

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER PLATEAUS AND  
CAREER STAGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-  
NATAL ACADEMICS**

**By**

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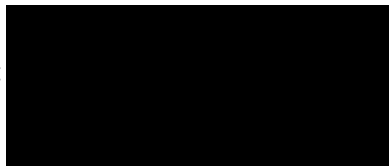
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## DECLARATION

I, Anisha Ramsaroop declare that:

- (i) This work has not been accepted in any way for any degree and is not being submitted concurrently for any other degree.
- (ii) This thesis is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Administration.
- (iii) This thesis is a product of my own research, except where otherwise acknowledged.
- (iv) Other sources are acknowledged by means of explicit references, and are appended in the bibliography.

SIGNATURE:



DATE: 13 August 2018

## ABSTRACT

The study focused on the relationship between career plateaus and career stages of the University of KwaZulu-Natal's (UKZN) academics. The research included the University's five campuses: Westville, Howard College, Edgewood, Medical School and the Pietermaritzburg campus. A complement of 253 academics across all levels from Tutors, Senior Tutors, Developmental Lecturers, Lecturers, Senior Lecturers, Associate Professors and Research Fellows constituted the sample. Through a mixed methods approach, the quantitative aspect included questionnaires electronically and personally administered to academics, and the qualitative component was undertaken through a cohort of academic leaders interviewed across campuses. The study was theorised through the Protean career, viewed as awareness of one taking responsibility and independence to adapt and foresee current trends, skills and attitudes. The Career Choice and Career Management models further located the framework of the study regarding decisions in one's career. Various dynamics such as promotion, tenure in a specific position, age, job content, personal plateauing, professional plateauing, and most recently life plateauing have impacted on academics at various career stages. The changing landscape of higher education aligned with the government's vision has compelled higher educational institutions to ceaselessly drive academics to deliver, despite numerous obstacles they faced in higher education. In addition, academics are faced with huge workloads, poor and possibly no work-life balance including stringent criteria for promotion. A negative impact on academics in some instances inadvertently contributed to employee turnover and demotivation. Hypotheses of the study focused on a significant relationship between career plateau dimensions (structural/hierarchical, content/job content, personal, professional and life) and career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement). A significant difference in the perceptions of employees differing on each of the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) and the respective career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement) with the career plateau construct was highlighted. Variance in career stages was significantly explained by the career plateau status. Results of the study reflected a high level of agreement from respondents regarding structural plateauing and limited opportunities for advancement at the University, amongst other key findings. A framework for effective management of the various types of career plateaus across career stages in an academic

environment was advocated. A model depicting career plateaus strategies for relevant stakeholders in academia at various career stages was put forward through the study, whilst a comparative study on national and international institutions of higher learning on career plateaus is further suggested to gauge similarities in career plateaus.

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## **DEDICATION**

**To my husband Rakesh, my sons Rishav and Pranav, and in memory of my precious Dad  
and Mum: Mr and Mrs Gangaram and my beloved pet: Gagu**

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The academic landscape has been changing drastically over the last few years, and this has had a profound effect on academic staff at institutions of higher learning. Various challenges amongst others, include a greater emphasis on research, heavy workloads, work-life imbalance, academic instability, the low likelihood of advancing in careers, are some of the reasons as to why academics are leaving institutions whereas others chose to uphold the position for the rest of their tenure. The researcher, an academic, explored the study to gain greater insights into the complexity of issues that impact on academics in establishments of higher learning, in particular, the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) as a case study. The study concentrates on the relationship between career plateaus and the career stages of academics at the selected tertiary institution's five campus sites (Westville, Howard College, Edgewood, Nelson Mandela School of Medicine (NMSM) and Pietermaritzburg).

The concept of career plateaus was initiated by early authors, Warren, Ference and Stoner in 1975 based on their research into nine companies. The sample was made up of high-ranking people, management development officials and division level line and management employees. The organisations were extracted from industries such as the banking, insurance, entertainment, paper manufacturing, petroleum, pharmaceutical, technical products, steele and electrical equipment sectors. They found out that a large number of managers were judged by their organisations as having "little or no likelihood that they will be promoted or receive substantial increases in duties and responsibilities" (Warren *et al.*, 1975, 30). This concern with the career plateau phenomenon further led Warren *et al.*, (1977) to advance a model of managerial careers that allowed them to classify managerial employees as either un-plateaued, ineffectively plateaued and effectively plateaued.

Prior to this, the issue of career plateauing received very little attention as it was regarded as a gradual process that occurred inevitably. From the late 1940s to the mid 1970's, the United States

experienced an extraordinary period of economic expansion. In this era, the number of organisations increased by 56%. A major dilemma was to find people to fill managerial positions. Owing to the low birth rates during World War II, the demand for top corporate positions was not as demanding as it is today. It can be said, that fewer managers went to college, as a result, the top performers were secured with top positions (Slocum, Cron and Yows, 1987). During the period 1940 to 1975, many employers practised long-term employment and many employees had ample opportunity to experience upward mobility, as suggested by authors Warren *et al.*, (1975); Carnazza, Korman, Ference and Stoner, (1981); Brousseau, (1988); Slocum, Cron and Yows, (1987); Wolf and Moser (2009).

Recently, several researchers (Choudary, Ramzan and Riaz, 2013; Jung and Tak, 2008 cited in Salami, 2010; Duffy 2000; Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera, 2010; Miles, 2010; Sharma, 2010; Wolf, 1983; Tan and Salomane, 1994; Brooks, 1994; Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse, 1995; Rontondo, 1999) renewed their attention on career plateaus. There are several authors in the field, but for the purposes of discussion, a few have been singled out in the context of the study.

The volatile effects of globalisation forced countries to restructure their economies. Organisations responded by flattening their structures, reducing the workforce, downsizing, restructuring and instituting productivity improvements and containing costs by restricting mobility (Shaw and Chayes, 2011). Jung (2010) confirms that as organisational configurations develop horizontally, vocation progression in as far as vertical advancement, has become competitive and often tough to implement. Further to this, many employees are faced with an overload in terms of balancing personal and working lives, which is popularly viewed as personal plateauing.

A newer paradigm that helps explain the plateaus encountered by employees as endorsing non-linear occupations being a professional plateau. A professional plateau is explained by way of a juncture where employees discover their jobs straightforward and that it offers limited prospects for professional growth and employability, argues Lee, (1999). The words “career plateaus” denotes a sense of frustration and psychosomatic distress workers experience ensuing a permanent or temporary “dead end” or a halt in their careers. A popular definition of career plateaus identifies career plateaus as a point where the possibility of ranked preferment is very low.

Career stages denotes to the evolutionary phases of an individual’s working life. Career stages are made up of four distinct phases/stages: exploration, establishment, maintenance and

disengagement. These phases are characterised by critical events and modifications, which individuals are exposed to in their occupations. Plateauing contributes to unwanted labour consequences such as low gratification, reduced enthusiasm, higher levels of anxiety, meagre performance and heightened turnover intentions.

During an individual's lifecycle, persons go through foreseeable periods or phases in their lives and vocations. Each life or vocation phase is shaped by circumstances which need to be dealt with. In this regard, Super (1957, 1984) cited in Kaur and Sandhu (2010), suggested a philosophy that individuals pass through precise vocation periods in their lifetime. These phases are identified by numerous critical undertakings and adjustments, which persons are exposed to despite their occupation.

Preceding research matching plateaued and non-plateaued personnel have detected noteworthy variances in vocation concerns related with vocation periods (Slocum *et al.*, 1988; Stout, 1988). The course of one's life is normally studied in terms of age (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2001). There is an understanding that career events have age-related approximations (Schreuder and Theron, 2001).

Traditionally, the chronological age of a person has been used to determine developmental turning points in the person's life. Life stages that are important in a career include early adulthood (18-40), mid adulthood (40-60) and late adulthood (60 and onwards). The stages and its ages are not fixed and are identifiable by psychological factors related to an individual and work-related factors that are important to a person at that specific time (Murchinsky, Kriek and Schreuder, 2005).

Career stages are therefore, experienced with age and the phases the individuals find themselves in, at various stages of his or her life. They encounter a course of transformation which may be summarised as an arrangement of lifetime phases as exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement (Stead and Watson, 1999). The sources of change are the context in which individuals exist, including biological, psychological, social, spiritual, cultural, economic and historical contexts (Schreuder and Theron, 2001). In addition, both the individual and the environment are subject to change.

It can be said, that life span career theorists offer various explanations for the changes employees may experience as they evolve from a single career phase to another. In summary, development

may be seen as the emergence of novelty, in that individuals can create novelty by re-organising their perceptions for example by changing their perceptions that their jobs are boring, to seeing it as unique and potentially novel (Valsinger 2000 cited in Schreuder and Theron, 2006). Fluctuations in the commercial realm over the former two decades such as downsizing, the emergence of women at the workplace, literacy and evolving economy has also featured prominently (Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk, 2007).

There are many authors who have contributed to career stages, birth to death stage, (Erikson, 1963; Gould, 1979; 1984; Hall and Nougaim, 1968; Levinson, 1978; Schein, 1993; Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet and Warnath, 1957; Vaillant 1977; Veiga, 1973) cited in Veiga (1983). There are competing perspectives on the stages of adult and or career development.

Career stages are broken up into three distinct stages/phases: (i) early adulthood, namely the novice, transitional and settling down phases; (ii) The midlife/career stage (self-related factors); and (iii) The late life/career stage (self-related factors) (Ponjuan, Conley and Trower, 2011; Demers and Wang, 2010; Levinson, Darrow, Klein and McKee, 1978 cited in Murchinsky *et al.*, 2005). Cron (1984) cited in Miao *et al.*, (2009), summarises career stages as the exploration phase (20-30), the establishment phase (30-45), the maintenance phase (late thirties to forties) and disengagement phase (transition from working to retirement). Leithwood (1992) cited in Eros (2011) suggests a five-stage model of the career sequence: introducing the vocation, stabilising, encountering novel encounters and apprehensions, accomplishing a professional plateau and getting in readiness for retirement.

In early adulthood, an individual is at their peak psychologically, physically and emotionally. This phase signifies and includes challenges concerning achieving independence and responsibility and establishing one's self in a career and family life. Individuals are more concerned about their career direction and constructing this career (Hess and Jepsen, 2008). Proposed needs include peer acceptance, support and a job in which one can succeed. At this stage, employees are prompted to be more pre-emptive in pursuing mentoring and job-preparation prospects (Fischer, Stamm, Buddeberg, Bauer, Haemmig, Knecht and Klaghofer, 2010; Gerdes, (1988) cited in Schreuder and Theron, 2001; Miao *et al.*, 2009).

Levinson (1978) cited in Murchinsky *et al.*, (2005), associates midlife with developing a greater sense of identity through individualisation (finding a balance between opposing psychological

states of awareness). Sheey (1976) cited in Schreuder and Theron, (2001), sees this as a search of authenticity which characterises renewal of one's own self through focusing on one's inner self, as opposed to what society expects.

In the context of work, assessing one's self, opportunities to acquire new skills, sharing of talents and know-how are essential. A suitable or conducive work environment including rewards is important during this phase (Schreuder and Theron, 2001). The mid-career is then started by the mid-life transition which aids as a bridge amid early and middle adulthood (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2015; Shin, 2011). At this juncture, people are concerned about amalgamating their vocation selections (Hess and Jepsen, 2008). Smith-Ruig (2009) in his research recognized that equally males and females advanced over three age-related phases in their vocations, as mentioned by Super (1957) and Levinson (1978): early adulthood, middle adulthood and pre-retirement. The middle adulthood stage was characterised by an age of establishment and maintenance. In the establishment stage members advanced over numerous parts. By the maintenance phase many members had acquired an objective plateau in their vocation growth as they advanced to high-ranking statuses in the organisation. At this point, some members were satisfied to move in their career, highlighting they had optimistic outlooks regarding a plateau.

The late life stage revolves around productivity, maintaining self-esteem and retirement (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010 cited in Schreuder and Coetzee, 2015). Miao *et al.*, (2009) states career moves and competitiveness decline in this phase. There is a decline in authority and recognition and physical decline (Murchinsky *et al.*, 2005). Work-related factors present as an important role in late life/career. This phase is characteristic of more responsibility, decision-making and increased life expectancy (influences people's availability for work) (Murchinsky, *et al.*, 2005). Needs during this phase include security, maintaining motivation and productivity (Miao *et al.*, 2009).

The disengagement phase as viewed by Miao *et al.*, (2009) involves a critical adjustment from work to retirement. This involves a sturdier self-identity external of work while still upholding peak performance and an emphasis on detaching oneself from the organisation and organisational life. Though retirement may mean escaping from a frustrating job, it may also lead to a loss of professional identity (Cron and Slocum, 2001).

According to Super's theory of vocation growth (Super, 1957; Savickas, 2002 cited in Hess and Jepsen, 2008), persons undergo four components of vocation anxiety throughout the expansion of their vocations, which involves clarifying career interests, consolidating career choices, maintaining what they have and lastly a decline in occupational interest. Super (1957) cited in Hess and Jepsen (2008, 2) that personnel will reprocess through the phases, and therefore vocation periods should not be ascertained via linear measurements of age and tenure, but concluded by assessment of trepidations, related to vocation periods. The linear career pattern was characterised by aspects such as power, competence, achievement, recognition and self-development (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2015).

It is said, that the linear career patterns faced many challenges in the contemporary working world due to limited opportunities for progress hence promoting the concept of non-linear careers where progression is not guaranteed due to various challenges such as mergers and acquisitions and the flattening of organisational structures which have eliminated many management positions. Conway (2004) cited in Hess and Jepsen, 2008) suggested that the managing of worker experiences through vocation phases could be practically deliberated by organisations. Doing otherwise, organisations are facing loss of productivity, decreased competitive advantage, a decline in morale and motivation due to the effects of plateauing.

## **1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

The academic landscape has recently been plagued by numerous incidents such as student unrests, funding issues, academic discontent in respect of higher workloads and a greater emphasis on research, the demarcation and overspill between private and working hours. Furthermore, stringent criteria for promotion and an early retirement age has left many academics with low morale, dissatisfaction, frustration, fatigue and elevated levels of stress. Some of these challenges have derailed the realisation and pursuance of academic goals. Against this background, the research aimed to determine if academics are plateaued hierarchically in respect of mobility in the institution; over their invariable work content; through job skills and or personally (where academia controls all domains of an academic's life to the marginalization of any additional activity). These are situated at any of the four distinct phases/stages in their careers: exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement. This would assess planning and foresight about

their work and working lives, and their willingness to manage changing work and working conditions which are prevalent in the academic arena currently.

### **1.3 FOCUS OF THE STUDY**

The rationale of the study was to identify and comprehend the various encounters experienced by academics in the current era, thereby crafting a more favourable environment for the effective functioning and utilisation of academic skill. This discussion is hence, related to avoiding a brain-drain of people with scarce academic skills. The study had contextualised and confirmed the plateau phenomena in an academic environment. In relation thereto, Joseph (1996) in his study suggested more items for the four-factor plateauism model, which has been realised in this study. Previously, there has been indication to favour the presence of distinct types of plateauism. Moreover, the study aimed to generate a model in Chapter Seven for the identification and management of the career plateau phenomena which would provide guidance for the management of plateauism in an academic environment, more especially at the institution under study. This identification would enable the University to participate in effective academic vocation forecasting and the management of academic careers, academic career programmes and create an enabling and conducive environment for academics. With regard to career stages, the identification of key concerns in the relevant stages would allow the University to address them through infrastructure, relevant resources, training and development and so forth. The strength of the Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI) could also be validated through this research.

Approximately ten to fifteen years ago, career plateaus were observed in a conservative linear vocation where a person reached the apex of their vocation, tailed by an era pending retirement. The present setting reflects a climate where all individuals must face the possibilities of vocation plateaus, which is bound to happen more than once in their careers. With the emphasis on non-linear careers, there are limited opportunities for employees for career progression. Family life has compelled both men and women to “compromise” on their careers due to work-life balance issues (life plateauing). With the blurring of skills boundaries, many employees are facing fewer opportunities for career mobility and future employability (professional plateauing). It can be said that overload of work has also created low morale, low satisfaction and motivation, stress and feelings of isolation and alienation.

