climate	11	Commitment	12	
Control	11	Financial stability	12	
Engagement	10	Information Sharing	12	
Achievement	10	Long term perspective	12	
Power	10	Employee fulfillment	12	
Caution	10	Equality	11	
Blame	10	Quality	11	
		Professional Growth	10	0.057
		Achievement	10	0.697
		Vision	10	
		Innovation	10	
		Productivity	10	
		Cooperation	10	
		Balance (physical/emotional/mental/ Spiritual)	10	
		Trust	10	

*P<0, 05 **P<0, 01 indicate significant differences relative to correlating selections in both current and desired choices.

The results reveal that there are statistically significant differences in the currently perceived and desired -work values for the age group 33-52 (Generation X). Although **student centeredness** was perceived as a highly rated current work value, it was evaluated as less critical as a desired work value ($\chi^2 = 13.224$, $p < 0.01$), this may be because it is considered to be in place.

While a **collegial climate** was considered as one of the current workplace values, it was perceived to be more important in terms of it being a desired workplace value ($\chi^2 = 14.654$, $p < 0.05$). This may be a call for more workplace relationships.

Although **professional growth** was perceived as a current workplace value, there was no significant difference in it being perceived to be more important as a desired workplace value ($\chi^2 = 26.544$, $p > 0.05$). The same was also true for **achievement** in which no statistically significant difference emerged between achievement as a current and desired work value ($\chi^2 = 27.874$, $p > 0.05$).

The four workplace values across current and desired selected work values (indicated in bold, figure 4.1) provide an indication of common values that are understood in the workplace. Only two of these indicated no significant differences between desired and current (Professional growth and achievement). There are many new work values identified in the “desired” section, and these need further analysis to incorporate into new thinking for the future: These requests appear to be both positive and a reaction to what may be “missing” in their perception (accountability, professionalism, excellence, efficiency, balance-work/home, recognition, quality, long term perspective, and productivity are some of the new higher ranking work values that they would like to see more of). Should one combine information sharing, transparency, trust and open communication as a high demand, there would be a great opportunity to shift perceptions around leadership behaviour by regularly meeting and formally communicating.

The eight possibly negative values identified as current (indicated in red) signal that further investigation is required to establish changes to be made. Further exploration may find links to desired work values such as accountability, commitment and productivity.

Table 4.2: Comparison between work values – Current and Desired per age group (18-32)

Age Group 18 to 32. Sample size: 51

CURRENT WORK VALUES	FREQUENCY	DESIRED WORK VALUES	FREQUENCY	P VALUE
Diversity	18	Accountability	26	0.000*
Continuous learning	15	Continuous learning	16	0.713
Making a difference	15	Excellence	16	0.218
Community involvement	14	Student centeredness	16	0.472
Leadership development	14	Mentoring	16	
Quality	14	Financial stability	15	
Teamwork	14	Transparency	15	
Bureaucracy	13	Salary and Benefits	14	
Excellence	13	Ethics	13	
Student Centeredness	13	Integrity	13	
Accountability	11	Community involvement	12	0.367
Ethics	11	Continuous improvement	12	
Achievement	10	Information sharing	12	
Goals orientation	10	Organizational growth	12	
Hierarchy	10	Job security	12	
Responsibility	10	Teamwork	11	0.328
Fairness	9	Open communication	11	
Humour/Fun	9	Professional growth	11	
Open communication	8	Empowerment	11	
Results orientation	8	Engagement	11	
Team collaboration	8	Diversity	10	0.008**
		Quality	10	
		Balance(physical/emotional/ mental/spiritual	10	
		Balance home/work	9	
		Trust	9	
		Leadership development	8	0.042*
		Achievement	8	
		Employee recognition	8	

*P<0, 05 **P<0, 01 indicate significant differences relative to correlating selections in both current and desired choices.

The results reveal that there are statistically significant differences in the currently perceived and desired -work values for the age group 18-32 (Generation Y).

Accountability emerged as the most desired work value for the age group 18-32, demonstrating that there are significant differences relative to the current number of selections of this work value – ($\chi^2 = 22.319, p < 0.01$).

Those in Generation Y rated **leadership development** as a desired and current work value ($\chi^2 = 12.365, p < 0.05$). The same was also true for **diversity**.

In these instances there are statistically significant differences ($\chi^2 = 22.874, p < 0.01$); even though they were selected for both current and desired categories.

The generation Y selected more positive work values than the Generation X group, there are fewer potentially negative work values selected, in the current category. The South African research done by van der Walt and du Plessis (2010) resonates with these findings in that the trends for the generation Y group emphasizes the need for engagement, meaning and work life balance.

There are eight work values that correspond across current and desired choices made, indicating an alignment with the current work culture, depicted in BOLD (figure 4.2). Five of the selections made in both desired and current categories show no statistical significant difference (continuous learning, excellence, student centeredness, community involvement and teamwork). The newly desired selections relating to engagement indicate 6 selections (shown in italics); which presents opportunities for leadership processes that can ensure engagements practices. The desired selections express a preferred work culture.

Table 4.3 Work values in the different generations (A generic South African study result).

This table indicates that other generic studies in South Africa compare favourably with the result of this study relative to generations X and Y.

<p>TRADITIONALISTS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have a structured view of work • Prefer a top-down management style • They are conservative, conforming and loyal to authority figures and the company and embrace traditional family values 	<p>BABY BOOMERS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • See themselves as 'peoples-people' • Known for their workaholic ethic • Prefer informal office environments
<p>GENERATION X</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire positive working relationships • Prefer being a coach or mentor • Want work flexibility • Prefer fun and informal work environments 	<p>GENERATION Y</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Want their jobs to have meaning • Want to feel that they make a positive difference • Success is important and measured in terms of wealth, work-life balance, public praise and attention

Source: van der Walt and du Plessis (2010).

Figure 4.7-Generation Y extrinsic and intrinsic

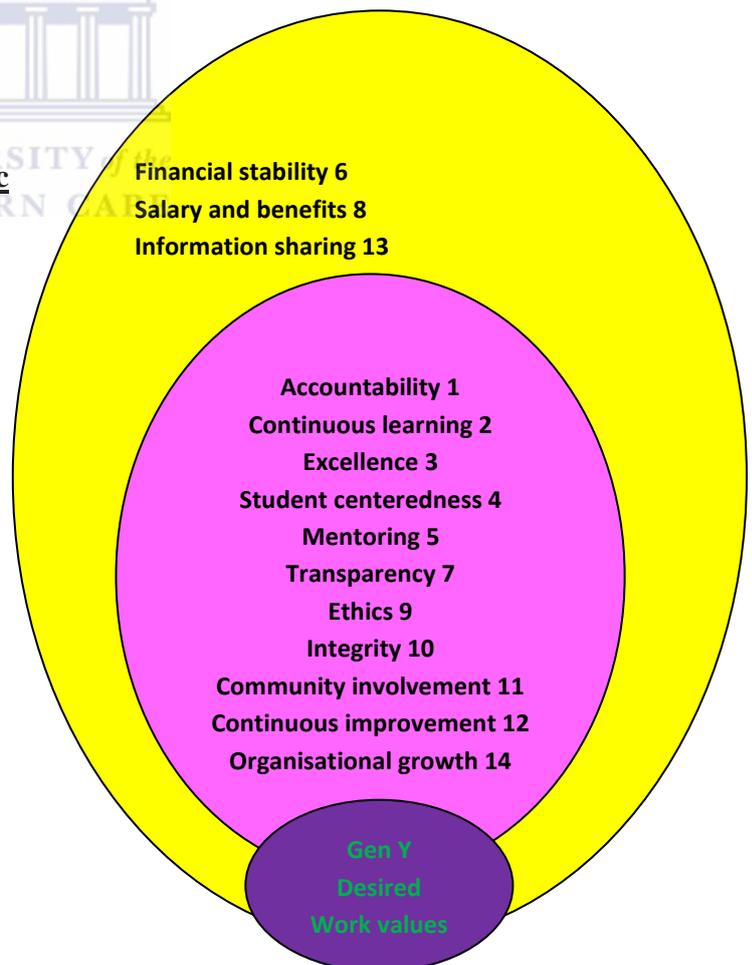
Work values (age 18-32)

(The top ranked 14 desired work values selected)

Extrinsic (tangible) desired work values
–outer circle

Intrinsic (intangible) desired work values
–inner circle

Numbers indicate priority ranking, according to frequency, of selections.