Traditionally, career plateaus were very much evident in mid-career or the maintenance career stage. It is a likelihood that must be confronted by a worker at any stage of their career and more is bound to occur more than once. Participants in Smith-Ruig's study (2009), reported plateauing in their 30s and 40s. These individuals required approximately an additional 30 years in the labour force prior to authorized retirement yet they were all enquiring their futures. They reported feelings of disillusionment, dissatisfaction, and uncertainty about their career direction.

Previous definitions of career plateaus focused on linear careers and were too narrow in its definition. The broader definition of career concerns relates to the attainment of novel talents, and or the prospect to assume fresh and stimulating work. This scenario is very much evident and necessary taking into account the emergence of the boundary-less or multi-directional careers (Smith-Ruig, 2009).

#### **1.4 OBJECTIVES**

The research aimed to:

- Undertake a literature review on career plateaus and career stages;
- Establish the career plateau status of the participants in terms of structural/hierarchical, job content, personal and job skill plateauing;
- Ascertain the career stage of the participants in terms of exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement;
- Ascertain if there is a valid association with career plateaus and career stages;
- Determine whether the variance in career stages is due to the career plateau status;
- Examine the influence of the biographical variables on the career plateau status and career stages respectively; and
- Make appropriate recommendations arising from the study.

## **1.5 HYPOTHESES**

### **HYPOTHESIS 1:**

There is a significant relationship between career plateau dimensions (structural/hierarchical, job content, job skill and personal/life) and career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement).

### **HYPOTHESIS 2:**

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees differing on the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) and the respective career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement) and the career plateau construct.

### **HYPOTHESIS 3:**

There is a significant variance in career stages due to the career plateau status.

## **1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

During the pilot phase, a key challenge was gaining accessibility to the academic leaders and academics at the Nelson Mandela School of Medicine (NMSM) due to their clinical work, and in some cases disinterest in the study. Some staff from the NMSM were of the opinion that filling out questionnaires was too time-consuming, since they worked on projects and they viewed themselves as scientists. They found this type of research abstract hence a reluctance to participate in the research. In terms of accessibility to academics at NMSM, the researcher contacted academics and set up appointments at their availability. On one campus site, the researcher was turned away by academics stating that they were extremely saturated with work after the “fees must fall” issue. Academics were eager to participate once they were briefed in more detail regarding the nature of the study. A further challenge experienced by the investigator, was the data collection technique. The investigator was compelled to change the data collection method, and hence acquire ethical clearance (ANNEXURE 2) accordingly, due to a dismal response rate through the intranet from May 2016 to early September 2016. Under 100 responses was collected utilizing this method. The researcher was subsequently granted permission by the Ethics

Committee and the Registrar's office to personally administer questionnaires. The response rate with this data collection method was still very low, compelling permission once again, requesting for questionnaires to be disseminated both electronically and personally. A further challenge experienced during the research, was the tenuous situation on campuses due to the "feesmustfall" saga. This hampered the dissemination of questionnaires and the conducting of interviews amongst academics across all campus sites. Despite challenges regarding data collection, the researcher finally gathered data electronically and personally across all 5 campus sites.

After the "Feesmustfall" saga, academics were compelled to complete the syllabi. The researcher respected this. Regarding the volatile student protests during the "Feesmustfall" saga, the researcher had to wait until calm was restored on the educational sphere, given that this was a national dilemma, and not unique to UKZN. Furthermore, the study was based only at one university. Although the study was conducted at a single university, there was a high participation rate from respondents, thus allowing the results to be generalized. In the recommendations, it is also suggested that similar research should be considered at a national and international level.

As an employee at UKZN, the academic is in a position to identify with the challenges academics experienced at the institution due to wide discontent amongst academics regarding the issues raised in the study. Researcher bias can be excluded due to the researcher not having any personal experience with regard to the experiences highlighted in the study.

## **1.7 SUMMARY OUTLINE PER CHAPTER**

A comprehensive outline of the respective chapters of the study are outlined below:-

- Chapter One offers an overview to the study, tailed by the motivation, the focus, the purpose, hypotheses and the confines of the study.
- Chapter Two examines a comprehensive coverage and discussion of career management and contextualises the career plateau concept in detail. Other aspects covered in the chapter include changing work, careers, career management and the career management model. The tertiary education scenario in South Africa, the career plateau phenomenon, the types of plateaus, the plateaued employees model, sources of plateauing, the consequences of plateauing and strategies to address plateauing are also discussed in the chapter.

- Chapter Three comprehensively discusses and locates literature on career stages. Other aspects in the chapter covers an overview of career development, career development models, life stages and the various career stages (growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline) and the practical implications of career stages.
- Chapter Four highlights the methodology and encompasses the aims of the study, the research design, types of study design, research philosophy, study setting, the time horizon, sampling design, probability and non-probability sampling procedures, population, sample of the study and data collection methods. A detailed discussion on the measuring instruments (questionnaires and interviews) and the reliability and validity of both instruments are covered in the chapter. The chapter also provides details on the pilot study and the data reduction strategies for both the quantitative data and thematic analysis for the qualitative data. Descriptive statistics such as the measures of central tendency (mean, mode and median), measures of dispersion (the range, variance, standard deviation and interquartile range) and inferential statistics such as Pearson Product Moment Correlation, T-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multiple regression were utilized to analyse the data. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was utilised to test the reliability and Factor Analysis was utilised to test validity.
- Chapter Five presented the findings, interpretations and discussion from the questionnaires and interviews in the study. The chapter also features the descriptive statistics, inferential techniques and thematic analysis utilised to analyse the data.
- Chapter Six presents the recommendations and conclusion of the research. A model derived from the results of the research, which is applicable to academia, is generated.

## **1.8 CONCLUSION**

The introductory chapter is the basis on which the research study was built. A broad overview of the study was highlighted in the chapter which gives direction for the research, thereby achieving its objectives. In order to pursue a proper empirical study, extensive literature was explored on the variables in the study. The literature review extends over two chapters hence providing the reader with an in-depth coverage tracing an extensive range of literature including contemporary discussions in the field on career plateaus and career stages interfacing career management and career development in human resource management and development.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THEORISING CAREER PLATEAUS IN RELATION TO CAREER MANAGEMENT

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two provides an in-depth coverage and discussion of career management and contextualises the career plateau concept in detail. Other aspects cover an overview of changing work, vocations, vocation management and the vocation management model. The tertiary education scenario in South Africa, with particular orientation to the University of Kwazulu-Natal (UKZN), the career plateau phenomenon, types of plateaus, the plateaued employees model, sources of plateauing, the consequences of plateauing and strategies to address plateauing are also discussed in the chapter.

Businesses are functioning in a highly competitive and borderless environment. Organisations need to survive in the turbulent, highly competitive business world and are striving to attain competitive advantage, submits Jayasingam and Yong (2013). Globalisation explains the global emergence of political, social and technological trends over the last decade. The volatile effects of globalisation forced countries to restructure their economies. Contemporary technologies and organisations, as well as societies have undergone modifications that impact the manner in which an individual's career functions, concedes Januszkiewicz, (2015). The current forms of globalisation compelled organisations to engage in new and different dynamics such as wider competition, technological acceleration including mergers and acquisitions which contributed to downsizing (Choudray, Ramzan and Riaz 2013). Organisations responded by flattening their structures, downsizing, restructuring and instituting productivity improvements and containing costs by restricting mobility (Shaw and Chayes, 2011). Restructuring has therefore, placed immense pressure on employees, and subsequently loyal employees are questioning their commitment to organisations hence creating a loss of strategic excellence, which is key to competitive advantage, argues Jayasingam and Yong, (2013). Author Jung (2010) confirms this by reiterating that as organisations sanction advancement laterally, promotion becomes unattainable. Salami (2010) concurs and reiterates that due to the above changes and the need for employee equivalence, reaching a saturation point features as one of the most critical challenges in careers. Negativity associated with career plateaus qualifies why organisations view vocational

plateaus as they do. In addition to other aspects, it is associated conversely with how employees feel about their jobs, organisational loyalty, productivity and emotional comfort, suggests Chay *et al.*, 1995; Lamoureux and Cardinal, 1996; Lemire *et al.*, 1999; Tremblay *et al.*, 1995 (cited in Lapalme, Tremblay and Simard, 2009).

Taking into account the highly competitive era in higher education, UKZN is not exempt from the socio, economic and technological impacts of globalisation and the competition for highly qualified and experienced academics. Hence, the institution has to proactively ensure that it attracts and retains academics of high calibre and excellent reputation in the field of teaching, learning and research output.

## **2.2 THE CHANGING WORLD OF WORK, CAREERS AND CAREER MANAGEMENT**

Work is central to a person's life and spans over a period of one's life. The importance placed on work depends on the value a person places on one's individual work values, preferences and work goals of the job. The focus is also on the broad context regarding vocational characteristics and the work itself, and the organisational and socio-cultural context (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2015). Now in the 21st Century and beyond, the characteristics of work has developed a fresh dimension. Recent global trends include the sudden emergence of advanced technological acceleration of different information and communication technologies, increased competition globally, adjusting business set-ups and the emergence of different models submits, Truss, Mankin and Kelliher, (2012).

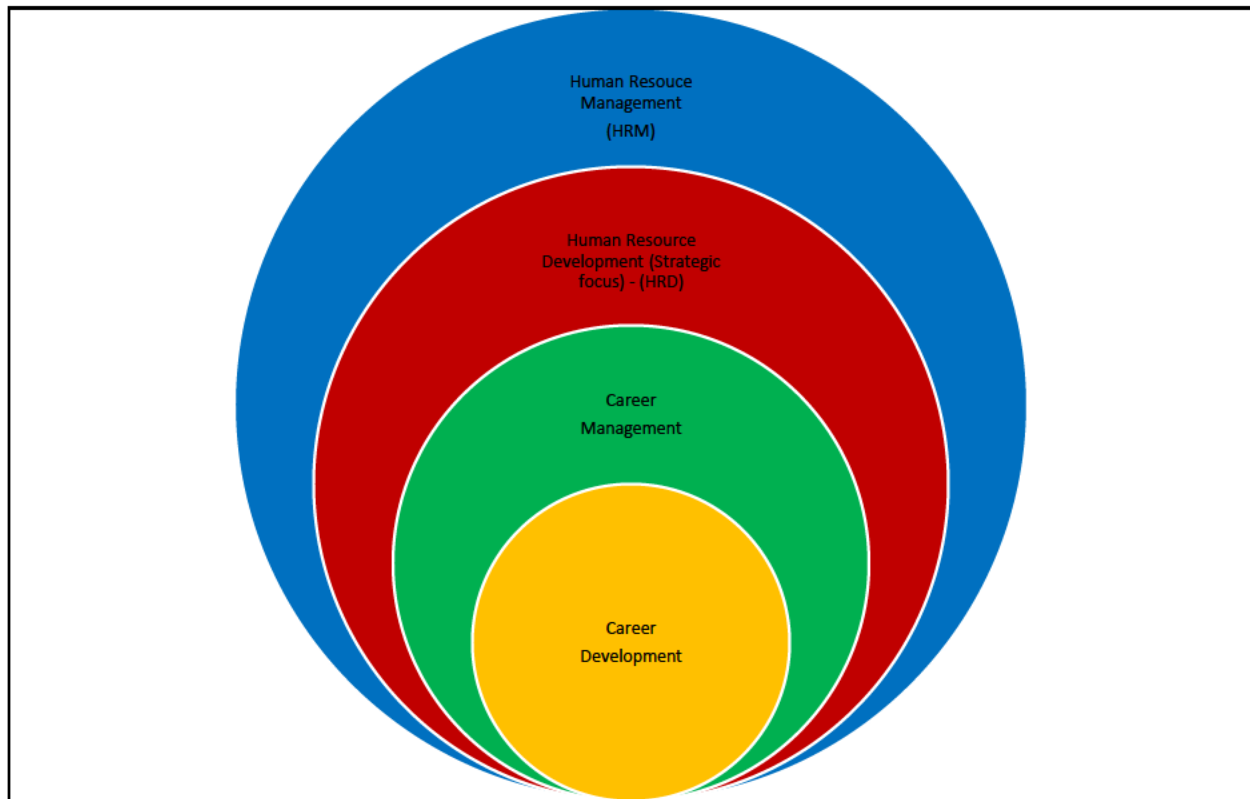
Work composition, vocations and employee approach to careers have evolved significantly due to technological and economic changes globally (Sharif, Majid and Wesarat, 2014). With broader economic changes in many countries, most of the workforce is employed in service organisations and an increase in knowledge work. In addition to competitive pressures, employers are utilising employees in different ways, for example a reliance on more temporary and part-time workers. In addition to these changes, there is a reliance on virtual work arrangements, emotional and aesthetic labour (Truss *et al.*, 2012). Rapid changes involving structure, workforce demographics, reward systems, service contracts, information technology and the retention of core competencies have been impacted by technological, economic and political developments. With the erosion of a lifelong career, every employee is aware of having to start a new career in another organisation at

some point in their working lives, argues Smaliukiene, Korsakiene and Tvaronaviciene, (2014). Major influences following on from the 21st Century includes an increasingly ageing yet an active population, an array of household types (such as more females and dual career couples), multiple generations working alongside each other, a more diverse workforce and spirituality at the workplace (with the emphasis on personal growth, balance and a meaningful purpose). Organisations today are boundary-less and characteristic of knowledge and intellectual property regarding its functioning and numbers, and is made up of employees who specialise in their fields, flatter structures, a shrinking workforce and less defined jobs, contends Schreuder and Coetzee, (2015). It follows then, that the above scenarios entail a reorganisation of work, involving redundancies, the emergence of contracts with shorter duration and a reliance on service providers to do the non-essential work. If organisations are able to surface and keep afloat, it can only be through dedicated high calibre staff who commit to work smartly, submits Crawshaw, Dick and Brodbeck, (2012).

The last twenty years have dealt with a major overhaul of organisational vocations where job security in organisations was automatic, pay increases were based on status and peak performance was awarded with movement upwards. In contemporary times and within the current context in organisations, this is replaced by different “market-driven forces” is the view held by Castilla, (2012). The traditional working relationship was characteristic of loyalty, trust, conformity and commitment and is brought into question. The emergence of a new and different relationship is evident by individual responsibility and multi-skilling. The relationship is characterised by less job security, individuals taking responsibility for their own careers, performance-related pay, workplace flexibility and dwindling trust between the employer and the employee.

In order to place the concept of careers into perspective, the author outlined a model reflecting the overlapping of career concepts in the figure that follows.

**FIGURE 2.1: THE INTERDEPENDENCE BETWEEN CAREER CONCEPTS**



Author's perspective (2017)

The above model depicts the alignment and interdependence of human resource management, human resource development, career management and career development.

Both HRM and HRD are viewed as distinct entities within the HRM profession. Human resources management (HRM) is a broad function that oversees the management of people within the organisation, in addition to its strategic partner role. HRM encompasses a broad array of functions such as recruitment, selection and performance management amongst others. HRD, as a strategic initiative, focuses on the training and development of employees, with the intention of increasing competencies of employees and attaining competitive advantage for organisations. It can be said, that both career management and career development are interdependent in their functions. The figure is formalised due to its legitimacy and interdependence of the key concepts.

All careers are to be managed, which was the mandate of the Human Resource division, however with the emergence of the Protean career, much responsibility lies with the individual themselves. Career management entails equipping oneself with self-knowledge, an awareness of employment

opportunities, the formalisation of career goals, and developing and implementing a HRM strategy. Furthermore, incumbents weigh their options regarding various employment prospects and ultimately await feedback regarding their decisions. In terms of career development, the incumbent develops appropriate work behaviours, carves a career personality, participates in effective career decision-making and cultivates their ability to find a job. The incumbent therefore, develops competencies for their careers in order to harness insight regarding themselves and their work environment and to steer themselves through their high-paced and turbulent careers.

Features of the Protean career is quite evident in UKZN, like any other institution or organisation. Limited advancement, peak performance and multi-skilling are salient aspects academics are faced with. The emphasis is no doubt, on the individual taking the initiative in their careers and their own performance. The University does not take the lead in this regard. The institution provides “enablers” but it’s up to the academics to take charge by delivering on their relevant key performance areas (KPA’s), which is the “back-bone” of the performance management structure within the institute. Academics excelling with a performance rating of 4 allows them to benefit from the performance bonus, as thereby confirming the institution’s commitment to acknowledging high performers.

Academia does present workplace flexibility, enabling academics the opportunity to work away from the office when not lecturing, therefore making provision for much needed flexibility in terms of destinations they opt to work from. In the Protean career, trust is not a given, since there is no assurance of job security and the “psychological” contract. This erosion could be attributed to several factors such as promotion and work overload, for example.

It stands to reason that these changes have presented both opportunities and chaos, and needs to be viewed as challenges to human resource professionals and industrial or organisational psychologists to obtain a better viewpoint of human behaviour and employee needs at work, submits Offermann and Gowing, (1990).

The evolution of work over time (pre-industrial to date) is aptly presented in Table 2.1 that follows.

**TABLE 2.1 EVOLUTION OF MEANINGS ASSOCIATED WITH WORK**

<b>Pre-industrial era</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ Work was seen as drudgery</li> <li>❖ Work was key to meeting spiritual or religious ends</li> <li>❖ Work was valued for its worth</li> </ul>
<b>Industrial era</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ Work was mechanistic in nature</li> <li>❖ An era characteristic of mass productions which led to low morale</li> <li>❖ People found value outside work</li> </ul>
<b>Post-industrial era</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ The emergence of information technology and globalisation brought multicultural opinions regarding work</li> </ul>
<b>21<sup>st</sup> Century era</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>❖ Organisations are wide and encompassing, self-initiated and technologically agile</li> <li>❖ Work is dynamic and fluid and is seen through job and role meaning and self-meaning in a certain socio-cultural context</li> <li>❖ The era is characterised by drastic change and volatile markets aiming for a higher purpose and spiritual sense-making through one's activities and life roles</li> </ul>

Schreuder and Coetzee (2015:5)

From the illustrated table, three of the meanings associated with work in pre-industrial times viewed work as drudgery, work being a means to spiritual or religious ends and work as of value to oneself. The Greeks and Romans saw work as an entity that contaminates an individual. Hebrews had the same view, but as adding spiritual dignity. According to Protestant views, work was a duty. With industrialisation, the meaning of work became problematic. There was division of labour, work fragmentation, mechanistic and repetitive work which affected employees' commitment. High rates of production and long hours lead to decreased morale and an escape for meaning outside work. In post-industrialisation, the focus is on information rather than on industry. New technologies such as computerisation, communications and the interaction of different cultures brought to the fore a heterogeneity in beliefs and tasks in society. In the 21<sup>st</sup> Century and beyond, the meaning of work changed with the emergence of global markets, a shift from

technology to information and service-based economies, which changed the basis of labour and the manner in which labour is undertaken (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2015).

In considering changing work and the manner in which it is done, vocations have undergone major changes in the last twenty to thirty years, as well as creating a drastic adjustment in how careers are managed. There has existed a radical change from the ranked, linear, organisational models to one of fluidity based on skill and knowledge personally and professionally, suggests Cohen and El-Sawad, (2009) cited in Lewis and Arnold, (2012). A great concern of current employers is the lack of appropriate job skills of prospective employees. Employers are seeking employees with academic and cognitive skills such as absorbing literature, rationalisation, non-traditional thinkers (*thinking-out-of-the box*), choosing from alternatives and finding solutions, self-esteem, self-restraint, group effort and occupational skills amongst others (Makki, 2015).

A career is derived from “carrier” which translates to a “race course” and is viewed in terms of agility, direction and progress. Careers are viewed as experiences throughout one’s working life, suggests Greenhaus, *et al.*, (2007). Furthermore, Mikelsone, Odina and Grigule (2014) define a career as a deliberate and successful progression at work or other activity spheres where achievement is possible. Mikelsone (2008) cited in Mikelsone *et al.*, (2014) views an occupation as an arrangement of various socially significant human roles associated with one’s job, education, self-projection and downtime. To substantiate, Hall (1985) highlights four major measures associated with careers, such as, vocational progression; a professional vocation; a life-long evolvement of job experiences and vocational experiences over a life time. Arthur and Rousseau (1996) further elaborate on the “old” and “new meaning” of careers. Previously, they viewed the career as hierarchical progression, exclusively for managerial and professional staff. The “new” approach involves the evolvement of an employee’s proficiencies at work over an era. Mikelsone *et al.*, (2014) views a career as vertical and horizontal professional growth, thereby confirming one’s professional competencies and development. Broadly speaking, they view a career as being associated with human life and success. Hence, professionally any activity that presents feelings of frustration and interference in an individual’s personal life or presents itself as unsuccessful, cannot be viewed as a rewarding vocation.

Career happiness is critical for a successful vocation and has been conceptualised as intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes, and is viewed as objective and subjective indicators. Objective indicators

includes salary, promotion, family-structure and job levels, maintains Mikelson *et al.*, (2014). Subjectively, it is measured predominantly by career satisfaction through the display of individual accomplishments (Kong, Cheung and Song, 2012). It can be said that vocation accomplishment is an impartial and personal measure of individual vocation attainment. Objective career accomplishment highlights tangible achievements such as advancement, remuneration, status, and productivity. Subjectively, career success is related with a person's career goals and aspirations (Heslin, 2005). Successful careers were previously attributed to salary and promotions (Feldman, 1989). In academia, peer relationships and other developmental relationships are related with unbiased and particular measures of vocation attainment such as faster promotions and higher levels of research productivity or academic reputation and prestige (Santos, 2016). In terms of career advancement, a person's vocation is assessed by upward progression. These factors can be related to UKZN.

In terms of promotion, stringent criteria for advancement has been identified by respondents of the study. Academics are having to comply with elevated criteria, hence making advancement a non-reality in many cases. This therefore, relates to an individual's subjective measure of career success, since it focuses on career success linked to salary, promotions, career goals and aspirations.

In terms of research productivity, academic reputation of the university in light of recent rankings and productivity achievements, the institution's rating on (Link to the points raised) 15 July 2014 – UKZN has been classified in the topmost 2.1% among the world's prominent establishments by the Centre for World University Rankings CWUR. UKZN is rated in the top 2.4 to 3% of the World's Universities by the Academic Ranking of World Universities, the QS World University Rankings, and The Times Higher Education Ranking. The Academic Ranking of World Universities categorized UKZN 3rd in Africa and 3rd in South Africa. UKZN is tiered 45th from an overall of 700 tertiary institutions by the Times Higher Education's first level of BRICS and emerging Economies universities ([www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)). UKZN has consistently ranked as one of the Top 2 universities nationally by the Department of Higher Education and Training (DoHET), regarding research publication productivities over the last three years of concluded assessment. UKZN attained 1<sup>st</sup> position in 2013 and 2014, and 2<sup>nd</sup> position in 2015 according to the Vice Chancellor's Communique (September 2017).

The objective measure of career success is also relevant since it focuses on faster promotions and higher levels of research productivity or academic reputation. These traditional factors however, are being eroded due to organisational structures becoming flatter providing limited opportunity for upward movement, is the view of Shockley, Ureksoy, Rodopman, Poteat and Dullaghan, (2015).

Hall (1990) views success in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century and beyond, as not gaining a top corporate position, but it is defined by feelings of personal achievement, pride and success from attaining critical goals such as accomplishments, satisfaction and solace. Recently, (Powell and Greenhaus, 2012) cited in Lysova, Korotov, Khapova and Jansen (2015) drew consideration to the “family relatedness of work decisions” which is attributed to a person’s narrowing of alternatives or choices in the work domain that are affected by personal situations on the home front in order to create a conducive environment. The “kaleidoscope” career model (Manniero and Sullivan, 2006) cited in (Shockley *et al.*, 2015) highlights how people change career paths to match their lives within and outside work, with the three important stimuli being: genuineness, trial and straddling work and personal life. Several studies in Higher Education Institutions (HEI’s) across the world associate career success with job gratification and motivational factors. These studies recognize extraordinary echelons of job satisfaction by the intrinsic facets of academic effort, with an emphasis on research activities and the autonomy to plan and organise their work accordingly (Santos, 2016).

Taking into account the dynamics linked with the shifting nature of careers, the distinct changes in the career trajectory can be aptly described in the table that follows.

**TABLE 2.2: A COMPARISON OF TRADITIONAL AND BOUNDARY-LESS CAREERS**

	Traditional Career	Boundary-less Career
Employment Relationship:	Job security for loyalty	Employability for performance
Boundaries:	One or two firms	Multiple firms
Skills:	Firm specific	Transferable
Success measured by:	Pay, promotion, status	Psychologically meaningful work
Responsibility for career management:	Organisation	Individual
Training:	Formal programmes	On-the-job
Milestones:	Age-related	Learning related

Brown Wilson (2011:18)

In keeping with the changes in organisations, it is submitted that the career has become more Protean. A boundary-less or Protean career relates to one’s proactive behaviour regarding one’s career. These concepts highlight one’s ability to manage his/her own career by making decisions in respect of the career and his/her interests by constantly scanning the environment for better opportunities (Smaliukiene, Korsakiene and Tvaronaviciene, 2014). This concurs with the university setting as academics have to be at the forefront of “driving” their own academic careers. There has also been instances where academics have left the institution for better prospects at other higher education institutes such as universities and universities of technology. Determinants to move are amongst others, but not limited to, are prospects for promotion and better salaries. Furthermore, academics are confronted with traditional concerns, such as huge teaching loads, community engagement, managing administration, the pressure to publish and fulfilling performance deliverables with productivity units as per their respective designations.

In the global age, it is argued that this can be done by employees developing digital career literacy that allows them to utilise the Internet for their career needs and opportunities (Hooley, 2012).

Mirvis (1995) views the protean career as an adjustment of the traditional vocation. A non-traditional career is seen as a state a person is managing as opposed to that of the organisation. It is moulded by the person instead of the company, and is moulded over a period to satisfy the desires of the individual. Despite this shift from organisational to individual career management, it indicates a significant transition from a stereotypical, hierarchical manner of managing and developing a career to one of being supportive and developmental (Segers and Inceoglu, 2012). Employees who do not receive adequate assistance with managing their careers will be unhappy and would pursue initiatives with other organisations, concedes Jayasingam and Yong, (2013). The movement of responsibilities pertaining to career management from the company to the employee poses difficulties. Individuals are suddenly expecting adjustments in their work domain and invest in attaining skills in order to stay employed in a competitive environment. Organisations are battling with attracting and keeping high calibre and committed labour and retaining talented and committed employees (Cliff 1998; Sturges, Guest and Mackenzie, 2000 and King, Burke and Pemberton, 2005) cited in Philippou, 2014). Enhancing skills, more especially research skills, in the university environment is key. Many academics have called upon the institution for support regarding assistance in terms of research writing and publication skills, and such has been provided in order to aid and enhance the highly emphasized competency in academia. This competency has no doubt, contributed to the university's rankings nationally and internationally.

In keeping with the Protean career, key principles of the Protean career are discussed hereunder in Table 2.3.

**TABLE 2.3 THE PROTEAN CAREER**

<b>THE NEW “PROTEAN” CAREER CONTRACT</b>	
1. The career is managed by the person, not the organisation	
2. The career is a lifelong series of experiences, skills, learning, transitions and identity changes (“career age” counts, not chronological age)	
3. Development is	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Continuous learning</li><li>• Self-directed</li><li>• Relational, and</li><li>• Found in work challenges</li></ul>
4. Development is not (necessarily)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Formal training</li><li>• Retraining, or</li><li>• Upward mobility</li></ul>
5. The ingredients for success change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• From know-how to learn-how</li><li>• From job-security to employability</li><li>• From organisational careers to protean careers, and</li><li>• From “work self” to “whole self”</li></ul>
6. The organisation provides	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Challenging assignments</li><li>• Developmental relationships</li><li>• Information and other developmental resources</li></ul>
7. The goal: psychological success	

Brown Wilson (2011:19)

The protean or boundary-less model clearly depicts an emphasis in the last ten years on the individual managing his or her career in the changed era (Segers and Inceoglu, 2012). Managing one’s own career is viewed through stages whereby skills, strengths, one’s values, concerns and

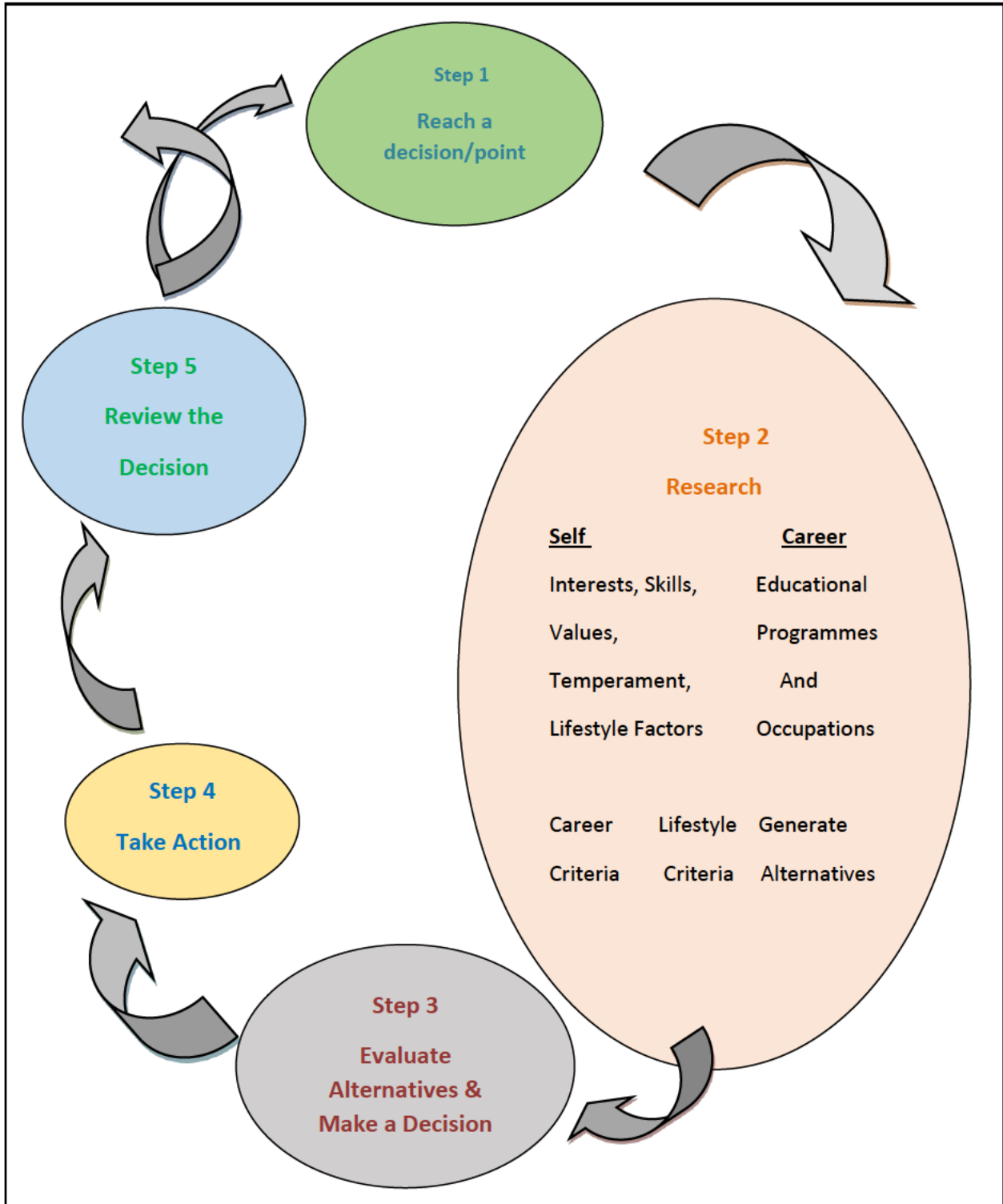
limitations (which is identified through career exploration); aims, and participation in career plans enable the achievement of those goals (Sturges, 2008). It follows then, that the notion of the Protean career compels an employee to spot and gain entry into the market; to advance with norms; developments, and industry adjustments; obtain requisite competencies, qualifications, and preliminaries in order to adjust in a fast evolving workplace (Block, 2012 cited in Saleem and Amin, 2013) by taking care of their own needs and sharpening their skills, knowledge, abilities and opportunities (Saleem and Amin, 2013). The Protean career is viewed as successful due to ongoing learning, awareness of one's self, taking responsibility and independence and an individual's ability to adapt and foresee current trends and modify their skills and attitudes in order to adjust to change (Smaliukiene *et al.*, 2014).