From-Table 4.2 and interpreted according to Figure 2.1(Spargo 2007).

Figure 4.8 -Generation X extrinsic and intrinsic

Work values (Age 33-52)

(The top ranked 14 desired work values selected).

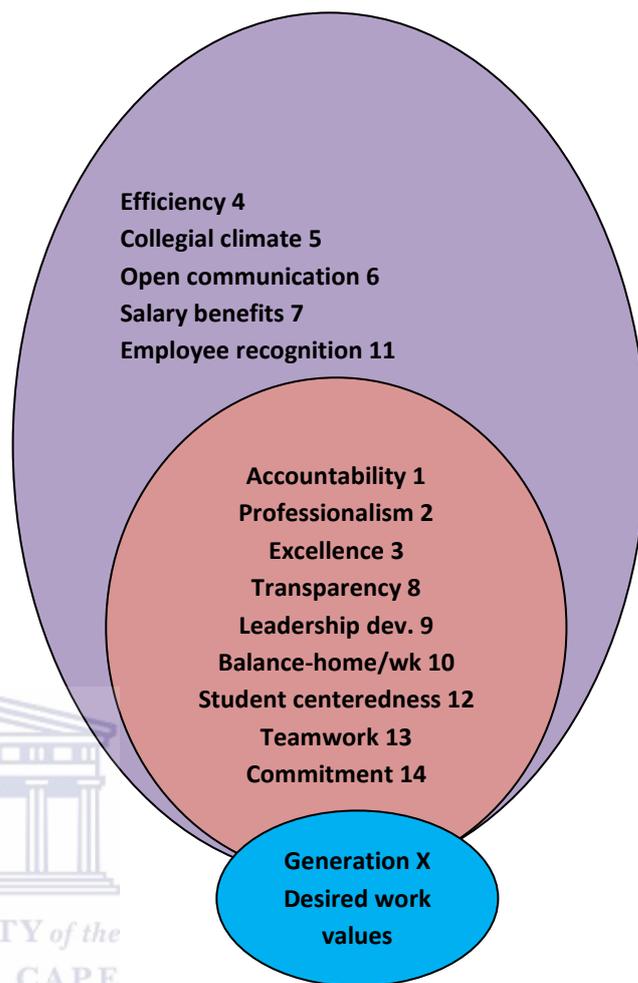
Extrinsic (tangible) desired work values

–outer circle

Intrinsic (intangible) desired work values

–inner circle

Numbers indicate priority ranking, according to frequency, of selections.



From-Table 4.1 and interpreted according to Figure 2.1(Spargo 2007).

4.3 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

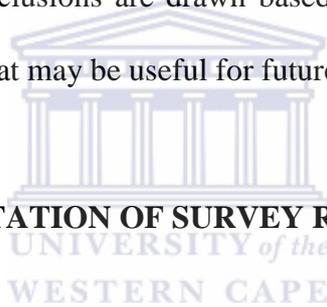
This chapter has provided an overview of the most salient findings obtained based on empirical analysis of the data. Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings obtained and contextualizes the research findings based on previous research on workplace values based on generational differences.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the current and desired workplace values as selected by two age groups at a higher education institution (HEI) within the Western Cape. In this chapter, the major findings of the study are revealed in relation to research relevant to supporting the findings of the current study. A number of conclusions are drawn based on the results obtained. Lastly, this chapter outlines recommendations that may be useful for future research.



5.2 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF SURVEY RESULTS

The results emanating from the current survey identified four workplace values which are common across current and desired selected work values, for Generation X and eight for Generation Y, as they are understood in the workplace. Several work values identified in the desired section may require additional analysis in order to assist with future strategies to retain academic staff.

It is possible that some of the desired values, selected by both generations(X and Y), appear to be positive and a reaction to what is deemed important in their perception (accountability, excellence, student-centeredness, financial stability, transparency, information sharing, teamwork, and professional growth are some of the high ranking work values that this total group of academic staff rated more frequently).

If this is juxtaposed against the need for information sharing, transparency, trust and open communication as a high demand, it may represent an opportunity to shift perceptions around leadership behaviour by regularly meeting and formally communicating.

The possibly negative values identified as current work values suggest that a more in-depth, critical engagement and investigation of these values is required in order to ascertain what changes need to be effected. In so doing, it is possible that links may be found to desired work values such as accountability, commitment and productivity. These may be a counterbalance to bureaucracy, hierarchy and short-term focus (compare tables 4.1 and 4.2).

The generation Y selected more positive work values than the Generation X group, there are fewer potentially negative work values selected, in the current category.

A South African research undertaken by van der Walt and du Plessis (2010) resonates with these findings in that the trends for the generation Y group emphasizes the need for engagement, meaning and work life balance. There are 8 work values in the Y age group that correspond across current and desired work value selection, indicating an alignment with the existing work culture. The newly desired selections indicate 6 selections that desire critical engagement.

Smircich (1983) argued that organizational culture is an independent manifestation of the consciousness of its members and that it cannot be driven by members. The result of this research relative to fairly significant differences in work values selections made between the two age groups indicate that culture is different for different groups and workplaces need to adapt its practices and behaviours to accommodate diversity.

Organisational culture is also maintained as a result of similar experiences, practices and procedures in a sector or specific organization (Robbins, 1993). This factor contributes to the high frequency of the same work values selected; the correlation of the selections made between age groups indicate a positive trend of an aligned culture developing (Barrett, 2005); and also the significant number of same choices between current and desired-work values chosen in each age groups, four overlaps for the generation X group and six for the generation Y group, the latter is an indication of a well understood culture (Barrett, 2005). This signifies that employees are aligned on important or pivotal work values (compare table 2.7) to this university where the study was done.

The number of, potentially limiting work value selections, in the younger group are significantly lower (14%) than the older group's selections (27%). The younger group (Generation Y) is therefore not adding to the level of negative perception which is concerning in the case of older generational X group. Bureaucracy and hierarchy feature as a high frequency selection (28 and 21 respectively, out of 65) for the Generation X age group; whilst cynicism, long hours, short term focus, control, blame, caution and power are lower down for the same age group.

These are the significant potentially limiting work values identified in the Generation X group. This may be as a result of more years work experience or generational differences from a historical perspective as it relates to Montero's (1998) view that values can be interpreted as manipulation from management's influence. In general though the work values selected by all respondents, especially in the generation Y group, are mainly positive work values; which then opposes Montero's (1998) view that management, are experienced, as using work values to manipulate the work environment.

The Generation Y group also selected bureaucracy and hierarchy as top potentially limiting work values (13 and 10 selections made respectively out of 51). These are the only two significant potentially limiting work values made in this age category. As a general observation it appears that the younger generational group (Generation Y) identifies with the current work culture of this university more positively than the older age group (Generation X).

5.2.1 An analysis of the potentially limiting values selected (Age group 33-52)

This group selected a number of potentially negative values in the current category. The total of the number of potentially limiting selections (181) as a percentage of the total number of selections (650) made amounts to 27, 8 % (reflected in table 4.1). Where there is a dissonance of shared values (current and desired choices are different; even though to a lesser extent) one has to consider that a possible negative impact on attaining goals in the future may be a result; because the dynamic change forces both external and internal to HE, may be influences that result in the entrenched culture, no longer being fully appropriate (Robbins, 1993).

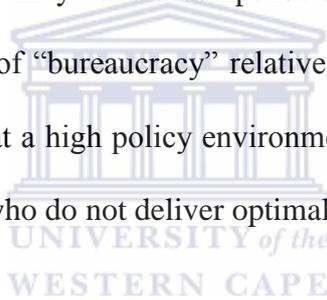
Diversity in the workplace may also be a contributor to some negative work value choices, new entrants in the form of more women and different race groups imply that employees no longer desire to be assimilated into a prevailing culture (Armstrong 1995; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992). The result of 27, 2% potentially negative work values being selected is deemed moderately high as a negative orientation towards a current cultural experience; this is an indication that there may be problems requiring further analysis (Barrett, 2005). This result signifies that this workplace may have to consider some intervention, but at minimum further qualitative research into these negative work value selections, to find alternative practices that are deemed more positive by this important age category.