A career is viewed in two ways. *Firstly*, where the organisation or occupation takes ownership and *secondly* where the individual is seen as the owner. In this era, organisations spear-head an important part in managing vocation systems, through an enabling and developing role of their human assets. "Organisational support" or "organisational sponsorship" is also viewed as organisational career management which relates to programmes, practices and aid given by companies to ensure the successful careers of their people (Kong, Cheung and Song, 2012).

Technological acceleration, global trends and the appearance of new occupations have created a new employment landscape with pertinent implications for the management of careers (Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera, 2010). Career management has always been an essential aspect of human resource management (Jayasingam and Young, 2013). A discussion in its entirety follows below.

The Career Choice Model (Figure 2.2) that follows, highlights critical steps which an individual passes through in order to reach a decision regarding one's career, and was explored further in the chapter.

**FIGURE 2.2 THE CAREER CHOICE MODEL**



Vedana in The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and Career Advice Services (undated:

6)

In terms of the study and other careers in general, the term ‘career choice’ refers to the decisions people need to make or remake about their careers and work concurs Miller and Brown, (2005) cited in Schreuder and Coetzee (2011). Various criteria relating to one’s self and one’s career needs to be considered in relation to one’s career choice.

Figure 2.2 refers to various criteria relating to a person and the person’s occupation. The person has to contextualise criteria pertaining to oneself and those of a career. Criteria relating to one’s self includes interests, skills, values, temperament and lifestyle factors. Career criteria include educational programmes and occupations which are key to a person’s ultimate career choice. These criteria contribute to career criteria, which ultimately leads to one’s lifestyle criteria, that is, when one makes an informed choice from a set of alternatives.

Van Der Westhuizen (2016) maintains a discussion of career choice cannot take place without assessing the context of an individual’s preferences, orientations and aspirations, fiscal circumstances and sociological conditions such as family and education. Due to numerous alternatives available to the employees, individuals scrutinise and evaluate the array of alternatives before taking a decision. Careers should be aligned to one’s personality, interests, values and skills to ensure career contentment and productivity on the job, highlights Vedana, (year unknown).

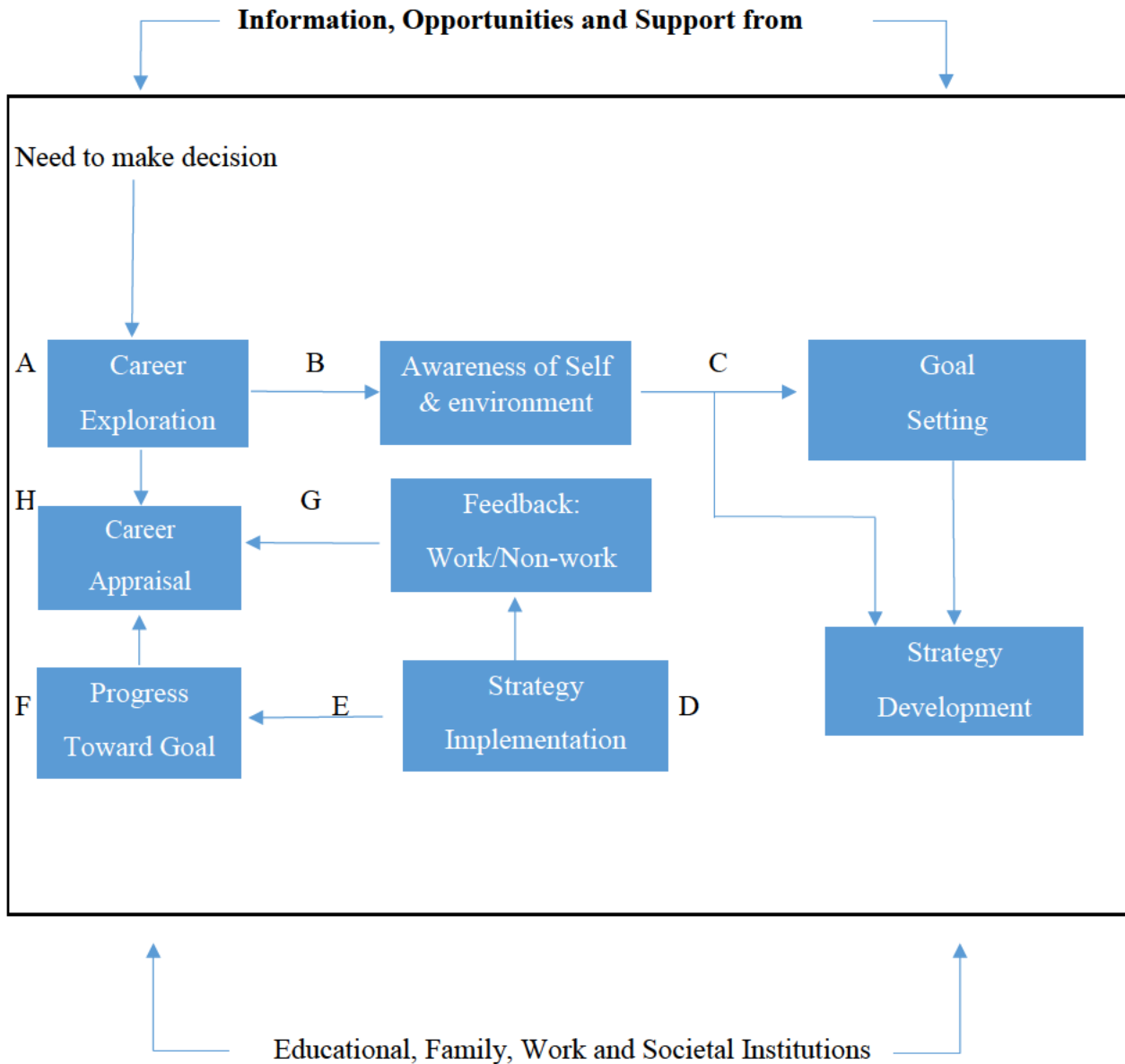
It stands to reason, that vocation management is seen as a three segment practice which entails persons gathering data regarding their competencies and attributes, highlighting career goals and strategising to ensure the possibility of career goal attainment (Noe, 1996 cited in Sturges, 2008). Career management entails the design and implementation of objectives, strategies and policies that assist HR specialists and executives to meet manpower requirements in order to meet their vocational goals (Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfied, 2015: 662). Managing a career according to Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) cited in Vermeulen (2015), is a constant progression wherein personnel gather data regarding themselves in terms of their capacity, abilities, interests and lifestyles and the workplace and other jobs and organisations. The development of portfolios as a human resource requirement helps contribute to individuals focusing on career management.

Career management is made up of organisational career management (OCM) and individual career management (ICM) and is key in achieving both personal and organisational goals, warrants Wesarat, Sharif and Majid, (2014). Schreuder and Coetzee, (2011) simplify the definition by stipulating career management is a continuous process in which individuals aim to attain

knowledge about themselves in respect of their strengths, personality, career patterns and what keeps them in their careers; secure information in respect of employment prospects, develop career goals, develop and formulate a career strategy, experiment with numerous employment decisions and obtain critique on strategy effectiveness and goal relevance. In this context, the employer and the employee together, take charge for the management of careers. Individuals have the core responsibility to take charge of their occupation, and the employer plays a supportive role. A vocation in a dynamic setting is seen as an achievement during one's vocational existence, therefore the person's involvement in vocation management must be proactive, maintains Smaliukiene, Korsakiene and Tvaronavičienė (2014).

Abbasi and Fani (2005: 104) describe managing a career path as developing, implementing and monitoring strategies and objectives of their vocation. Career path management, according to Rezaei (2006), includes the acquisition pattern of work experience that includes all life and work experiences and objective situation occurrences. It encompasses occupational tasks, activities or decisions related to profession interpretation and subjective interpretation from the occurrence of related work (past, now and future) which includes wishes, expectations, needs and emotions about special work experiences. Heathfield (2015) cited in Van Der Westhuizen (2016), views career pathing as encompassing an understanding of the knowledge, skills, personal attributes and experience that are necessary for an employee to advance laterally, vertically (through promotions) or horizontally (through transfers) in his or her career. The process in Figure 2.3 describes the phases of the vocation management procedure.

**FIGURE 2.3: THE CAREER MANAGEMENT MODEL**



Greenhaus, Callanan and Godschalk (2007: 24)

Career exploration encompasses self-exploration (an audit of an individual's attributes) and the exploration of the situation (becoming aware of vocations, companies and families) (Schreuder and Theron, 2001). The aim of a career relates to a vocation-aligned goal a person wants to acquire, which leads to strategy development and implementation to attain these goals. The career appraisal

process provides feedback on one's career progress and the attainment of their career goals (Schreuder and Theron, 2001 and Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011).

The third stage most researched, focuses on appropriate behaviour to implement a career strategy. Research highlighted a range of self-management behaviours that a person needed to display to realise his or her vocational plan such as associative behaviours, meeting renowned people, making oneself visible (with regards to vocational accolades) strategically positioning oneself in order to attain key prospects and behaviour related to improving capacity through education and training (Sturges, 2008). This is indicative in the university domain, where academics have been compelled to steer their academic careers by engaging in meeting and interacting with reputable, seasoned academics, attaining key research competencies and innovative teaching techniques for a diverse audience and being proactive in their own development.

With the transformation of higher education institutions numerous changes such as the medium of instruction, student composition (in terms of numbers and demographics) and structural design characterise the new higher education landscape. The medium of instruction, student numbers, demographics and structural design impact on all segments of tertiary education including academic careers and academic job satisfaction, maintains, Pienaar and Bester (2009).

Tertiary institutions in the senior learning landscape in South Africa was affected by major transformation processes since 1994 which has impacted on all segments in the tertiary environment, in addition to academic careers and the morale of academics. This has been confirmed since academic careers are presently viewed as one of the most traumatic and demanding vocations, highlights Pienaar and Bester, (2009). This has contributed to voluntary turnover internationally as well as indicated in an Australian study by Anderson, Richard and Sana, 2002 cited in Pienaar and Bester, (2009). The same situation is the case where brain drain is escalating in the South African context, argues (Koen (2003) cited in Pienaar and Bester (2009) who significantly found that about five to eighteen percentage of academics were leaving establishments of tertiary education. In addition, the challenge that HEIs face is the ability to find and retain academics in the current era. This is reiterated in an article by Parker (2016) as a key imperative to transform the professoriate and in ensuring that Black academic staff are developed and retained in the profession.

The above challenges are not unique to the said institutions, since most of these challenges manifested in the literature are identifiable in the university under study. Regarding the medium of instruction (with the increasing demand for language besides English), high student numbers and demographics and structural design are highly prevalent in the university setting. The mergers of the historical Universities of Natal and Durban-Westville presented challenges to the previous stand-alone universities. These challenges, and the inability for advancement opportunities, contributed to the overall labour turnover as well.

### **2.3 LOCUS OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN, 2030 IN RELATION TO CAREER MANAGEMENT**

The National Development Plan ambitions were to eradicate poverty and minimise disparities by 2030. South Africa can reach these milestones by harvesting on the energy of its individuals, developing an all-encompassing economy, fostering abilities, augmenting the capability of the government, and encouraging headship and merged relationships all over humanity. Three key priorities that are distinct in the NDP includes increasing occupation through quicker fiscal progression; enhancing the excellence of education, expertise, growth and novelty; and constructing the capability within the government to undertake a changing and transformative duty as emphasized by government ([http://www.dac.gov.za/sites/default/files/NDP%202030%20-%20Our%20future%20-%20make%20it%20work\\_0.pdf](http://www.dac.gov.za/sites/default/files/NDP%202030%20-%20Our%20future%20-%20make%20it%20work_0.pdf))

Vision 2030, which is encapsulated in the National Development Plan (NDP) has two key principles: *Firstly* the abolition of poverty, and *secondly* the advancement of equivalence. Tertiary institutions are instrumental in driving these two principles through quality teaching and learning, teaching professionalism, research technology support, education and increased outputs pertaining to research and graduate throughput (Republic of South Africa 2012). Academics are key “instruments” driving this process and realising this vision. This cannot be envisaged without suitably competent, skilled and dedicated academic personnel. The higher education domain is totally reliant on the calibre and commitment of these personnel, concedes Robyn and Du Preez, (2013).

Badat (2008) cited in Robyn and Du Preez (2013), highlights three challenges for South African tertiary institutions: the sector is aligning itself to become competitive with industry to retain skilled academics; the ability of the next generation of academics to possess the competencies to

generate high calibre graduates and to foster equivalent opportunities for learners, and lastly to be able to bring transformation in institutional cultures in the historically White institutions. Higher education institutions need administrators and graduates who are diversity conversant as enablers to the transformation process, suggests Steyn, Director of Wits Diversity Studies, (2013). Inequities in remuneration in public and private entities are contributing to the existing challenges. This is a contributing factor as to why younger, talented academics are difficult to retain in the current dispensation. The retention of talent of young academics, the Generation Y, currently is a demanding global issue across all sectors and more so amongst staff at tertiary institutions. Senior South African academics are better remunerated than lower ranked or junior academics, according to research conducted by the Vice Chancellors' Association of Higher Education (HESA). This is welcoming news for keeping high-ranking academics, however, it has the direct opposite effect for building the next generation of academics, suggests MacGreyor, (2015).

A summit convened by the African Higher Education had advocated a drastic increase in tertiary education in order to maximise a ratio of fifty percent in the next fifty years – with higher stakes in higher education and research, graduate absorption into the labour market, and harmonisation at all levels by countries, concedes MacGreyor, (2015). Higher education has grown due to the rising population and demand, economic expansion and the need for skilled labour and the formation of a private higher education sector. However, in addition to this growth, the higher education domain is confronted with serious challenges that are rooted in poor quality, inadequate infrastructures, outdated pedagogies, low funding, scholarly outputs and global competition (MacGreyor, 2015).

Over the past six months, public higher education has been in the spotlight. It has been drastically challenged from various sectors of society. Challenges include: its relevance, pace of transformation, student dissent and exorbitant costs (Parker, 2016). Other challenges faced by young emerging academics early in their careers pertain to the performance management system, which is seen as unfair and not transparent; the lack of opportunities for promotion, teaching overload; administrative and demanding research responsibilities and a lack of administrative employees. In addition, academia is not seen as an attractive profession anymore, contends Pienaar and Bester, (2008). Authors Pienaar and Bester (2009) in their study recognized various vocation impediments in higher education which impact negatively on productivity and job satisfaction.

These obstacles relate to high volumes of work (Monnapula and Mapesela, 2002), conflicting roles (Miller, 2003) and inadequate pay (Koen, 2003; Anderson, Richard and Saha, 2002). In addition, other obstacles include poor performance management (Fairbrother and Warn, 2003; Miller, 2003), poor education and research support (Nelson and Burke, 2000), demographics and sexual category discrimination and inadequate visibility (Barkhuizen, Rothman and Tytherleigh, 2004) and not enough interaction (Ball, 2004). Gilliespie *et al.*, (2001) in a study of fifteen tertiary institutions sampling academics highlighted the need to address career-related obstacles otherwise it would contribute to poor performance. Further to this, there could be declining interpersonal work relations, higher absenteeism, higher labour turnover, reduced organisational loyalty, unwillingness to work outside one's job description and lower job and organisational commitment. The Council of Higher Education (CHE) acknowledges the ramifications that this has on the prospect of tertiary study, the economy and to civilization at large. In addition, Pienaar and Bester (2009) highlight the career obstacles such as work overload, role conflict, poor remuneration, inadequate managing of performance, inadequate teaching and research support, discrimination relating to race and gender, no transparency and inadequate communication.

Anderson, Richard and Saha (2002) cited in Pienaar and Bester (2008) at an Australian university (with seven hundred and ninety- five of the academic respondents) confirmed the declining status of an academic career. In the current era, lobbying for talent contributes to high levels of turnover, and this is evident when an organisation's best talent and skill is lost (Robyn and Preez, 2013).

In addition to the dilemmas facing higher education, academics are faced with exorbitant workloads and enormous pressures to publish, role overload, straddling responsibilities between home and work and stringent criteria for advancement. All of these issues have contributed to low morale, job dissatisfaction and low levels of productivity. It has been noted by Pienaar and Bester, (2009) that academics are faced with institution-specific career obstacles.

## **2.4 CHALLENGES FACING ACADEMICS IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

Drastic transformation from 1994 has compelled tertiary institutions to change in respect of their instruction medium, student composition, high learner statistics, outcomes-based education and organisational changes to name a few challenges. All aspects have impacted and influenced almost all sectors of tertiary domains, inclusive of academic vocations and the fulfillment of academics

in general, argues Jansen, (2004). This is highlighted by knowing that the educational fraternity is viewed as a demanding vocation (Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2004; Bellamy, Morley and Watty, 2003; Gillespie 2001). In order to ensure continued existence and its sustainability, tertiary institutions should make use of the competent and committed academic staff (Martin, 1999). If South African and international tertiary institutions want to harness, keep, grow and use their academics while promising career acceleration and its related value, there is then a dire need to understand what is hindering careers in academia (Cuthbert, 1996; Zeffane and Mayo, 1994). A study of Portuguese academics identified various career barriers such as collegiality and workplace relationships (which pertain to dealing with career blockages and workplace politics, lack of supervisory support, lack of research collaboration and peer rivalry and competition); barriers associated with career progression standards and expectations (such as dissatisfaction with publication metrics, inequities with performance management weightings for career progression and limited vacancies for rank advancement); barriers related to inadequate organisational support and employment precariousness (which included aspects such as loss of job stability, lack of financial support for research, huge administrative workloads and lack of administrative support and huge teaching workloads); barriers relating to finding a balance (which included concerns such as competing proficient roles and juggling work and one's private domain) and barriers pertaining to gender structure including (issues such as unfriendly work-family culture, feelings of insecurity and having to prove one's competence, personal prejudice regarding motherhood and alienation from social networks) maintains Santos, (2016).

Gillespie (2001) argue that failure to address obstacles that hinder careers in institutions of higher learning can contribute to poor job performance, weak people relations at work and high absenteeism. This would invariably lead to people leaving the organisation, reduced employee loyalty, non-adherence to requirements of job descriptions and low commitment to both the job and the organisation (Gillespie 2001).

According to Maassen, Fehnel, Moja, Perold, and Gibbon (2002) and Ferreira, (2003), due to the challenges faced by universities, they had to diversify their income streams with poor government funding; revisit the mission of the organisation and the manner in which they were thought out and produced their primary product, that is education to a diversified student population; foster new relationships with other tertiary institutions including industry and the private sector; be

competently agile to respond to vicissitudes in the tertiary domain. These challenges would have long-term impacts on the system of tertiary study in the coming years, suggests Jansen, (2004).

The role of academics and their challenges in tertiary education plays an important aspect in tertiary education in respect of the quality and sustainability of tertiary institutions (Koen, 2003). Academics are secured due to their subject matter knowledge or profession and their quest to increase knowledge through research, and to assist students to learn through teaching (Staniforth Harland and Staniforth, 2000). Academics are trained in analytical thinking and challenge changes especially when it negatively impacts on higher education. Trowler (1998) is of the view that academics will challenge the *status quo* more than any other social group in order to address the problem. Prichard and Willmott (1997), however, are of the view that academics are inadequately prepared to voice their opinions publicly against bad systems and will engage in tactics in order to align themselves to managerialism, demands Du Plessis, (2005). This is owed to absence of the needed expertise to manage current changes in the institutions of higher learning. There is no certainty as to the new culture and context of academic work would be maintainable particularly in the emerging countries, as it could modify the essence of the academic domain again (Jansen, 2004). According to Wiegert (1998: 4), institutions of higher education have multiple purposes, which includes teaching, research and community service. This does not mean that academics should only focus on research, teaching and learning and community engagement, as there are other areas they can focus on such as growing the number of students joining universities and transforming teaching and learning approaches. The wide range of roles are impacting on the enhancement of academic practice. For example, McKernan (2008: 141) stated in a study that academic curriculum designers are experiencing challenges with regards to workload and consequently have no time for research. Wessels (2011: 77) acknowledged that the increase in student numbers has resulted in heavier workloads, and academics need to develop skills needed to manage the growing increase in the volume of students.

Many academics “double-up” as heads of departments or academic leaders and are overwhelmed with the dual role of academic and administrative responsibilities. The heads of departments known as academic leaders at the institution as a case study undertake a pivotal part in the study, hence the researcher found it necessary to highlight their roles and responsibilities in context to the discussion.

Full-time academics carry out functions as Academic Leaders (ALs) who manage the departments and are appointed in this capacity. In this capacity, they lead disciplines within the University. Privileges associated with this profile are, lecture relief and a stipend. In the study however, many of these academic leaders reflected on the enormous tasks and overwhelming administrative duties. They were in hindsight, of the opinion, that the positions were not worth the time, effort and compensation.

#### **2.4.1 Roles and responsibilities of heads of departments**

The increasing changes in the tertiary domain has had an adverse impact on the duties of those heading departments requiring them to pose as transformational and change leaders (Simon 2007; Smith and Hughey 2006). Taking into account the adjustment from collegialism to managerialism, thereby places higher demands on academic staff to act as managers (Simon, 2007). The academic manager's role is an important role in the university as this manager carries out the university's vision and mission and plays an influential role in the institution (Filan and Seagren, 2003).

Considering the roles and responsibilities of Deans and Heads of Schools (HOSs) at UKZN, they are tasked with the responsibility of aligning their actions and decisions embracing and in tandem with the university's mission and vision: the **vision of the university being** "To be the Premier University of African Scholarship". The **mission stated that** "A truly South African university that is academically excellent, innovative in research, critically engaged with society and demographically representative, redressing the disadvantages, inequities and imbalances of the past" ([www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)). Hence HOSs' actions and decisions are in keeping with being the flagship of universities in Africa and ensuring academic excellence, ground-breaking research, embracing diversity thereby levelling the academic "playing field" in terms of disparities that may have existed previously. Furthermore, they drive the **Principles and Core Values**, which are enshrined as: "The University aspires to be a positively transformed institution based on a clear understanding of its goals for broad and comprehensive change underpinned by shared values. These values serve as a framework for all its endeavours" ([www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)).

Carol and Gmelch (1995) categorised the academic manager's role into that of a leader, scholar, faculty developer and manager. The academic manager works to ensure educational values are protected and is also seen as a forerunner, staff developer and a researcher (Filan and Seagren, 2003). It is pivotal to recognise and identify the duties of the head of department to comprehend

the proficiencies essential for conducive management so that the lecturer could be adequately prepared to move to academic head of department (Parker and Wilson, 2002). The roles of academic managers can be classed into the following key duties: academic, administration, managing and leading, and this is in line with what is transpiring at UKZN which alludes to the discussion above (Parker and Wilson, 2002).

The role of the academics by various authors includes amongst others, teaching (Gmelch 2002; Sharma 2003; Lyons 2008), handling faculty matters (Lyons 2008), an assessor (Lyons 2008; Smith and Sorcinelli, 2000), compiling programmes (Gmelch 2002; Sharma 2003; Lyons 2008; Smith and Hughey 2006) and researching (Gmelch 2002; Hare and Hare 2002; Lyons 2008; Sharma 2003; Smith and Hughey 2006). The academic manager plays the part of administrator in examinations, student admittances, assessments and practical examinations, and is also an avenue for information policy to the staff, informs Williams (2001). (Parker and Wilson 2002; Lyons 2008). The managing duty of the academic manager embraces most roles such as advocate/politician (Lyons 2008), a change agent (Smith and Hughey 2006; Lyons 2008), anticipator, ensuring and maintaining high morale, communicator, conflict handler, coordinator, delegator, diversity manager, financial manager, performance manager, planner, recruiter and selector and time manager (Gmelch 2002; Lyons 2008). The headship part includes acting as an advisor (Lyons, 2008; Smith and Hughey, 2006), guide (Raines and Alberg 2003; Sorcinelli 2000; Williams (2001), persuader (Hecht 2004; Lyons 2008; Smith and Hughey, 2006) and “gambler” (Smith and Hughey 2006).

It can be said, that considering the overarching and multiple responsibilities and the academic arena currently that academics are highly overwhelmed in adapting to doing more with less.

## **2.5 A CRITICAL OVERVIEW OF CAREER MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE**

The Public Service Commission (PSC) suggested a sequential process for managing careers in the public domain as per the following key aspects:

- Assessment of an employee’s performance (aligning this to the university under study, this is monitored by the UKZN performance management structure);

- Discussion of an worker's performance by employee and supervisor (This resonates with the practice at UKZN, and with an embracing Performance management scheme, whereby the line manager and the worker confer regarding the relevant KPAs);
- Identification of employee's needs for career development (The identification of employees' development needs at the university is one of the key focus areas in UKZN's Performance Management system, whereby indicators for poor performance are identified as areas of development);
- Determination and assessment of the career goals of the employee (UKZN has a succinct process in place through their performance management system to identify the key performance areas (KPAs) of employees;
- Identification of attainable career goals (The identification of attainable career goals occurs at the institution through the identified KPAs in the performance management system);
- Indication of employer's expectations and needs by means of an institutional needs audit (This process at UKZN, occurs through the moderation process after the performance agreement has been concluded;
- Agreement on possible career paths for employee within the institution (The process of career pathing in the institution's performance management process, is done through the process of "talent mapping");
- Development of a personal career development plan for each employee (This occurs through the Performance Development Plan (PDP) during the performance management process at UKZN); and
- Consideration of the effect of rotation of staff on addressing requirements regarding specific work fields (The rotation of staff does occur at the institution with non-academic staff).

[http://www.psc.gov.za/documents/2010/PSC\\_March\\_2010\\_Review.pdf](http://www.psc.gov.za/documents/2010/PSC_March_2010_Review.pdf).

In 2010, the PSC issued a report on the state of HRM in the public sector. Several aspects regarding career management emerged during the study, highlighted as follows:

- The greatest weakness of public infrastructure being the lack of skills and private investment programmes;
- A human resource development plan is key to the successful utilisation and development of employees, and to ensure the effective implementation of career management practices. However, in 2008, only 16 out of 144 departments submitted their human development plans hence seeing only a 11.1% compliance rate;
- Personal development plans were utilised to ensure compliance with the required policies instead of identifying training needs that are tied up directly with actual performance;
- Representativity targets in respect of affirmative action were not met;
- Instruments and methods utilised to implement personal development plans were misaligned across provinces;
- A little above 50% of departments had mentoring and coaching interventions which took place from time to time;
- There was poor succession planning especially regarding the designated group;
- There was limited implementation of career management programmes due to obsolete institutional structures, decentralisation and the lack of time frames in national strategy, and
- The overall enactment of the performance and development system by senior managers and heads of departments were inadequate.

The challenges in Human Resources Management (HRM) in the public sector include inadequate skills, minimal investment programmes, the absence and non-compliance of Human Resources (HR) plans, the non-identification of training needs, non-compliance with affirmative action policies, inconsistencies with performance development plans across provinces, the minimal use of mentoring and coaching interventions, unclear succession planning for designated groups, poor national policy in terms of recognized structures, devolution, poor time-lines and the implementation of a poor performance management system.

## **2.6 CAREER MANAGEMENT VIS-À-VIS SERVICE DELIVERY AND GOOD GOVERNANCE**

The study is couched within a human resource management perspective within the field and study thereof. However, it is noted that the University is a public institution in higher education. As

such, it focuses on placing emphasis on good governance in human resource management practices. Attention is paid on human capital development through career development, including talent mapping, promotion and training and development, amongst others. The need to address career development amidst human resource development is ultimately to enhance service delivery, which could also be associated with public administration in practice *albeit* in higher education. The focus on teaching and learning towards good governance is dependent on several aspects in the higher education landscape. One of the prominent factors is that of the career plateaus of academics, as the achievement of career goals has a direct influence on the contribution made by the academic community to the quality of service delivery in this context.

Currently in the public service at large, and institutions of higher learning in particular, there is a paradigm shift wherein public institutions are focusing on the well-being of its employees. This is based on the benefits, advantages and nature of exchanges granted to the employees by institutions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa 1986). Perceptions of employees on the role of their institution regarding career development is also a current area of attention in higher education. It can be said that, the more benefits an employee receives from the institution, the greater their perception of support. According to Eisenberger *et al* (1986), rewards such as promotions and job enrichment can influence an employee's perception of institutional support. In this regard, institutions of higher learning are focusing on performance management systems to address poor performance, reward and incentivise good performance and focus on the career path of academics for enhanced service delivery (Lapalme, Tremblay and Simard, 2009: 1135).

Against the foregoing discussion on career management, a significant discussion with relevance to the study on career plateaus is presented.

## **2.7 THE CAREER PLATEAU PHENOMENON**

The concept of career plateaus was initiated by Warren *et al.*, 1977 based on their research into nine companies. Over the years, the term "career plateaus" has been viewed as a position in a vocation that highlights the possibility of upward advancement as being an unlikely event, submits Warren *et al.*, (1977). They introduced a managerial model classifying careers in respect of current performance and the possibility of promotion in the near future (Gale, Cengage learning, 2006). Much focus in recent years projected on career plateaus for two major reasons:- *Firstly* to ensure

competitive advantage downsizing and restructuring was prioritised hence limiting promotion. The other reason was the interest on research associated with the effects and antecedents of career plateaus (Chao, 1990). With the blurring of skills boundaries, many employees were facing fewer opportunities for career mobility and future employability. Considering the changing landscape of work, organisations were constantly under pressure to deal with scarce resources, higher competitiveness, inadequate fiscal progression, advanced expertise and mergers and acquisitions which all have a cascading effect on downsizing (Choy, Savery and Lawson, 1998). Downsizing is viewed as a means of reducing costs and increasing organisational competitiveness. Flatter structures are also viewed as being more effective in responding to industry needs, with the reason being that the decision-making procedure is brought closer to the client (Choy *et al.*, 1998). As organisations become flatter career mobility in terms of vertical mobility is unattainable (Jung and Tak, 2008). Kelly (1985) cited in Cable (1999) viewed plateauing as a juncture that heralds no further prospects of advancement which could be attributed to a number of reasons. One can be blocked in one's career by a boss, by a company that's not going anywhere, by your peers or one's own success (Korn, 1988).

According to Bardwick (1987), the purpose of plateauing in an occupational progression path is location because the person wishes to reach there. There is less probability that can promote his/her position after it. This state is due to personal reasons like lack of necessary skill for promotion to higher posts or due to organisational reasons like the lack of vacant posts for promotion (Qhelich chi, 1998: 50). Chao (1990) maintained that plateauing is viewed as a slow process implying different degrees of plateauing. Reaching a plateau is viewed as a situation in a person's occupation where the possibility of further hierarchical promotion is small or not possible (Ongori and Angolla, 2009).

The likelihood of plateauing is something a person encounters at least once during their working lives. Bardwick (1987) refers to it as the rule of 99%, that is, plateauing will be experienced by at least ninety-nine percent of employees at some point in their working lives. Plateauing occurs due to an individual having a very low likelihood of vertical mobility through job content that is unchanged over a prolonged period and or when the individual feels confined within the world outside work (personal plateauing). Ongoni and Agolla (2009) are of the view that although there is discouragement from trainers and supervisors, and that they should value that a duration of

stability may be positive following achievement. Clark (2005) views a plateau as a positive effect on an employee in that he/she no longer encounters the unknown in terms of more and changing duties. This situation will lead to job satisfaction, happiness and security. Kreuter (1993) views career plateaus as highly needed periods of rest and security in order to gain a perspective to rationalize and reflect on new, and emerging ideas. After this stable period, the plateaued individual is most likely to re-strategize and plan more effectively for their next level of vocation enhancement and are, unlikely to endure levels of dissatisfaction and frustration compared to those who have not.

A career plateau is seen through transformation, reassessment, change and thoughts submits, Duffy, (2000). Career plateaus may contribute to counter-productive behaviours and attitudes and physical and psychological distress (Lemire, 1999 cited in Smith, 2006). An over-whelming overload of work has also created low morale, low satisfaction and motivation, stress and feelings of isolation and alienation. Incidentally, the majority of employees plateau prior to achieving their career goals. The career plateau phenomenon has been around for some time, however the speed at which it is occurring is a reason for concern in many organisations, and is very relevant currently in organisations (Nachbagauer and Reidl, 2002). It is perceived that many people will reach a career plateau sooner rather than later due to extraordinarily suitably competent aspirants vying for a smaller number of places.