5.2.2 An analysis of the potentially limiting values (Age group 18-32)

This age group has a positive trend relative to few potentially limiting values having been chosen: out of 510 selections made only 75 have negative connotations (14, 7%). The most frequently potentially limiting values are reflected in table 4.2.

5.2.3 Associations in terms of related work values across current and desired selections made relative to a cause and effect relationships (variables associated with a possible problem)

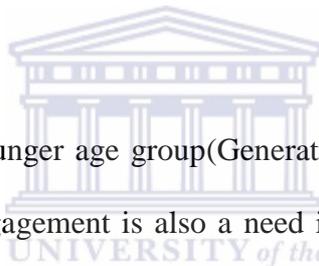
The currently perceived work values may have a compensatory effect on the choices made in the desired section: The current choice of “bureaucracy” relative to a high jump for the desired work value “accountability” is a signal that a high policy environment is strict and there may be rules in place to compensate for employees who do not deliver optimally (Spargo, 2012).



The request for more engagement, transparency, communication, trust and information sharing is a call for more recognition through involvement. This expression for inclusion is further validated by the choice on both the age groups’ priority list for ‘Employee recognition’. Workforce diversity places pressure on leaders to increase more shared decision making, employee participation in this manner delivers improved goal achievement results. The above knowledge should lead to action to change longstanding people practices at the university.

5.3 THE RELATIONSHIP OF FINDINGS TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Potential career direction is influenced by the needs and values formed by different generations. To give organisations clarity on how to structure jobs and policies, Twenge, et al (2010) postulate that working conditions and compensations packages strongly influence attraction and retention of desired work groups. Greenhaus (1987) (in a different era) portrayed values, interests, talents, abilities, and lifestyle preferences as qualities and attitudes as influencing decision-making relative to careers. He further emphasised the understanding of value structures to provide insights into career preferences. This work values survey endeavours to provide this needed information. Pink (2009) finds that purpose and meaning in the new era dominate the motivation of career choices made.



The work values selected by the younger age group (Generation Y), in table 4.2 requires attention and leadership need to note that engagement is also a need identified in the literature review that apparently is not adequately met in workplaces, Meister and Willyerd (2010) emphasizes the requirement of the generation Y group to receive straight feedback. Franzen (2003) focuses on the need to promote new work cultures to meet the needs of the younger generations, specifically in South Africa because the transformation has led to a new set of required work values of which feedback is one. Franzen (2003) shows research evidence where leadership in academia think they have not been prepared for this feedback role, and further responds, that feedback behaviours to fellow academics is not a primary part of their largely specialist roles.

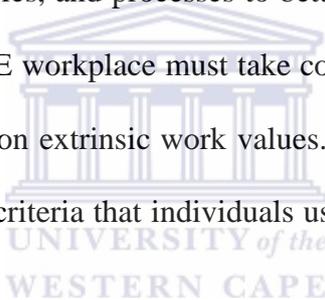
Career growth is enhanced when employees actively manage their careers and when organizations provide support in the form of performance feedback, mentoring, training and development programmes, job redesigns, developmental programmes and career progression planning (Beach, 1991). The desire of leadership to engage in people development and in embracing diversity management is critical to achieve success with the, younger generation, workforce employees (Caudron, 1992).

This demonstrates that leadership development in the HEI's needs much attention. The need expressed for feedback, in the research (Meister & Willyerd, (2010) and Hewlett, Sherbin & Sumberg, 2009) for work value needs is a behaviour that can become part of a work culture, it will persuade an organisation to have a core capability in that area. This capability, representing engagement, will be an advantage when attracting and retaining academic staff because it creates a climate where people encounter opportunities to learn optimally in the workplace. This concept of the need for engagement manifests in the survey results in both groups' through the expression of desired work values by having ranked the following work values in the top category in either one or both groups: mentoring, recognition, teamwork, continuous improvement, professional growth, information sharing, transparency and open communication.

Although the work values of salary and benefits feature as important, the majority and ranking of values chosen indicate a need for more focus on intrinsic meaningful experiences to lead to self-fulfilment at work: bureaucracy and hierarchy ranks high in the current selections in both groups; also surfacing in the older group is long hours, cynicism, control, power and blame, this indicates that work practices exist that causes negativity. The desired section requires a more balanced life style between work and private life but also rates achievement and making a difference as a needed work value.

Across both groups in all four categories (current and desired work values for both age groups) the message is strongly given to focus on accountability, student centeredness, team work and diversity appreciation. The factors in figure 2.2 (Aligning personal ambition with personal behaviour-Rampersad, 2009) and figure 2.3 (Derivation of Consciousness model-Barrett, 1998) indicates the importance of alignment of intrinsic (intangible) and extrinsic (tangible) work factors as an important part of career dynamics and create stability when managing talent for future generations.

This leads to the following conclusion: an insight into the work values of the younger generations, currently in academia, needs to be considered as a necessary emerging change focus that can encourage workplace practices, policies, and processes to better accommodate a new generation of young academic staff in HE. The HE workplace must take cognizance of the intrinsic work values as opposed to an exaggerated focus on extrinsic work values. Work values, needs, influences, and abilities are positioned as important criteria that individuals use to make career choices (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009) -refer table 2.5.

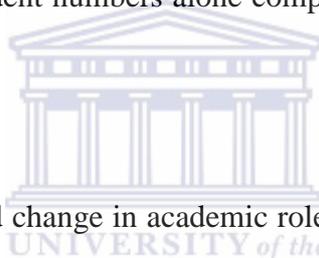


According to Spencer and Spencer (1993), motives drive, direct, and select behaviour, while values are an important part of an individual's construction of self-concept. It is clear, when examining the information about values, that an understanding of values will assist both employees and employers in creating a congruent and conscious workplace that supports the core needs of all people in this work partnering relationship.

Masibigiri and Nienaber (2011) corroborates that training and development link to an intrinsic need of people, addressing drive and motivation rather than extrinsic needs such as salary and status.

In this research study the desired work values selected for both age groups indicate a great appreciation for professional development, continuous learning and training and development as a workplace culture.

Schein (1996) refers to the changing function of work: the ambiguous nature of new roles is starting to emerge among individuals in the workplace arena. The emerging variables should be monitored to ensure relevance and to allow the changes in reasoning to work more efficiently with the next generation of academic staff, for example, because of the changing roles in the HE workplace (as a result of the transformational context of HE), lecturers should reflect frequently on their planning. Students (probably from the generation Y group) might expect more than was required traditionally from lecturers. Massification in student numbers alone complicates lecturing considerably (Quinn, 2006; May 2012).



Fourie (1999) emphasises the needed change in academic roles requires leadership staff to improve their analysis and design of the work they want employees to undertake and to deliver to students. Job planning and role planning therefore become key focus points, aiding Human Resource practitioners to add value to future career stability. The changes that affect a new generation's potential careers in key academic roles (changes in self-concept, values, and an evolved sense of motives and needs) are continually shifting.

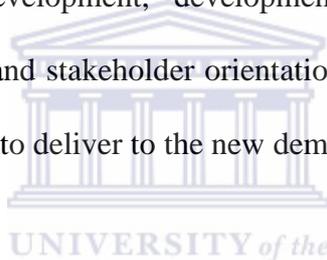
Franzen (2003) highlights that the nature of academic work is vastly different to that of support and administrative work in HEI's. This results in a need to managing dual systems and processes to accommodate different work demands. Franzen (2003) further points to international competency based thinking to clarify the excellence profiles of academic staff: effective communication, interpersonal skills, leadership, self- development, development of others, change management, commitment to quality, student and stakeholder orientation.

Barrett (1998) uses the concept of consciousness, meaning a state of awareness of self-thoughts, feelings, ideas- according to which reality is interpreted through beliefs and values. In the context of this premise, Spargo (2007) developed a rewards indicator depicting tangible (extrinsic) and intangible (intrinsic) rewards, relative to the seven levels of consciousness model (figure 2.1) as per Barrett (1998). This again implies that work values can be related to what is important to people in the workplace (Spargo, 2007).