In the coming years, individuals will see themselves vocationally plateaued earlier than the last thirty years (Rilovick, 2005). Career plateauing is an occurrence which was synonymous with midlife, however, this is no longer the case. It could feature at any phase of one's working life (Nicholson, 1993) and is bound to happen more than once in one's careers. Participants in Smith-Ruig's study (2009) reported plateauing in their 30s and 40s. These individuals had many more years in employment prior to retirement yet they were alarmed about their futures. They had feelings of disillusionment, dissatisfaction, and uncertainty about their career direction. Researchers in organisational careers are of the opinion that career plateaus feature as a pivotal, managerial and organisational concern that has to be handled effectively in order to avoid employee dissatisfaction (Burke and Mikkelsen, 2006). The essential needs of staff in each organisation is placed as first priority because the attainment of organisational goals, missions and assignments are intrinsically dependent on staff (Abtahi, 2002).

Due to adjustments in the business world, re-organising, the reduction of manpower and equity in the workplace vocational plateauing is viewed as a critical vocation issue in time to come. Approximately ten to fifteen years ago, career plateaus were observed in a traditional career where employees reached the apex of their careers thereafter awaiting retirement. With the emphasis on non-linear careers, there were limited opportunities for employees' career progression. The broader definition of a career concerns the attainment of new skills and the need for challenging work. This scenario is very much evident and necessary taking into account the emergence of the boundary-less or multi-directional careers (Smith-Ruig, 2009). Career plateau views the individual as someone who cannot progress, and this is attributed to him or her not embracing the new environment and taking charge of his or her career (Nicholson, 1993). Considering the status quo, employers are demanding employees' skill themselves in order to secure future employability and value in the labour market (Lee, 1999). Furthermore, globally and at UKZN, academics are required to obtain a doctorate. This is in keeping with upskilling academics, and institutions are now using this as the minimum criteria to employ academics.

Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse (1977) cited in Smith (2006) also associates career plateaus with periods of stability in employment or the lack of movement. Prior to this, the issue of career plateauing received very little attention since it was bound to happen as a gradual process inevitably, concedes Badiane, (2016). Individuals display various responses when they plateau, but certain aspects present a number of negative outcomes. Career plateauing has positive ramifications when an employee realises that he or she need not face changing and or increased responsibilities. This scenario would present feelings of satisfaction and security (Clark, 2005). Employees may derive satisfaction from their current positions in the organisation and may opt for job security, as opposed to the challenges of a higher level job. Social circles, relatives or spouses may derail employees' career goals. Family residing in a close proximity or the spouse's vocation could have a major influence on the vocational advancement of a person (Feldman and Weitz, 1988). It can be said that career plateauing also provides opportunities for the employee to better their skills, attain qualifications and look for better opportunities outside the organisation.

Career plateauing as an organisational phenomenon is viewed as having negative consequences for the organisation (Chay *et al.*, 1995). Some studies cited in Choy *et al.*, (1998) have reported the dysfunctional effects of plateauing on an individual and the organisation (Savery 1989; Elsass

and Ralston, 1989; Slocum *et al.*, 1987). This type of behaviour can be detrimental to both the organisation and the employee. In a study by Smith-Ruig (2009), a key aspect highlighted by plateaued participants focused on work-family conflict thus reaching life plateauing (Bardwick, 1987). In addition, Feldman and Weitz (1988) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009), individuals need to be instrumental in sharpening their skills, finding an equilibrium between work and personal life or recover and energise themselves for future work responsibilities.

Career plateaus can cause dissatisfaction with employees due to halted progression which is viewed as instrumental in measuring employee performance (Ongoni and Agolla, 2009). Tremblay and Roger (2004) in their study found that career plateauing has a downside due to employee role ambiguity. The authors submit that by making employees aware of what needs to be done and providing regular feedback, the ambiguity of their roles can be reduced. Two dimensions of performance, in role behaviour and extra role behaviour have been identified by authors, Ference *et al.*, (1977) and Katz and Kahn (1966). Considering the negative effects of vocation plateaus, the building of a lifetime vocation in one organisation is rejected, and an emphasis on building of a career from organisation to organisation is to become the norm with serious financial and labour turnover repercussions (Choudray *et al.*, 2013). Negative and undesirable effects of career plateaus include reduced satisfaction, elevated stress (Elsass and Ralston, 1989), decreased performance, withdrawal symptoms, decreased motivation, decreased organisational buy-in and higher turnover objectives (Heilmann, Holt and Rilovick, 2008; Choudary *et al.*, 2013; Chao, 1990; Ettington, 1998; Lee 1999; Jung and Tak, 2008; Gertport and Dorsch, 1987). Near, (1985) reported more health problems, Tremblay *et al.*, (1995) outlined greater turnover intents, and greater burnout. Taking into account the negative aspects related to career plateauing which includes low job satisfaction, poor organisational commitment, poor work attitudes and turnover intentions, employers are often faced with the mammoth task of having to delay and or avoid career plateauing with their senior workers (Xie and Long, 2008). Ference *et al.*, (1977) in their model of plateaued employees categorised employees who have plateaued.

**TABLE 2.4: A MODEL OF PLATEAUED EMPLOYEES**

Current Performance	Likelihood of Future Promotion	
	Low	High
High	<p>Solid Citizens (effective plateaus)</p> <p>Organisationally      Personally Pleasantly              Plateaued</p>	Stars
Low	<p>Deadwood (Ineffective plateauees)</p>	<p>Learners (comers)</p>

Ference, Stoner and Warren (1977: 60)

The model depicts categories of performers (managers) as “stars” (high-performing individuals); solid citizens (high achievers with a little possibility of advancement); learners (low performers with the high likelihood of promotion and deadwood (those performing poorly with minimal chances of promotion). They considered the “solid citizens” and the “deadwood” as being (hierarchically) plateaued since there was no opportunity for upward progression (Ference *et al.*, 1977). This definition by Ference *et al.*, (1977) however, was viewed as having a limited view of career advancement, where they viewed hierarchical mobility as the key measure of career success (Choy *et al.*, 1998).

Much of the plateau literature highlights the measurement of career plateaus. Ference *et al.*, (1977) definition of career plateaus operationalise plateaus on job tenure. Researchers align themselves with this definition. Tremblay and Roger (1993, 414) cited in Cable (1999) referred to the objective measure as structural and observable aspects associated with how lengthy a person is in his or her current spot, and the subjective measure is viewed as been in one’s position for a prolonged period and reaching an end in one’s progression. Objective measures related to age, tenure, or time since last promotion. Participants were viewed as stagnating if their present job was between five to seven years (Hall, 1985; Slocum *et al.*, 1985; Stout *et al.*, 1988 cited in Miles (2010). The subjective aspect of career plateaus relates to a person’s self-perception or feelings about his or

her career progress in an organisation (Chau, 1998). Chao (1990:182) argued if a person perceived that the possibility of future advancement is unlikely, this thinking, and not the future possibility of its happening that will impact on the person's vocational thinking. A subjective measure revolves around the likelihood of an individual's discernment of forthcoming advancement (Veiga, 1981; Evans and Gilbert, 1984; Ettington, 1998). Chao (1990) emphasised that the objective measure failed to capture the individual insights of plateau.

Career plateaus were initially measured by age, organisational and job tenure, or the number of promotions. For example, Near (1985) categorised individuals as plateaued if there was an unlikely possibility of advancing their careers within a twenty year period. Burke and Mikkelsone (2006) categorised employees in terms of time in their positions. In the study, police officers were identified by sixteen or additional years of tenure and was construed as plateaued. Slocum *et al.*, (1985) recognised insufficient tangible evidence regarding a plateau occurrence. They classified sales people as plateaued if there had been no promotion or movement laterally in five more years. Instead of depending exclusively on unbiased methods, Chao (1990) emphasised the validity of opinion in evaluating a plateau. In essence, it was insufficient to categorise an individual with term in an organisation or no recent advancement as plateaued. Chao (1990) introduced the concept of particular methods, advocating the idiosyncratic assessment of potential vocation enhancement as the prime suitable aspect since it accentuates the person's perceptions, assessments, and reactions regarding the current work position (Chao 1990, 182).

Researchers Chao (1990) and Tremblay *et al.*, (1995) identified the inconsistency highlighted by the subjective plateau, which was more than the variance justified by the commonly used objective measures hence highlighting the position of the subjective measure over the objective measure. The researchers state the measurement should be carried out by a continuous perceptual probability instead of an objective dichotomy. Numerous studies have supported the subjective measure. A study covering 1755 managers found that perceptions of plateauing had a converse effect to job fulfillment, vocational preparation and organisational identification, and also added exclusive variance outside job tenure (Chao, 1990). In addition, results from previous research identified that subjective plateau measures existed in a position to elucidate twelve percent of the variance in job attitudes, as opposed to one percent justified by the objective measures (Tremblay *et al.*, 1995). Moreover, Chao (1990) viewed career plateau as a dichotomous variable,

categorising a person as plateaued or non-plateaued. Plateauing should be judged in terms of extent. Although there is a vast extent of career plateau research, minimal research inspected the construct as suggested by Chao (1990).

Ettington (1998) found most of the published studies during the 1980s used age as an objective measure to assess plateauing. Ettington (1998:74) criticised the use of age as an objective measure of plateauing by stating that ageing is a dissimilar procedure from plateauing, a predominantly vital demarcation when plateauing transpired at an earlier time. Evans and Gilbert (1984) stated that to operationally define plateauing in terms of age is not sufficient. Veiga (1981) used age and job tenure to determine the plateau status of middle managers. Managers were classified as non-plateaued if they were forty years of age and older with less than seven years in their present position, while managers with more than seven years tenure and forty years and older as plateaued. Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera (2010) viewed the subjective status as opportunities for advancement and was characterised by anticipated prospects at work. Jung and Tak (2008), in their study indicated that professed career plateau was assessed subjectively irrespective of age or time in one's position.

Regarding job tenure, status with the same company normally highlights the most obvious factor for career mobility (Tremblay and Roger, 1993). For managers, the amount of experience is viewed informally and seniority is the determinant for advancement. Further, Tremblay and Roger (1993) argued that majority of the studies found that tenure for the same firm, and or allegiance to the company, the less the likelihood for advancement. Career plateau research indicates that plateaued individuals have higher tenure than others (Gould and Penley, 1984). Organisational membership characteristics such as tenure is associated to developmental activity (Allen *et al.*, 1998). Individuals with longer tenures were in a better position to participate in developmental opportunities that then lead to promotional opportunities from within the organisation (cited from Allen *et al.*, 1998). Tremblay and Roger (2004) was unsuccessful in finding a significant relationship with career plateauing and organisational tenure. However, it was found that organisational tenure differentiated between those classified into plateaued and those not plateaued groups. The plateaued group had the longest tenure. Further, the authors suggested that status within the same company featured as a key attribute for mobility. It was argued that most research attributed the more time spent in the same company and therefore tenure or organisational loyalty

to the organisation, the less likelihood the chances for promotion. Previous studies reflect that individuals that have plateaued have higher tenure than others (Gould and Penley, 1984).

Further research has indicated that perceptions of career plateaus justify for additional variance than the objective plateau measures (that is, tenure) resulting in inherent and extrinsic job gratification, organisational identification, scheduling of careers (Chao, 1990), intention to leave and perceptions related to instrumentality (Tremblay *et al.*, 1995). Heslin (2005) highlights an individual may attain objective plateauing (that is, when there is no room for promotion), however they are satisfied and productive once they have attained a good work life balance (Smith-Ruig, 2009). Heslin (2005) was of the belief that greater need should concentrate on individual and circumstantial influences which impact on the conceptualisation of success. The outcomes from studies using objective and subjective measures of career plateaus showed the perceptual measure (subjective) to be a superior tool.

According to Feldman and Weitz (1988), the majority of studies on career plateaus concentrated on the definition and conceptualisation of career plateaus. Chao's (1990) study focused on 1755 managers that were used to compare the operationalisation of a vocation plateau with the customary measure grounded on job tenure. Carnazza, Korman, Ference and Stoner (1981) focused on American plateaued managers and its effects prior to reaching the apex of their careers and the effect of plateauing on job performance. Evans and Gilbert (1984) in their study compared the contentment and zest (in respect of performance-reward instrumentalities) of a group of plateaued managers with those that are not plateaued managers. Viega's study (1981) compared effectively and ineffectively plateaued managers with non-plateaued managers by taking into account managers' career movements, attitudes to plateauing and career path potential in the organization. Bardwick (1983) viewed plateauing as a complex problem involving internal and external factors hence prescribing numerous coping mechanisms in her study. In Bardwick's (1987) study, the author highlighted interventions by executives that could assist plateaued employees. Tan and Salomone's (1994) article defined career plateauing, the kinds and foundations of plateauing and counseling interventions. On the other hand, Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse, (1995) in their study examined the impact of objective and subjective career plateaus on the attitudes and behaviour of managers from three segments of the Canadian business world. Chau's (1998) data from the study of 1755 managers was utilised to equate a perceptually

constructed operationalisation of career plateau with the customary measure centred on job tenure; Ettington (1998) viewed plateauing as fruitful career plateauing which was distinct as effective job performance and peak job fulfillment notwithstanding a small possibility of advancement. Weiner *et al.*, (1992) focused on the different types of plateauing, its effects and the implications for career development. Ference, Stoner and Warren, (1977) viewed the career plateau in terms of the entire organisational career, and highlighted numerous issues associated with plateauing in addition to organisational suggestions to manage this phenomenon.

Savery (1989) compared plateaued and non-plateaued employees. Appelbaum and Finnestone (1994) examined the notable and existing difficulties of career plateauing with some strategies the authors view as “avant-garde” in a bid to avoid ineffective plateauing. Korn’s (1988) article focused on a variety of common plateau “blockages” and an array of effective responses; Allen, Poteet and Russell (1998) examined demographic and attitudinal transformations across managers categorised as non-plateaued, hierarchically plateaued or content and hierarchically plateaued. Slocum, Cron and Yows (1987) highlighted the “symptoms” of plateauing and the phases they featured in Burke and Mikkelsone (2006) examined the career plateau of police officers by comparing those with fifteen years of service to those who did not have fifteen years of service. Near (1983) shed light on the discriminate analysis of plateaued versus non-plateaued managers. Rogers and Judy (1993) and Orpen, (1983) surveyed the relationship between career plateaus and career stages. Feldman and Weitz, (1998) recommended a host of personal, task related, and organisational factors influencing career plateauing and its management through effective career development. Alderfer and Guzzo (1979) cited in Feldman and Weitz, (1988) suggested an array of individual, job-related and organisational aspects influencing workers’ career plateauing. The significance of probing reasons of career plateaus was discussed, more effectively in respect of dealing with vocational enhancement and through conducting additional studies in the domain. Slocum, Cron, and Hansen (1985) in their study drew comparisons of effective and ineffective plateaued salespeople in two organisations which had distinct corporate plans in respect of the individuals’ job histories, job fulfillments, apparent work domains, career phases, classifications of accomplishment and career viewpoints. Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse (1998) cited in Jung and Tak (2008) confirmed previous research areas such as types of career plateaus, their measurement and antecedents of career plateaus. Veiga (1981) compared plateaued and non-plateaued managers by probing their career mobility histories, vocation viewpoints and path

prospect. Near (1985) compared managers who reached a career plateau to those managers who were highly mobile. Slocum *et al.*, (1985) cited in Chay *et al.*, (1995) carried out a study on management and proficient employees in Singapore and examined responses to and mediators of career plateauing. Godschalk and Fender (2015) in their article paid attention to relationships between structural and content plateauing and work end products among professional accounting affiliates; Jung and Tak (2008) examined the relationship of alleged career plateau to job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the moderating impact of vocation enthusiasm and alleged supervisor support.

Author, Salami (2010) studied the association of career plateauing to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions and the moderating impact of mentoring on the relationship between career plateauing and the three variables. Weiner *et al.*, (1992) and Lentz, (2004) on the other hand, studied career plateauing and the intention to quit. Heilman *et al.*, (2008) collected completed questionnaires from 223 organisational participants which were investigated to examine the degree to which career plateaus were absolutely related with intents to exit the organisation, and that configuration and content plateaus expounded inimitable dissimilarity in turnover intents after taking into account job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job search behaviour, and several demographic characteristics. Wang Hu, Hurst and Yang (2014) considered mentoring others as a precursor of career plateaus for mentors. The moderating role of mentors' hands-on personality was also scrutinized. Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera, 2010 cited in Xie, Lu and Zhou (2015) focused on the association between hierarchical plateauing and the turnover intentions of Chinese employees and how job content moderated the link between career plateauing and performance. The regulating position of job performance between career plateaus and greatest work consequence variables in objective and subjective career plateau were examined by Hassan, Ismail and Jegak (2007). Sorizehi, Samadi, Sohrabi and Kamalipoor (2013) examined the link between career plateauing in the career progression path with personnel burnout in the health ministry in Kash City.

Some authors such as Ettington (1998) viewed successful career plateauing of American and European middle-level executives from a multi-national corporation. Ettington (1998) outlined effective plateauing as actual job performance and peaked job gratification in spite of a small likelihood of promotion. Danielson (2007) cited in Vandrew (2012) viewed the career plateau in

the teaching profession as “professional restlessness” and stated teaching was a flat profession and the teachers with twenty years of experience was doing essentially the same type of work compared to when they started to teach. Palmero, Roger and Tremblay, (2001) reported no major variance regarding the overall fulfillment of plateaued participants and the non-plateaued. Nachbagauer and Riedl (2002) and Veiga (1981) summed up previous research on career plateaued employees which characterised them as being older, unhappy with their supervisors, reporting rare advancement prospects, higher levels of absenteeism and illness. Moderating variables between career plateau and work attitudes from previous research included job attributes such as job enhancement ability, variation, independence, role-conflict or sharing in decision-making. An interface amid these variables and career plateau is likely to signify workers’ responses (Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse (1995) and Tremblay, Roger (2004). Literature reflects no consensus on the adverse effect of career plateau on workers’ occupation outlooks. Studies reflecting the connection between career plateaus, thus far on academics and labour outlooks, entails a diversity of inconsistent deductions about the outlooks of those who have reached career plateaus and the un-plateaued (Xie and Long, 2008).

Palmero *et al.*, (2001) identified insignificant dissimilarities in terms of the over-all gratification between plateaued participants and those who did not reach this stage. Other studies revealed a negative relationship with career plateauing and job satisfaction (Jung and Tak, (2008); Lee (1999); Lentz, (2004); Lentz and Allen, (2009); McCleese and Eby, (2006); Xie and Long, (2008). Jung and Tak (2008); Lentz (2004) and Milliman (1992) focused on the influence of distinct elements such as life period, career goal, vocation inspiration and perceived supervisor support.

A study in schools of education, conducted by Patterson, Sutton, and Schuttenberg (1987) identified an individual's perception of having vocational advancement (that is, not being plateaued) interrelated positively with productivity and career satisfaction. Further, they stated that full or tenured professors (irrespective of status), were in a stronger position than the Professors’ junior colleagues to understand plateaued jobs and did not view career plateauing with a reduced output or satisfaction with career accolades. Both plateaued, as well as non-plateaued (those with career mobility) individuals were in a position to attain productivity and work satisfaction.

In a further study cited from Near, (1985), Grusky (1966) identified job satisfaction as lower among less (plateaued) managers, that is the higher the plateauing in the current position, the lower

the job satisfaction and vice versa. Evans and Gilbert, (1984) argued that plateaued managers were possibly agitated in their present organisational roles with lower motivation and performance. In addition, managers were in a position to receive fewer organisational incentives than their co-workers. Plateaued managers vary from non-plateaued executives in respect of occupation performance, work drive, and impact on non-work (Near, 1985). Near (1985) argued that plateaued managers showed less job satisfaction due to fewer intrinsic rewards, lack of independence, choice and avenues to make decisions within the same position. The idea that plateaued employees having reduced motivation and satisfaction was not sanctioned by the findings of some of the studies. For instance, the study conducted by Near (1985) advocated that plateaued employees were not demotivated nor dissatisfied than their counterparts. In addition, plateaued persons have negative attitudes and work behaviours than non-plateaued colleagues. Confirming Near's (1985) notion Slocum, Cron and Yows, (1987) also found that plateaued employees displayed higher satisfaction with immediate supervisors and the job itself than their counterparts.

Research comparing plateaued and non-plateaued employees displayed key dissimilarities in career concerns pertaining to career phases (Slocum *et al.*, (1985); Stout, Slocum and Cron, (1988). Career stages are experienced with age and the phases the individuals find themselves in, at various stages of their life. They encounter a process of change which may be summarised as the exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement life stages (Stead and Watson, 1999). The sources of change are contextualised in the domains individuals exist in such as biotic, psychosomatic, social, mystical, cultural, fiscal and historical (Schreuder and Theron, 2006). In addition, the person and the location are subject to variation.

It can be said that positive career plateauing is aligned with elevated job performance and high fulfillment in spite of a small possibility of advancement (Ettington, 1998). Ettington (1998) identified objectively plateaued managers as having higher success with better job performance and job contentment when non-plateaued. Higher content levels with stimulating work was reported, but they did not view managers as technical or practical professionals. Maimunah (2008) described that some workers aimed to reach career plateau since employees were unable to deal with limitations and the strain progress presents. Plateauing can be viewed as a heightened needed period of respite and stability that presents opportunities to revitalise, energise and take in new

philosophies and concepts. Some employees perceive a plateau to be healthy for professionals, especially those seeking a revolution in their vocations (Kreuter, 1993).

Authors Choy *et al.*, (1998) concur with Ference, Stoner and Warren (1977) on the notion that nothing is wrong with being plateaued. Bardwick (1987) and Feldman and Weitz (1988) argue further there is benefit from temporary plateauing since employees are able to focus on personal growth, build on professional and competency development plans, have an opportunity to ponder on their accolades and strategise for their future. Some authors state and believe plateaued employees are key to organisational success (Slocum and Cron, (1987); Ference, Stoner and Warren, (1977).

Demographic variables influence forms of plateauing. Research reflects that organisations formulate norms or typecasts about the age at which one may advance (Tremblay and Roger, (2004). In terms of age, Greenhaus *et al.*, (1990) stipulates despite plateauing occurring at any career stage, it is especially key to employees who are older than forty years. Studies between age and career plateau have yielded indecisive outcomes despite studies observing an undesirable association between age and mobility (Kalleberg and Loscocco, 1983; Latack, 1984).

In terms of gender, Allen *et al.*, (1998), stated that there was greater likelihood of men to be categorized as experiencing content and hierarchical plateauing or non-plateaued than women. Females remained more probable to be categorized as hierarchical or job content plateauing than men. Gallos (1989) identified a higher number of women who anticipated there were fewer progression prospects accessible to women in contrast to males. They were therefore, of the view they may become plateaued sooner than men. Career progress is seen as the best predictor of female academics objective and subjective occupation accomplishment. This however does not concur with preceding studies, which indicated that females were attracted to teaching and community involvement and males to research, and that it is research alone, that is, rewarded with advancement. On the same note, the outcomes did not support the notion that fruitful academics have to concentrate only on research. Effective South African women professors have robust publication annals and high qualifications, but also received worthy teaching assessments and were engaged in social upliftment programmes. This reflects these concluding actions have not encroached on their publication successes submits Riordan and Joha Louw-Potgieter, (2011).

The effect of education on mobility resounded during the entire career (Grandjean, 1981; Tuma, 1976). Considering the literature, the conclusion pertaining to the impact of education on the stability of careers and plateaus are varied, and some researchers have identified insignificant differences in the individuals studied (Veiga, 1981). Moreover, Near, (1985) revealed with the data from one hundred and ninety nine managers that higher education for instance (a Master Degree), decreases the possibility of plateauing, and recommended managers obtain higher levels of education in order to prevent the undesirable outcomes of career plateauing. The author's study conceptualised that the educational level of the employees plays a critical role towards career plateauing and aimed to find the impact of employees' educational levels towards plateauing. The attained education level of the employees may also be aligned to ongoing learning, and also has ramifications for career plateauing. Naturally, those who obtained higher levels of education have a stronger orientation toward learning and development than those with lesser levels of education (Allen, *et al.*, 1998).

Contrary to this, Tremblay and Roger (1993) reported educational levels was negatively aligned with an objective measure of plateauing, but that education did not distinguish between those who subjectively perceived themselves as plateaued or non-plateaued. Further, these authors confirm that education could be used as a selection criterion when making promotional decisions of employees. Therefore, individuals who do not attain a higher level of education may be disadvantaged when contending for fewer advancement opportunities in an organisation. Educational levels may feature as a key aspect when identifying candidates for stimulating assignments that will influence an individual's notion of being content plateaued (Allen, *et al.*, 1998). They were of the opinion that those with advanced levels of education could possess a broader skill-category thereby fostering wider prospects for organisational advancement horizontally and vertically.

Recent studies associated with family situations and vocation advancement highlight many employees may reject certain promotional opportunities due to family obligations. Frone and Rice (1987) recommend a satisfying personal life in order to facilitate career attainment intentions, whereas a dissatisfied personal life may intensify role conflict and strain. Furthermore, some researchers consider family size as a positive aspect in career advancement. Staines, Fudge and Pottick (1986) have identified a weak relationship with high salary, the amount of promotions and

a full-time working spouse. However, Veiga (1983) found no relationship among the partner's circumstances and time in a particular situation. With regard to the literature, it is clear that findings between family magnitude and advancement are mixed. Despite authors discovering diminishing or a non-existent association amongst the two, a number of people reject promotional accolades and plateau due to the effect such an adjustment would make on their partner's vocation, submits Kilpatrick (1982).

Some researchers have looked at the personality of managers in order to explain variances in vocation accomplishment. The effect of disposition on the movement of the career may also emanate meanderingly via anchors. Employees' capabilities to take into account uncertainty or difficulty can aid career progression (Berlew and Hall, 1966). As indicated in Tremblay, *et al.*, (1994), Abelson, Ferris and Urban, (1988) argue that attributes including assertiveness, tolerance, fear of disappointment, and risk taking can impact motion: "Amongst the many temperament individualities that have been researched thus far, the *locus* of control is the main element of the personality that has been focused on. The results concluded that the sense of regulating one's destiny (internals) would have a grander propensity to be movable and to be vocation and achievement focused than externals" (Tremblay and Roger, 1993).

In terms of previous career success, Tremblay and Roger (1993), show that early career performance (previous career success) is an insightful source of data explaining disparities in career progress. Further, these authors explain that experiencing success in the early career stage may highlight the potential of the person, and the know-how which is needed for ultimate promotions in the organisational promotional scheme.

The traditional view of career plateaus can then, be emphasised as the structural or hierarchical movement constituting plateauism as a unidimensional construct. Recent progress in the study of career plateaus recognised that career plateaus might be treated as a multi-dimensional construct. This conceptualisation of vocational accomplishment can shift how a person views a plateau and how they will move from here on, hence the career plateau concept is viewed as a multi-faceted phenomenon acknowledging that hierarchical plateauing is only one facet to be considered (Smith-Ruig, 2009).

## **2.8 TYPES OF PLATEAUS**

Badiane, (2016); Tabarsa and Nazari, (2016); Nwovuhoma and Malik, (2016) tried to extend the career plateau phenomenon utilising three diverse groups: structural or hierarchical, content and life plateauing. Alivand and Ebrahimpour (2015) distinguished types of plateaus as personal, structural and content plateauing. According to Bardwick (1987) cited in Miles (2010), this distinction is vital since different types of plateaus have unique precursors and consequences.

### **2.8.1 Hierarchical/Structural Plateauing**

The description and operationalisation of career plateauing has existed over a period of time. Bulk explanations on career plateau were originally based on advancement opportunities horizontally and vertically in an organisation. Tan, *et al.*, (1994) argued that, in the 1980s as corporate realignment and reorganisation became more dominant, it was hard to quantify a promotion. It was sometimes viewed as an avenue to distract an individual to “kick employees upstairs” to get rid of a perceived obstruction to advancement. Further, they emphasised that in addition to promotion, a common notion prevalent in the corporate community of career plateauing is characterised by career non-advancement in any direction and career structure (Sorizehi *et al.*, 2013). According to them, this could be both vertical and horizontal movements in the employee’s career. Taking into account both “advancement” and “significant vocation drive”, Feldman and Weitz (1988) revisited the description of career plateauing enabling description of the situation in which the prospect of getting additional projects of enlarged accountability is small. Hierarchical plateauing is evident due to the slight possibility of additional upward advancement within the organisation.

Following on, the popular definition of a career plateau is that of a structural plateau, which occurs when promotion is halted in a hierarchical organisation (Bardwick, 1987; Joseph, 1996) due to “pyramid-like structure” of organisations. This could be attributed to two causes: firstly, career plateauing occurs due to fewer positions decreasing as one moves hierarchically in the organization, and there are no opportunities available higher up. In comparison, personal plateauing is seen within the organisation as a lack of want of an individual to populate a senior position. Insufficient competencies, or preference for a senior position may add to a person’s lack of promotion (FERENCE *et al.*, 1976; Cable, 1999). Structural plateauing results when there is a combined effect of the original structure and birth rate variations and seen as out of an employee’s

hands (Nwovuhoma and Malik, 2016; Tan and Salomane, 1994). Other factors include the reorganisation of organisations, the rationalising of jobs and the abolition of middle management (Cable, 1999). Alivand and Ebrahimpour (2015) views structural plateauing when an employee reaches the highest level of the organisation due to limitations in the hierarchical organisational structure. Of significance, is that these plateaued individuals are seen as having taken their final step in their career and seated on the final rung of the promotion ladder (Cable, 1999).

From the discussions, most researchers in the field of career plateaus (Carnazza, Korman, French, and Stoner, 1981; Evans and Gilbert, 1984; Elsass and Ralston, 1989; Liebowitz, Kaye and Farren, 1990; Chao, 1990) based their studies on Ference, Stoner and Warren's (1977, 602) who identified a career plateau as the juncture in a vocation where the possibility of supplementary tiered preferment is very small. The above by Ference *et al.*, (1977) was limited and focused only on advancement. Viega (1981) revamped this definition and included ascending and horizontal mobility by viewing career plateau as the juncture that characterised imminent vocation movement, in addition to, mounting and adjacent moves was questionable due to the prolonged duration in the current position (Rilovick, 2005). Some authors (Bardwick, 1987) have performed wide studies in behavioural, mental and professional problems and recognized three kinds of career plateauing: structural, content and life factors (Khanifar: 2006). Bardwick (1987) a professional psychologist and management specialist specialising in plateaus outlined the key instigator of structural plateauing as heightened struggle for upper levels places despite poor economic growth (Choudhary and Ramzan, 2013). The face of slow economic growth she highlighted was caused by huge surges in the teaching and preparation of the workforce and management cutbacks through to the late 1990s. The author's belief was that there was opportunity at the top for only one percent of all employees (Choudhary, Ramzan and Riaz, 2013). Stoner and his colleagues (Burke, 1989), identified an organisational plateau which was equivalent to Bardwick's (1987) structural plateau. The author suggests that an employee is adept of advancing to an elevated level, but due to the lesser amount of work as one travels up no jobs are obtainable.

It is highlighted that most employees experiencing structural plateauing are frequently absent, have less supervisor satisfaction, encounter more health problems, have higher levels of stress, greater intention to leave the organisation, have lower motivation, are dissatisfied and have lower organisational obligation (Near, 1985; Elsass and Ralston, 1989; Ongori and Agolla, 2009;

Choudray, Ramzan and Riaz, 2013). Studies have found key differences in consequences with plateaued and non-plateaued employees. Near (1985) sampled one hundred and ninety nine managers from different jobs, including public administration, bank officers, and retail managers, and ascertained important dissimilarities with regard to absence and associations with supervisors. Hierarchically plateaued executives had high absences and evaluated their managers less satisfactorily than their non-plateaued counterparts (Near, 1985). In further research on police officers, Burke (1989) found they were less satisfied, had high levels of psychological burnout, less obligation, and had greater intentions of leaving the organisation. Additionally, Stout, Slocum, and Cron (1988) researched the outlooks of salespeople regarding their work through a longitudinal study. Over a period of three years, since the inception of the research plateaued employees reported low organisational commitment and a deeper yearning to exit the company as compared to non-plateaued salespeople. Plateaued incumbents reported being less sought-after with outside companies than did non-plateaued salespeople. Ultimately, non-plateaued incumbents reported being more marketable, desired advancement, and increased sales than both sets of plateaued and non-plateaued salespeople (Stout *et al.*, 1988).