Spargo's (2007) premise is that tangibles are about "doing"; whilst intangibles are about "being". If the organisational culture, values and vision do not resonate with both tangible and intangible rewards practices, the system will experience dissonance. Extrinsic work values tend to be the more tangible aspects in a work environment; for example: Pay and benefits, issues of equity, wealth, fame, status and efficiencies. Intrinsic work values are less tangible and manifest by people attaching importance to collaborative relationships; recognition and learning, personal growth, meaning in what one does, personal fulfilment and being able to serve a bigger cause (Herzberg, cited by Pink, 2009; Spargo, 2007).

Pink (2009) distinguishes between "needs" and "wants", whilst Spargo (2007) refers to "being" and "doing"; postulating that culture is about "being" which resonates with Pink's positioning of "needs". Spargo (2007) further claims, that a workplace will function optimally, if there is congruence between these concepts representing intrinsic and extrinsic work values. The desired selections made, in this study by the two age groups, reflect a representation of both intrinsic and extrinsic work values; the balance however is towards a preference for intrinsic work values. According to Kovach (1987) this intrinsic affirmation of work values results in a positive work experience for people.

The generation Y group's choices dominate the result with an 83 % indication of intrinsic work values being important; only three choices represent extrinsic work values (financial stability, job security and salary & benefits-figure 4.7). This finding is substantiated by at least 15 % of the sample making these choices. The generation X group indicated 5 extrinsic work values to be important (efficiency, salary & benefits, collegial climate, open communication and employee recognition-figure 4.8). This leaves 82% of their ranked choices (selected by at least 15 % of the sample) as desired intrinsic work values. Thus the majority of selections made relate to intrinsic work values (see tables 4.7 and 4.8). Franzen (2003) postulated a work profile for academic staff that aligns with the desired work values selected by both generations in this study refer to tables 4.1 and 4.2. Franzen (2003) positions the following competencies for academic staff: effective communication, leadership, self-development, development of others, change management, commitment to quality and student and stakeholder orientation. Franzen (2003) further argues that new values and cultures are required to deliver to the new demands in South Africa.



Accepting that talent stewardship represents a transformational change for Higher Education, the change plan has to incorporate change management as a leadership capability with much emphasis on participative facilitation. This need to form part of the day to day working processes of the organisation and not become a 'project' which is someone else's deliverable. The relationship between leadership and change lead to organisational effectiveness and common understanding, especially in the context of adaptive leadership because the process (not a specific leader) is the key driver (Pounder, 2002), this becomes critical in the face of the work values surfaced in this research-the system has to cater for the work value meeting of the new generation and not a few individual leaders. Once a critical mass of participants is established the workplace will have an integrated career process to work within.

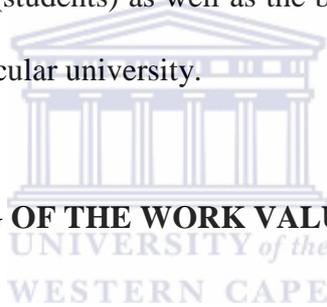
The leadership concept of being adaptive and flexible is positioned as an essential approach for current workplaces because of the fast pace of change (which includes rapidly changing work values). Adaptive behaviours for leaders must be appropriate to the situation. Issues are often traded because competing work values are difficult for leaders to deal with, for example, accountability might be swapped for a too high a degree of bureaucracy (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). Barrett (1998) maintains that people experience the values of an organisation through their leadership. To attract and retain the desired workforce, organisations need to be adaptive and flexible in demonstrating values and in planning the degree of consideration given to work values.

A comparative analysis was done between desired and currently perceived work values based on the frequency of selection by participants. The result of this research study is a reflection of what these two groups experience positively and what they see as limiting, they identified a number of positive current work values; but there are signals of significant differences in what younger academic staff desire in work values and work values they perceive currently at the university: The total negative value of the potentially limiting values selected is 22% for the two groups, totalling 116 respondents. The formula used is the combined number of negative work value selections made as a percentage of the total selections made (256 potentially limiting values out of a total of 1160 selections made).

Many of these values indicate that the leadership energy may not engage enough with people. This potentially limiting factor at 22 % is deemed moderately high and is an indicator that an intervention, to create an awareness of work values and common understanding of required changes, should create a positive shift. The high frequency of “bureaucracy” as a choice may not be that open for change in a state controlled workplace; but this perception may have an influence on the fact that people also do not see enough accountability in the workplace.

These choices also point to process inefficiencies (Bureaucracy, hierarchy, short term focus) and a call for more relationship building efforts (Manipulation, blame, long hours). Lack of trust is signified by control and information hoarding being included in the total survey results.

There may also be links relative to the requests for more accountability, productivity and commitment in the desired section to the current choices centering around bureaucracy, blame and control. The charge for leadership in the context of the choices is to create opportunities to engage staff more and this coupled with the ‘leadership development’ choice, could be expressing a request for improved leadership. These findings corroborate with the South African study done by van der Walt and du Plessis (2010) - table 4.3, indicates that the desire for positive working relationships and helping the younger generation (students) as well as the balanced lifestyle correlates positively with this research study for this particular university.



5.4 TRENDS IN THE MEANING OF THE WORK VALUES SELECTED

In the desired section, open communication, transparency and information sharing, are related work values and is an indication of a leadership behaviour that needs attention. Accountability is frequently selected and may be linked to other work values such as productivity, reliability, quality and responsibility which were also identified as new work values desired.

It is interesting to observe that salary and benefits and Financial stability do feature as amongst the important work values in both groups – the three added together represent 29 selections (56%), for the younger group(Y) and 26 selections (40%) for the older X-Generation group; but it is not within the first ranking choices made, it surfaces first at ranking position 6, for the Y age group; and 7th position for the X group. This concurs with other research done postulating that people seem to be more concerned about intrinsic than extrinsic work culture issues; for example, a higher value is

attached to factors other than salary (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). This occurrence is a common trend in the literature studied, it does however not constitute unimportance, one can relate back to Herzberg (1959), also cited by Gibson, et al. (1991), and accept monetary rewards need to be in place for the intrinsic rewards to be more effective.

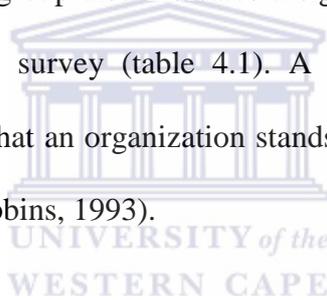
This outcome matches literature that support this view, Sverko and Super (1995), cited by Werner (2011) did research that shows “values related to work are all inner orientated” (p.281) and relates to self fulfilment; other values are indicated as less important. Werner (2011, p. 277) found that the generation X group tends to focus on “flexibility, life options, job satisfaction and teamwork, also friendship, happiness and pleasure”.

This generation X is sceptical of authority and needs a work/life balance. This finding confirms that diversity in the workplace requires leadership to address the differences in language conflicts, establish sexual harassment policies and ensure that career policies do not give unfair advantage to some groups. Family responsive programmes and policies; as well as consistent leadership and accountability are needed to deal with issues of diversity. Werner’s (2011) research comment on the generation Y group as follows: they have high expectations and seek meaning in work. They are more entrepreneurial and socially conscious.

To motivate and retain the generation Y’s, the workplace need to have open communication and information sharing, high participation is required; as well as appreciating their individualism. They thrive when mentored and provided with new technology. The high correspondence of values in the Generation Y age group between current and desired work values indicate high agreement with what the university represents; this alignment builds shared purpose synergy and commitment to a workplace (Martins & Coetzee, 2011).

This research of Werner (2011) corroborates with this research of academic work values; which evidenced similar findings. The above findings are further supported by Merry, cited by Wright (1998), in which it is reported that culture is a meaning making process if engagement with employees is a norm; and that culture that may not be understood and participated in fully, may be open to negative views. Both leadership and culture are framed in old and new views; it is therefore expected that younger generations will expect more participation and understanding of the system they find themselves in.

The generation Y group, in this study, demonstrated a sense of identity with the workplace; the work values selected between current and desired work values indicate a high overlap (table 4.2). The unanimity of the generation X group also indicates a significant degree of agreement among employees who participated in the survey (table 4.1). A shared culture demonstrates a high agreement among members about what an organization stands for, this builds cohesiveness loyalty and organizational commitment (Robbins, 1993).

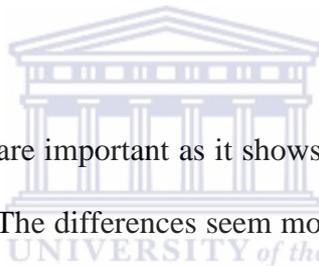


The work value differences that surfaced is an indication that diversity exists relative to individualistic preferences that need consideration to allow for differences in people to reach their full potential in pursuit of strategic achievements (Thomas,1991). A holistic approach to cultural flexibility is therefore required and the challenge to leadership is to think about their personal work values relative to a desired culture for new generations of employees to ensure a workplace where they want to be.

5.5 STATISTICS

5.5.1 Descriptive statistics

The trends in work value choices made indicated in the figures 4.1 to 4.6 and tables, 4.1 and 4.2, shows both a pattern of alignment relative to important work values; as well as significant differences in work value choices made between perceived current and desired for each age group. This is also true for the two age groups, proving that diversity needs to be a focus. No hypothesis was set for the differences between the two age groups as part of the research, as it is not a key focus of the study, but it does point to diversity and the challenges that may bring for leadership reflections.



The tendencies towards correlations are important as it shows a culture of understanding relative to what is important in this workplace. The differences seem more significant and need to be analysed in the context of this environment, it cannot only be statistically interpreted, as there may be cause and effect factors that relate to one another, this has been discussed previously.

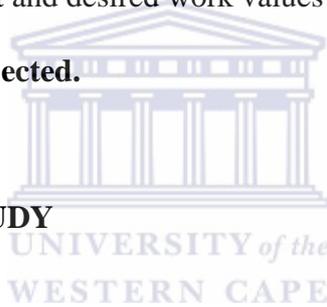
5.5.2 Inferential statistics

A discussion of findings from the statistics done in chapter 4 will be described in terms of the hypothesis: There is a significant difference in the current and desired work values within each of the younger academic groups at a university in the Western Cape.

The research indicates significant differences in the results between desired and perceived current work values in each of the age groups. The alignments and correlations have been discussed but the differences manifest to a high degree to point to a level of non-alignment, in some instances this appears to pertain to specific needs and expectations and it may also require further interventions to actively work with academic staff in these age groups; to bring about needed changes in leadership culture, workplace climates and to serve as part of the considerations when policies are reviewed. This plays a key role in the alignment of planned strategies and desired culture to achieve optimally as indicated in figure 2.5 of this study.

Thus the results depicted in tables 4.1 and 4.2 indicate the significant differences for each of the age groups between the perceived current and desired work values selected.

Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.



5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study wished to obtain a general view of the work value interpretations of the younger generations of academic staff rather than specific views of specific faculties representing particular disciplines. The two younger employee groups (18-52) was the focus of the study. The aim was to establish a correlation between perceived current work values and a desired work culture in academia for the diverse younger generations. The older generations (53 and older) may have the same needs but they were not identified as the target audience for this study. Gender differences were overlooked because the purpose is to obtain a collective result from a sample that represents the diverse working population as a collective.

The same reason applies for not differentiating the results into racial groupings. A non-probability, convenience sample for only two younger generational groups presents limitations in terms of the

result being focused on the diverse and generic work group population as they exist in the workplace.

Differentiation relative to more and detailed age categories, race, gender and academic disciplines would have given targeted results in terms of diverse groupings. The study was cross sectional, measuring data at one point in time only and the sample was limited to 18- and 16% of the two population groups which does not make the study generalisable.

The study focuses on intrinsic work career values, which can be influenced through leadership and culture that may direct career choices rather than on extrinsic values, which may also be important factors influencing career choices. However, the selection of extrinsic values were accepted and recorded to determine their prominence in work values selections made.

The aim was to gain knowledge of the perceived intrinsic current work values, in relation to the desired intrinsic workplace values. Extrinsic values were therefore only recorded and commented on but not analysed in any detail. This was a quantitative study and it is recognized that a triangulated research approach would have yielded a deeper understanding of the desired work values of these two generational groups.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH SUGGESTIONS

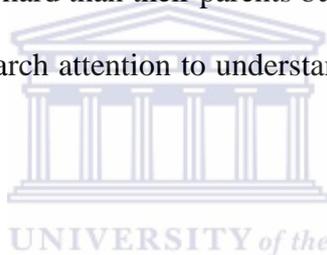
The higher education institution at which the research was undertaken may need to evaluate the job satisfaction and employee engagement levels of their Generation Y academics to establish specific factors that could enhance job satisfaction and improve engagement. There may need to be greater emphasis placed on performance management and development opportunities. The environment can change the priorities of younger academic staff and students. Projections of potential future trends

need to be researched with increased frequency in order to anticipate the future in a more aware manner and to be better prepared for changes in HE. This research should hence be followed up with a longitudinal study, over different periods of time, to establish possible shifts.

The roles of academic staff need to become more dynamic (and subject to constant review) to remain relevant when value changes shift priorities.

The views on different generations' need more in depth research to both establish differences and similarities and to create more awareness for the cultural changes needed by using action research.

It is also warned that the generation Y group may have a disconnect between expectations and reality in that they want to work less hard than their parents but expect high rewards (Twenge et al., 2010), this notion needs further research attention to understand the expectations of this generation better.



Hugo and van Vuuren (1996, cited by Martins & Coetzee, 2011) found no differences between black and white respondents relative to power distances (distribution of power in organizations). Collectivism was found to be higher in black than white respondents, this is an indication of the high value black people, in general, attach to community. Participation and development, as work values, also represents as high priorities for black people (Martins & Coetzee, 2011).

Research into Afro centric (nurturing and commonality of people) and Euro centric (assertiveness, ambition and competitiveness) work values, may also prove very valuable, particularly in the South African context. Steyn and Kotze (2004), cited by Werner (2011) state that work values in South Africa changed between 1995 and 2001, differences in racial and gender categories are evident, but in general, there was a shift away from personal, achievement values towards more traditional work values such as security and income. These aspects lend itself to further research.

Research focusing on the preferences and values of the younger generations is critical to ensure successful recruitment and retention of these generations (van der Walt & du Plessis, 2010). Therefore the indication is that further qualitative research will enhance this finding that indicates that the generation X and Y groups need more opportunity to participate in this workplace; and that there is a more positive correlation between the Y- age group and the workplace's work values; than what the case is with the generation X- age group.

The impact of leadership on the younger generations work values experience should be investigated in a deeper sense as there is evidence in this research that HE leadership do not focus on people as a priority relative to engagement (Fourie, 1999; Franzen, 2003). Research on the knowledge, awareness and appreciation of differences in people, also relative to changing attitudes, and how leadership manages these diversity aspects is also warranted. Furthermore, investigating the value that organisations get from implementing diversity programmes, will enhance the body of knowledge to encourage more diversity interventions. CAPE

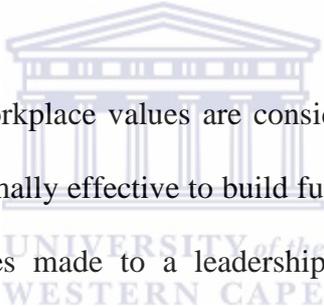
This research should be followed up with qualitative longitudinal studies, over different periods of time, to establish possible shifts.

5.8 CONCLUSION

According to Robyn and du Preez (2012), Generation Y turnover remains a concern in higher education institutions. Armed with the knowledge that this particular group of academic employees will need to replace the existing cadre of researchers and university lecturers who are projected to retire in the next few years, it is incumbent on HEIs to promulgate and shape human resource policies and practices to retain Generation Y academics.

The dependant variable identified as intrinsic work values that affect career choices have been positioned in this study as an important factor when working with career and talent matters in this particular academic institution. It is clearly demonstrated that culture which tends to be a dependant variable is greatly influenced by leadership work values and their resulting work behaviours ;which has a moderating effect on the culture and the experiences of employees in the work setting.

The HE context and the generational differences tend to be independent and influencing variables that need to be taken into consideration to enable the workplace to deal with future generations, talent in the knowledge workplace needs to be accommodating of current and emerging change trends.



Only if individual and collective workplace values are considered more prominently, will people practices and processes become optimally effective to build future generations of academic cohorts. This research indicates that changes made to a leadership culture will make a difference in improving retention of these younger generations; if leadership manage to behave more transparently by using good communication processes, create teamwork opportunities, establish collegiality and also emphasise ethics, fairness and efficiency.

These work values also need to reflect in the psychological contract that commences prior to employment, by sharing information about the organisation's value system, through the induction process by giving a clear indication of developmental opportunities and in daily work experiences by allowing a personal life balance to be a reality. This research supports Thompson's (2011) view that Millenials are noticeably more optimistic than past generations and also emphasises the ethics and integrity values more than what was evident with other generations. According to Thompson (2011) they want to see this value gravitate towards socially responsible organisations. Seen in the

light of the aforementioned, results and theory as well as the central nature and the role which academics play within the functioning and sustainability of any higher education institution, it is imperative that the leaders who are responsible for the management of these institutions should find ways of addressing the career dilemmas of academic staff.

The problems of academics in careers with high levels of job dissatisfaction and work stress should be addressed more proactively and effectively, especially where young academics are concerned. The reason for this is that they are associated with, among others, decreased organisational commitment, decreased mental and physical health, problematic collegial relationships, and a decrease in the quality of work life. Pienaar (2005) feels strongly that, should such problems not be addressed, high quality academics will in all probability increasingly be lost for higher education and its institutions.

If this institution takes heed of the above, its national and international image and its competitive advantage, as well as the ability to generate new knowledge in a specific field may be greatly enhanced. This matter influences the sustainability of this institution as well as of South African higher education as a whole. While taking all these aspects into account, some of the national priorities which have to receive attention from higher education and higher education institutions are the acquisition and the retention of high calibre academics with specific reference to an improved financial remuneration system.

It is recommended that this study should also be undertaken in other higher education institutions in South Africa and, additionally, that more academics should take part in studies of this kind.

It is well known that higher education institutions play a fundamental role in achieving social equity and promoting higher levels of economic and social development. Higher education institutions are however characterised by constant change and turbulence owing to factors such as globalisation,

new technology, and national macro-economic and fiscal policies and circumstances (Barkhuizen, Rothman & Tytherleigh, 2004; Fourie & Fourie, 2000; Salmi, 2000; Zaharia, 2002).

Illustrative of this are the structural adjustments and increasing demands regarding accountability and quality assurance to which South African higher education institutions must adhere (like higher education institutions worldwide).

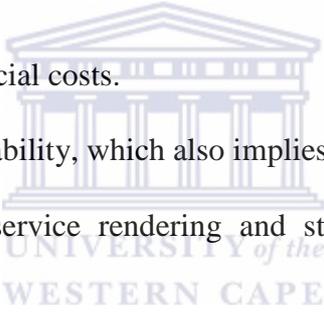
The success, functioning and sustainability of any higher education institution are however greatly influenced by the extent to which the careers of academic staff are successfully managed amidst all the demands and changes, as indicated in the previous paragraph. More than any other type of organisation, higher education institutions are dependent on the intellectual capital and commitment of their staff (Martin, 1999; Oshagbemi & Hickson, 2003).

To further exacerbate this situation it is evident from literature that the careers of academic staff in higher education institutions in South Africa — as in the rest of the world — are under tremendous pressure for various reasons, and that, according to Anderson, Richard and Saha (2002), shows a decline in the image and status associated with an academic career. In a research study conducted by Anderson et al. (2002) among academics in Australian higher education institutions, 79% and 71% of the respondents were, respectively, of the opinion that the image and status of an academic career are declining.

However, the realities and changes within higher education as mentioned earlier on do not only affect the image and status of an academic career, but also contribute to problems such as increased job dissatisfaction and work stress and a decline in commitment to the organisation. This dilemma in higher education is illustrated by the results obtained in a national study conducted within

Australian higher education institutions, where 68% of the respondents (academic staff) indicated that departures from higher education were on the increase (Anderson et al., 2002).

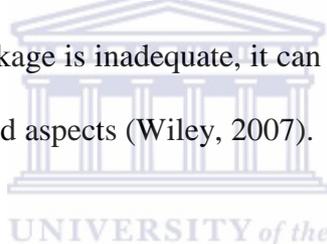
This problem also seems a reality within South African higher education, since Koen (2003) states that data indicate that the rate at which academics are, in fact, leaving higher education institutions is cause for concern. Figures of between 5% and 18% are quoted and Naidu and Govender (2004) predict an increasing shortage of academic staff within South African higher education institutions, due to the "brain drain" and more attractive options in the private sector. Increased labour turnover and reduced commitment from employees — academic staff in this instance — may according to Phillips and Connell (2003) give rise to the following negative organisational and/or institutional outcomes:

- 
- High direct and indirect financial costs.
 - A decline in financial sustainability, which also implies a reduced possibility of survival.
 - A decline in productivity, service rendering and standards, as well as an increase in workflow disruptions.
 - Loss of experience and specialist knowledge.
 - An increase in administrative processes and a higher administrative workload.
 - A decline in the image of the organisation or institution, since this is sometimes accompanied by grievance procedures.
 - A disruption of the internal and informal social liaison and communication channels.
 - Increased levels of job dissatisfaction among the remaining staff.

Anderson et al., (2002) and Barkhuizen et al., (2004) identify financial remuneration as one of the main problems that contribute to job dissatisfaction within higher education institutions in South Africa and all over the world. According to Potgieter (2002), numerous black academics leave higher education institutions owing to poor financial remuneration, which did not seem to be the

case in this study. Ball (2004) points out that poor financial remuneration of academics in South Africa is one of the main reasons why higher education institutions cannot recruit and retain academics of a high calibre.

Oshagbemi and Hickson, (2003) found that academics in South Africa are particularly unhappy about the difference in financial remuneration between academics and their counterparts in the private sector, who do not have the same academic qualifications. According to Baruch (2004) and Schreuder and Coetzee (2010), financial remuneration is directly and indirectly related to the standard of living, sense of self-worth, job satisfaction and status of persons and their dependants. According to Mentz and Scheepers, (1995, cited in Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010), remuneration contributes instrumentally to the satisfaction of physiological and psychological needs. If there is a perception that the remuneration package is inadequate, it can have a negative impact on the morale of employees and the afore-mentioned aspects (Wiley, 2007).



Indeed, the research of Robyn and du Preez, (2012) suggests that there is a strong correlation between remuneration, reward and recognition and job satisfaction, and an inverse, statistically significant relationship between employee engagement, job satisfaction and intention to quit amongst based on a sample of 189 Generation Y academics at 6 universities. This trend implies that, unless HEIs proactively identify critical antecedents to turnover, devise appropriate retention strategies and take cognizance of the outcomes of research, they are likely to continue to not only attract, but also retain academics.

In conclusion, it appears that intrinsic and key extrinsic rewards, such as money, can be experienced separately in employees' minds, they will experience intrinsic satisfaction for the work and experiences they have in the context of a pay for performance system (Lawler, 2006). Optimum motivation can be experienced when people have performance roles that are both extrinsically and intrinsically rewarding.

Workplaces are therefore challenged to design reward systems where performance leads to both type of rewards. In the final analysis, it is likely that organisations that offer the most attractive mix of rewards will find themselves to be a sought after employer.



INVITATION LETTER FOR PARTICIPANTS IN WORK CULTURE SURVEY

Dear Participant,

The process is designed to obtain information from younger academic staff to determine what their CURRENT and ideal/DESIRED descriptors of workplace values are by identifying work-“values” they experience and desire at work. The target age groups 18-32 and ages 33-52.

The actual worksheet will require you to select ten DESIRED workplace values(sheet A) and also ten CURRENT workplace values(sheet B) to support the research statement "There are differences in choices made by of younger academic staff relative to personal views on intrinsic, current, and desired workplace values".

Ignore if done manually

This is a computerised survey that can be accessed via the i-enabler site by entering and clicking on the "survey" link. The survey consists of two sheets of possible values: current, and desired. First select ten priority values for desired work values and then select ten priority values for current work values. When your choices have been made, submit your survey and your personal identity will be eliminated. The survey is therefore completely anonymous (your choices cannot be traced back to you), and it is only available online. The survey retains three categories of general information: age group (either 18 to 32 or 33 to 52), gender, and race.

To access the survey, click here: [Work Culture Survey](#), to log into the iEnabler website, then enter your staff number and your PIN number. (If you do not know your PIN, click on the "Request A PIN" button. The PIN will be emailed to you). Click on "Login", click on the + sign to the left of "Personnel iEnabler", then click on the + sign to the left of "HR Website". Click on "Personal Menu" and you should see a tab called "Survey Capture" appear on the right hand side. Click on it and begin the survey.

Your participation will also help me to achieve my personal academic goal because this topic is part of my research question for a mini- M thesis. This information will be aggregated and published anonymously. The information gathering will require 15 minutes of personal time (on a computer).

We will ensure that anonymity is upheld. At no stage will input be related back to individuals.

Your participation is greatly appreciated.

*Amanda Glaeser
Executive Director: Human Resources*

WORKING CLIMATE AND CULTURE

Age Group 18 – 32

Age Group 33 – 52.

Please circle the number and select 10 “labels” of work values that most reflect what YOU **Desire** in the workplace

This sheet A-**DESIRED** WORK VALUES--(Also complete B- next page for Current Work Values)

1. accountability	34. empowerment	66. manipulation
2. achievement	35. enthusiasm	67. mentoring
3. adaptability	36. equality	68. mission focus
4. balance (home/work)	37. ethics	69. open communication
5. balance (physical/emotional /mental/spiritual)	38. excellence	70. openness
6. being the best	39. experience	71. optimism
7. blame	40. exploitation	72. organizational growth
8. bureaucracy	41. fairness	73. partnerships
9. caution	42. financial stability	74. passion
10. clarity	43. forgiveness	75. patience
11. commitment	44. future generations	76. personal growth
12. community involvement	45. global perspective	77. philanthropy
13. compassion	46. goals orientation	78. power
14. conflict resolution	47. hierarchy	79. productivity
15. consensus	48. honesty	80. professional growth
16. continuous improvement	49. human rights	81. professionalism
17. continuous learning	50. humour/fun	82. salary and benefits
18. control	51. image	83. quality
19. cooperation	51. information hoarding	84. reliability
20. cost reduction	52. information sharing	85. respect
21. creativity	53. innovation	86. responsibility
22. team collaboration	54. integrity	87. results orientation
23. Collegial climate	55. interdependence	88. risk taking
24. cynicism	56. internal competition	89. shared values
25. diversity	57. job security	90. shared vision
26. ease with uncertainty	58. leadership development	91. short-term focus
27. efficiency	59. listening	92. strategic alliances
28. empire building	60. long hours	93. teamwork
29. employee fulfilment	61. long-term perspective	94. transparency
30. employee health	62. loyalty	95. trust
31. employee recognition	63. making a difference	96. vision
32. engagement	64. student centeredness	97. wisdom
33. sense making	65. Poverty reduction	98. -----

If you have a “label(s)” / values you want to use which is not mentioned here, add it here

WORKING CLIMATE AND CULTURE

Age Group 18 – 32

Age Group 33 – 52

Please circle the number and select 10 “labels” of work values that most reflect what YOU currently experience in the workplace

B. CURRENT Work Values

1. accountability	34. empowerment	66. manipulation
2. achievement	35. enthusiasm	67. mentoring
3. adaptability	36. equality	68. mission focus
4. balance (home/work)	37. ethics	69. open communication
5. balance (physical/emotional /mental/spiritual)	38. excellence	70. openness
6. being the best	39. experience	71. optimism
7. blame	40. exploitation	72. organizational growth
8. bureaucracy	41. fairness	73. partnerships
9. caution	42. financial stability	74. passion
10. clarity	43. forgiveness	75. patience
11. commitment	44. future generations	76. personal growth
12. community involvement	45. global perspective	77. philanthropy
13. compassion	46. goals orientation	78. power
14. conflict resolution	47. hierarchy	79. productivity
15. consensus	48. honesty	80. professional growth
16. continuous improvement	49. human rights	81. professionalism
17. continuous learning	50. humour/fun	82. salary and benefits
18. control	51. image	83. quality
19. cooperation	51. information hoarding	84. reliability
20. cost reduction	52. information sharing	85. respect
21. creativity	53. innovation	86. responsibility
22. team collaboration	54. integrity	87. results orientation
23. Collegial climate	55. interdependence	88. risk taking
24. cynicism	56. internal competition	89. shared values
25. diversity	57. job security	90. shared vision
26. ease with uncertainty	58. leadership development	91. short-term focus
27. efficiency	59. listening	92. strategic alliances
28. empire building	60. long hours	93. teamwork
29. employee fulfilment	61. long-term perspective	94. transparency
30. employee health	62. loyalty	95. trust
31. employee recognition	63. making a difference	96. vision
32. engagement	64. student centeredness	97. wisdom
33. sense making	65. Poverty reduction	98. -----

If you have a “label(s)” / values you want to use which is not mentioned here, add it here

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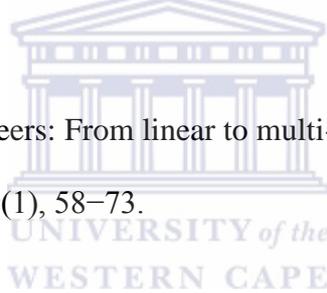
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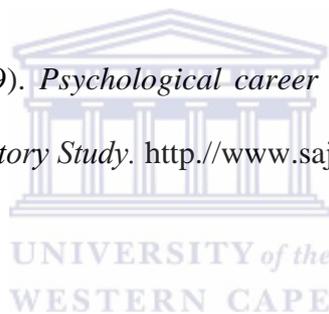
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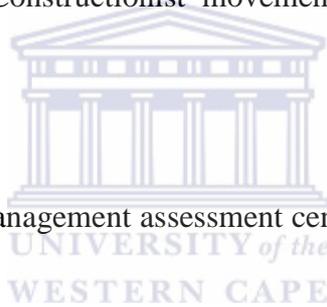
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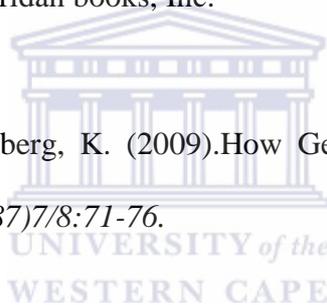
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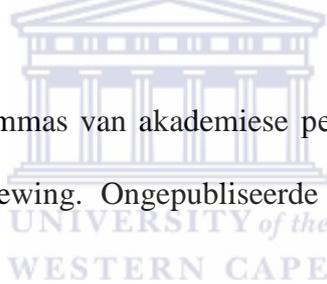
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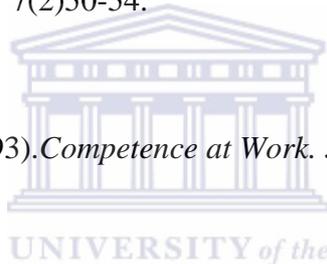
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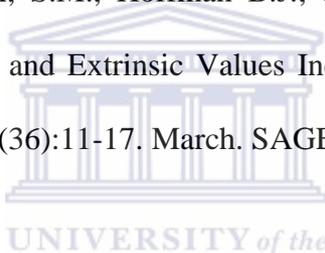
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GLOSSARY

Action research: A cyclical process of diagnosis-change-research-diagnosis-change-research. The results of diagnosis produce ideas for changes, the changes are introduced into the same system, and their efforts noted through further research and diagnosis. The number of cycles may be infinite.

Capability: Measure of the ability of an entity (department, organization, person, system) to achieve its objectives, especially in relation to its overall mission.

(www.businessdictionary.com)

Complex bundle of skills and accumulated knowledge (competency) that will enable the workplace to coordinate activities and optimise assets (Day: 1994)

Change: Incremental adaptation

Change Leadership: Leading change primarily through adaptive and generative human systems in the leadership culture and its beliefs and practices.

Change Management: Managing change primarily through technical solutions and operational systems, structures and processes.

Climate: The collective current impressions, expectations, and feelings of the members of local work units, which in turn affect member's relations with supervisors, with one another and with other units.

It represents the shared perceptions of the employees of organizations and their work environments.

Competence: Is a generic knowledge, skill, trait, self – schema or motive of a person that is causally related to effective behaviour referenced to external performance criteria, where:

Knowledge is a set of usable information organised around a specific content area.

Skill is the ability to demonstrate a set of related behaviours or processes

Trait is a disposition or characteristic way of responding to an equivalent set of stimuli

Self – schema is a person's image of himself/herself and his/her evaluation of that image

Motive is a recurrent concern for a goal state or condition which drives, selects and direct

Core capabilities: Emerge when a company combines (and delivers on) individuals' competencies and capabilities

(Dave Ulrich and Norm Smallwood)

Core competence: A unique ability that a company acquires from its founders or develops and that cannot be easily imitated. Core competencies are what give a company one or more competitive advantages, in creating and delivering value to its stakeholders in its chosen field.

(Rothwell & Kazanas, 1994)

Critical mass: A high concentration of thinking energy that is different from the surrounding energy and mindsets, able to cause a tipping towards new paradigms.

Culture: The culture of an institution or any group of individuals is a reflection of the values, beliefs and behaviours of leaders of the group.

The culture represents the "way things are done around here."

Some of the mechanisms that make these issues real for people:

- The way the institution is designed and structured
- The rituals and rites that characterise the institution
- The myths and stories about people and events that people tell and retell
- The focus of the system and procedures that are put in place

Diversity: Create a culture from which all employees can benefit from support and grow in careers. Individuals are not disadvantaged because of their cultural backgrounds. Also see-
Managing diversity

Engaged: Being involved in tasks, cognitively alert and emotionally connected to others when performing a job

Engagement: Employees' simultaneous physical, cognitive and emotional absorption in their jobs and job roles. (Werner, 2011)

Environment: The physical and social context within which any client system (a person, group, or organisation) is functioning

Extrinsic values and rewards: Rewards given by an organisation such as pay, promotion, praise tenure and status symbols. It becomes a value if an individual or system rates it as primary reasons for being there.

Facilitate: A process by which events are “helped to happen.” Facilitating is a kind of influence role that is neither authoritarian nor abdicative

First-order change: Change is linear and continuous. It implies no fundamental shifts in the assumptions that organisational members hold about the world or how the organisation can improve its functioning. (Transactional Change)

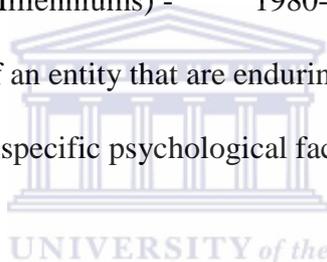
Generations:-Baby boomers-Population born between 1941 and 1959

-Generation X- 1960 and 198

-Generation Y (New Millenniums) - 1980-present time

Identity: The distinctive character of an entity that are enduring, core and unifying.

Individual Needs and Values: The specific psychological factors that provide desire and worth for individual actions or thoughts



Intrinsic rewards and values: Rewards that must originate and be felt within the person. Intrinsic values include feelings of accomplishment, achievement and self esteem.

Leadership: Executive and Management behaviour that provides direction and encourages others to take needed action; includes follower’s perceptions of executive practices and values and leaders role modelling.

A process of influence exercised when institutional, political, psychological, and other resources are used to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers.

Leadership culture: Ways in which leaders create institutional culture-

- What leaders pay attention to, monitor and measure
- On what bases leaders decide to allocate resources
- The kinds of behaviours leaders model for others; and
- The bases on which leaders recruit, select, develop, and deal with people

Managing Diversity: Managing diversity is a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all employees. (Thomas,1991 p.10, cited in Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994 p. 302).

Mission & Strategy: What top managers believe and have declared as the organisation's mission and strategy, as well as what employees believe is the central purpose of the organisation; the means by which the organisation intends to achieve its purpose over time.

Management Practices: What managers do in the normal course of events with the human and material resources at their disposal to carry out the organisation's strategy.

Motivation: Aroused behavioural tendencies to move toward goals, take needed action, and persist until satisfaction is attained (i.e. the energy generated by the combined desires for achievement, power, affection, discovery, and other important human values)

Norms: Rules regulating behaviour in any social system. Norms are more specific and pointed than values. Deviation from norms can be followed by forms of punishment.

Open System: The need to take into account relations between a system and its environment. This concept in systems theory is borrowed from the biological sciences. It refers to the nature and functions of transactions that take place between a system and its environment.

Organisational Development and Transformation (also see Transformation)

*(Organisational Development and Transformation have become similar concepts)

Gordon Zide (2010, p.37) depicts Transformation as change management with a paradigm shift:

Moving from the familiar to the "untested and untraversed waters" This includes –"Transformation of structures, systems, values, perceptions ,ethics, thinking, attitudes ,and organizational culture"

He further argues that transformation should be applied in the general sense to develop the country, as opposed to a narrower meaning, that represents a way of compensating previously disadvantaged people.)

What is widely written about OD is that, it has renewed itself to be based in an emerging new social phenomena and social reality.

Organisation development (OD)- The system wide application and transfer of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organisation effectiveness.

Organisational Values: The deep level diversity characteristics that people share-they are important factors for shaping people's mindsets about their organizational lives. It helps to make sense of an environment and directs behaviour. (Martins and Coetzee, 2011)

Paradigm: A set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that constitutes a way of viewing reality for the community that shares them, especially in an intellectual discipline.

An all encompassing worldview or frame of reference.

Performance: The outcomes or results with indicators of effort and achievement including productivity, staff satisfaction, profit, and service quality

Potential: The belief that an individual can exceed on their current capability provided a conducive environment (opportunity) exists and the individual demonstrates a willingness (motivation) and competence to exceed.

Opportunity – allowed to do

Motivation – want to do

Competence – Can do

Process: The way any system is going about doing whatever it is doing. Social process is the way persons are relating to one another as they perform some activity. Organisational process is the way different elements of the organisation interact or how different organisational functions are handled.

Psychological Contract: The unwritten agreement between the individual and the organization specifying what the two parties expect from one another; thus engaging in a reasonable relationship of give and take (Bergh,2011).

Second-order change: is a multi-dimensional, multilevel, discontinuous, radical change involving reframing assumptions about the organisation and the world in which it operates. (Transformational change)

Quality of work life: A way of thinking about people, work, and organisation involving a concern for employee well-being and organisational effectiveness. It generally results in employee participation in important work-related problems and decisions.

Skills/Job Match: The behaviour required for task effectiveness, including specific skills and knowledge required to accomplish work

Social capital: “The collection of resources owned by the members of an individual’s personal social network, which may become available to the individual as a result of the history of these relationships” (Snijders ,1999).

“Social capital is shared norms or values that promote social cooperation, instantiated in actual social relationships”. (Fukuyama, 2002).

Structure: The arrangement of functions and people into specific areas and levels of responsibility, decision-making authority, communication and relationships to implement the organisation’s mission and strategy

Systems: Standardised policies and mechanisms that are designed t facilitate work and that primarily manifests themselves in the organisations reward and control systems (eg. Performance appraisal, management information systems, budget development, and human resource allocation)

Transformation principle: Sustain and practice a new state and you will make it to the next stage; maintain the new bigger idea long enough and you will advance to the next leadership logic

Transformation (Also see Organisational Development and Transforamtion): “A change in form, outward appearance, character or disposition..it is the non incremental and simultaneous change of an organisation’s strategy and structure, systems and processes, measurements and controls, culture and expectations, costs and capabilities”.

(Meyer & Botha, 2004, cited by Zide, 2010, p.42).

Transformer: Someone who can transform organisations through an unusual capability to simultaneously deal with multiple situations at many different levels.

Values: The moral principles or standards that we use to guide our conscious behaviour in the world

(Smit, 2010). “Beliefs that are experienced by the individual as standards regarding how he or she should function”. (Brown, 2003, cited by Patton & McMahon, 2006).

Value system (representative): Ranking values in terms of importance and intensity. This is a basis to evaluate individual or group behaviour (Werner, 2011).

Work values: Outcomes people desire from works (that which they should attain at work).It further influences attitudes, behaviours, job decisions and problem solving approaches.

(Twenge, et al, 2010)

A second definition:

–“the degree of importance personally given to modalities of being and behaving that are relevant to the work context activities” (Crozier & Dorval, 2004)