Khanifer (2006) cited in Sorizehi, Samadhi, Sohrabi and Kamalipor, (2013) stated that people sometimes suffer from plateauing by reason of career structure, which is attributed to a low diversity, boring and fatigued structure. It could be said that academics work on one class for many long years and exactly know each day what to expect from them and there is nothing new for due consideration in education, which is prevalent in all organisations. Academic organisations are not protected from such scenarios (Khanifer 2006: 103). This variable includes indices like promotion in organisation, the effect of organisation structure on individuals in one job, participation in organisational activities and hope for promotion and development. Near (1985) identified that hierarchically plateaued employees were in a stronger position to give their supervisors a poor rating due to inadequate support. Gerpott and Domsch (1987) noted that support from the supervisor for the individual's career was developmental in nature amid an unbiased measure of structural plateauing and specific worker performance and contentment pointers. It is perceived structurally plateaued employees obtained less support from their supervisor.

Ference, Warren and Stoner (1977) identify the objective status by way of structural and identifiable aspects such as ranked and remuneration levels. Brookes (1994) identifies the

structural plateau as marking the halting of advancement that prompts the individual to exit the organisation to discover more challenges and prospects. A construct is objective if it consists of elements that can be observed by others. In the case of career plateaus, observable measurements included the number of promotions, job tenure, age and job responsibility (Chao, 1990). Although the concept is old, the extent of the issue is large and at a younger stage and a challenge for the organisation to keep employees inspired, without advancement as a reason suggests Weiner *et al.*, (1992).

Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera (2010) state the objective dimension of tiered plateauing depends on an employee's tenure in the present job. Tenure does not directly indicate that one has reached a plateau but prolonged time in tenure indicates limited upward mobility. Heslin (2005) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009), state that despite individuals reaching an objective plateau (that is where career acceleration has ended), there were still feelings of satisfaction and fruition due to career or life goals being satisfied (that is, needs are fulfilled both at work and personally). The approach of the individual depending on how he/she defines success will be positive or negative. Ference, Stoner and Warren (1977) cited in Allen, Poteet and Russell (1998) state that tiered (hierarchical) plateauing occurs when an employee has limited or no opportunity for more vertical manoeuvring within an organisation.

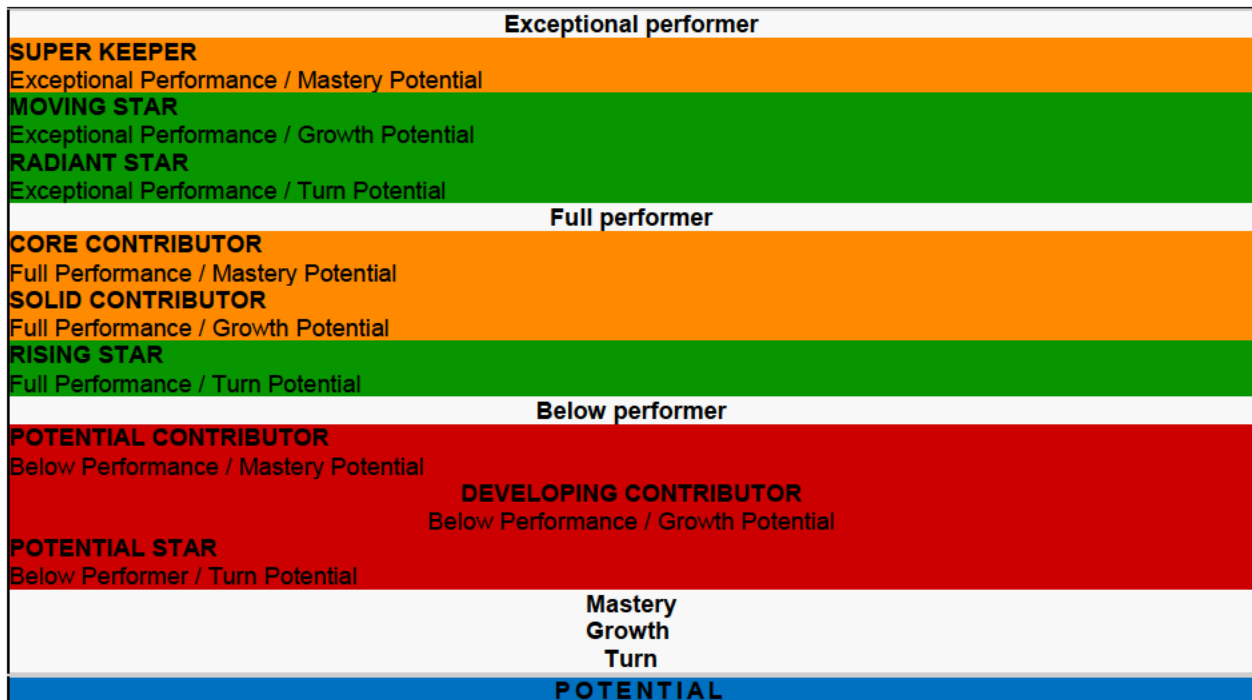
According to Appelbaum and Finestone (1994), promotion and ascendant hierarchical advancement was considered as primary gauges of career victory at work for many employees. Markham, Harlan and Hackett (1987) cited by Chay *et al.*, (1995, 61) supported this view by stating the following: "In a mobile mindful humanity, this methodical effort up the organisational hierarchy signifies an observable indication of singular vocation accomplishment even though for the organisation, movement increases human wealth and its deployment to increase work performance". The use of promotions to operationalise career plateaus was criticised by Tan and Salomane (1994) who stated that, in the 1980s, it was difficult to ascertain what constitutes a promotion due to corporate restructuring and reorganising which was popular at that time. Another problem with the use of promotion, according to Chau (1998), is that a content employee in his or her present position may forgo promotion. Choy *et al.*, (1998) stated that the definition posited by Warren *et al.*, (1977) depicts a limited view of movement as it views mobility hierarchically as the sole means of job success. The validity of using promotion as the sole criteria to assess career

plateaus led Veiga (1981:586) to define career plateaus as the juncture at which imminent vocation advancement, plus mutually ascending and horizontal mobility, is in genuine qualm due to the span of time in the existing point has been unjustifiably extended”.

Talent mapping in the performance management procedure and the performance management system undertakes a pivotal part in avoiding the situation of limited advancement and stagnation, by identifying the level the employee is performing at, that is, whether the employee is an “exceptional performer”, “full performer” or a “below performer” (www.ukzn.ac.za). Through this identification, the institution together with the employee, can work towards rectifying deficiencies in performance, hence providing opportunities for training and development interventions provided by the institution.

An extract of the framework guiding talent mapping is depicted in the illustration that follows.

**FIGURE 2.4: TALENT MAPPING**



www.ukzn.ac.za

Orpen (1983) indicated that individuals who are relatively newcomers are classified as being in a non-plateaued situation because of the difficulty of accurately assessing the likelihood of being

promoted. Stout *et al.*, (1988) reported that the use of length of job tenure as a criterion was found to be appropriate by most researchers. There is disagreement amongst researchers as to how long a person should be in his or her current position to be classified as being plateaued. According to Choy *et al.*, (1988), researchers tend to use the estimated time a person should be in a position before vertical or horizontal movement. Chay *et al.*, (1995) believed that researchers use randomly defined cut-off points. Some studies considered people to be plateaued if their present job duration is greater or equivalent to five years (Slocum *et al.*, 1985; Stout *et al.*, 1988; Savery, 1989; Tremblay *et al.*, 1995). Veiga (1981), Gould and Penley (1984) and Choy *et al.*, (1998) used seven years as a criterion, while Gerpott and Domsh (1987) used ten years. Burke (1989) used fifteen years to establish the plateau status of his subjects, with Near (1983, 1984, 1985) using twenty years as a measurement. Accordingly, those subjects with less than five, seven, ten, fifteen or twenty years in a job have been viewed as non-plateaued.

Previous research (Taylor *et al.*, 1996) suggests the increase of job tenure may well evoke negative reactions from managerial employees, including decreased organisational commitment and a higher probability of turnover. Consistent with this perspective, lengthening job tenure is viewed as bringing on increasing feelings of contract violations from upwardly mobile managers and therefore shifting the agreement toward the transactional side of the contract continuum in the managers' view. Over time, managers will feel more at ease to negotiate a new contract with alternative employees that they believe offer greater career mobility, and ultimately have a higher likelihood of leaving their employer. McCleese and Eby (2006) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009), have debated that the present work domain characteristic of downsizing and reorganisation and hierarchical plateauing is unavoidable for certain individuals. Studies established job content plateaued employees showed more fulfillment regarding the job and organisational obligation if they did not encounter hierarchical plateauing.

Authors, Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera (2010) in their study of IT professionals identified in a Sri Lankan background that employees were expected to stay with them for two years with no intention for extended commitment. This short tenure they attributed to hierarchical mobility and training and development initiatives which contribute to short-term productivity.

Heslin (2005) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009) labels subjective vocational achievement as a worker's response to the worker's related career competency and characteristically conceptualised as an

occupation or job satisfaction. Smith-Ruig (2009) in his study identified participants who had attained the most high-ranking levels of the organisation during their thirties and many were helpless not knowing what to do with the latter parts of their careers.

Recent research has discovered variances with non-plateaued, content plateaued, structurally-plateaued, and content and hierarchically plateaued managers. Allen, Poteet, and Russell (1998) examined attitudinal changes in plateau groupings for six hundred and seven state managers. Results reveal that both job content and hierarchical plateaued managers were presented with reduced work outlooks than those who were job content or hierarchically plateaued, including lower job participation, obligation, and job satisfaction. Concerning structurally plateaued or job content plateaued employees, outcomes exposed job content plateaued managers reporting less favourable job attitudes compared to hierarchical plateaued managers. Managers encountering job content plateauing accounted for lesser job contentment and better need to leave the organisation than hierarchical plateaued managers (Allen *et al.*, 1998). Sterns and Miklos (1995) cited in Cable (1999), advocated structurally plateaued employees could evade content plateauing *via* challenge and involvement.

Allen *et al.*, (1999) identified a difference amongst structural and job content plateauing and highlighted supervisor backing, the zest to learn and level of education were indicative of structural plateauing than job content plateauing while vocation exploration and organisational tenure was more characteristic with hierarchical plateauing than job content plateauing (Badiane, 2016). Employees that were structurally plateaued were more in a position to rate supervisors negatively (Lapalme *et al.*, 2009). Plateauing study was extended to see plateauing from more than a solo standpoint, that is, not only from a hierarchical or advancement viewpoint. Converging on the multi-dimensional nature of the concept, Bardwick (1987) expanded the meaning to encompass structural, job content, and life plateauing.

### **2.8.2 Job Content Plateauing**

Content plateauing relates to a juncture in a person's vocation wherein the inherent features of the job are low and a low likelihood of an improvement in the *status quo* (Lapalme *et al.*, 2009). Such a plateau features when there is no challenge in work or work accountabilities, and there is general

fustiness of the occupation in its entirety (Feldman and Weitz, 1988; Salami, 2010), since the individuals are conversant with their jobs and get uninterested (Smith-Ruig, 2009). Strategies which encompass job design techniques such as career expansion, job rotation, job enhancement and work restructuring should be made known in order to instill challenge in the job (Joseph, 1996 and (Bardwick, 1987) cited in Cable (1999).

Content plateauing compels able employees to stay in the identical position for several years deprived of a major transformation in job responsibilities (Weiner *et al.*, 1992) hence the non-appearance of novel, varied and challenging jobs deprived of room for learning (Allen *et al.*, 1998; Bardwick, 1983). Employees experiencing content plateauing are deprived of rewards and are therefore of the belief the organisation is not supportive (Lapalme *et al.*, 2009). Bardwick (1987) is of the view that those experiencing hierarchical and content plateauing have being ignored by organisations. This aspect, the author believes, sends a message of the worker not being appreciated and valued hence emanating in undesirable consequences for both the worker and the institution. Alivand and Ebrahimipour (2015) are of the view that people can stay happy in this situation and may utilise the situation to resist change in mandate to maintain a sense of sanctuary. Bardwick (1987) cited in Duffy (2000), stated that this category of plateau is manipulated by the employee, therefore the individual is in a position to take charge over the changing tasks instead of changing the events structurally. Studies conducted on job content plateauing was significantly viewed to be related to job dissatisfaction, poor organisational commitment, and elevated levels of turnover (Allen *et al.*, 1999; Milliman 1992). McCleese and Eby (2006) identified circumstances where job content plateauing is concomitant through some undesirable work outlooks, role uncertainty in terms of one's duties and responsibilities, and low possibility of advancements as mediators of job content-work attitude connection. Job content plateaued employees testified better fulfilment when role obscurity was low.

Allen *et al.*, (1998) suggest in their research that organisations should coach supervisors on the indicators of job content plateauing and deliver backing and advice to minimise the setbacks related with plateauing. Allen, Poteet and Russell (1998) advanced knowledge on the objective, subjective and personal nature of career plateaus by contending that there may be employees who are experiencing hierarchical and job content plateaus. In other words, there are variables that are

related to both structural and job content plateau that needs to be investigated, labelled as a double plateau.

### **2.8.3 Life Plateauing**

Hierarchical plateauing has dominated much of the literature on career plateauing (McCleese and Eby, 2006) with not much emphasis on job content and life plateauing (McCleese and Eby, 2006). Life plateauing pertains to a person's state of mind of being locked in in their characters' external level of work (Allen, Russell, Poteet, and Dobbins, 1999; Bardwick, 1987). This type of plateauing is viewed as an inner position whereby the person feels indebted to deliver on past obligations (Tabarsa and Nazari, 2016). A life plateau is more philosophical and maybe a midlife crisis which may be due to children, for example becoming the most important aspect of their lives, as well as their individuality and self-worth. This situation maybe fine, as long as one is of the view they are successful, but if they become targets for downsizing or bypassed for mobility opportunities or the effects of the "empty nest", they may struggle to build the "pieces" of their lives together (Brooks, 1994). Regarding organisations, in addition to worrying about promotional opportunities available, employees are concerned with the holistic enrichment they are getting jobwise. These factors return to life of person.

A study carried out by Smith-Ruig (2009), indicated that most participants acknowledged the need for a good work-life balance was instrumental to career success. Participants felt there was a disparity thereby presenting feelings of being unsuccessful which culminated in 'life plateauing'. The above concurs with Heslin (2005), cited in Smith-Ruig (2009), where immense job fulfillment need not fundamentally lead to subjective career achievement when it has an impact on the wellbeing, family or other personal values.

### **2.8.4 Personal Plateauing**

The individual exposed to personal plateauing shows no desire for both work and non-work activities (Bardwick, 1987) cited in Duffy (2000). Tan and Salomane (1994) views personal plateauing as focusing on an individual's private life and parallels it to an era in a stage in one's

life. Choudray *et al.*, (2013) is of the view that personal plateauing happens when the employee's capability does not correspond with the occupational requirements or when they are unmotivated or lack career ambitions. Burke (1989) identifies personal plateauing in two ways: one, where the individual has no interest in advancing to a higher job that is obtainable and secondly, the organisation determines that a person's lack of talent to achieve adequately at a high-ranking point due to particular inadequacies, despite the availability of jobs. Duffy (2000) views personal plateauing as the most dangerous. The person lacks any bearing and zeal for both labour and non-work and avoids additional responsibility (Alivand and Ebrahimpour, 2015). Feldman and Weitz (1988) cited in Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) identified various sources of career plateau, the first being inappropriate skills and abilities, which is a focal point of the discussion that follows.

### **2.8.5 Job Skill Plateauing**

Feldman and Weitz (1988) attributed job skill plateauing to “poor entry-level performance” in addition to improper training, low career mobility needs, lack of inherent inspiration, strain and fatigue, lack of extrinsic booties, poor company progression and “being blocked in a career” which they attribute to one's own limitations. A different concept that provides justification for those in non-traditional careers is that of a professional plateau (Smith-Ruig, 2009).

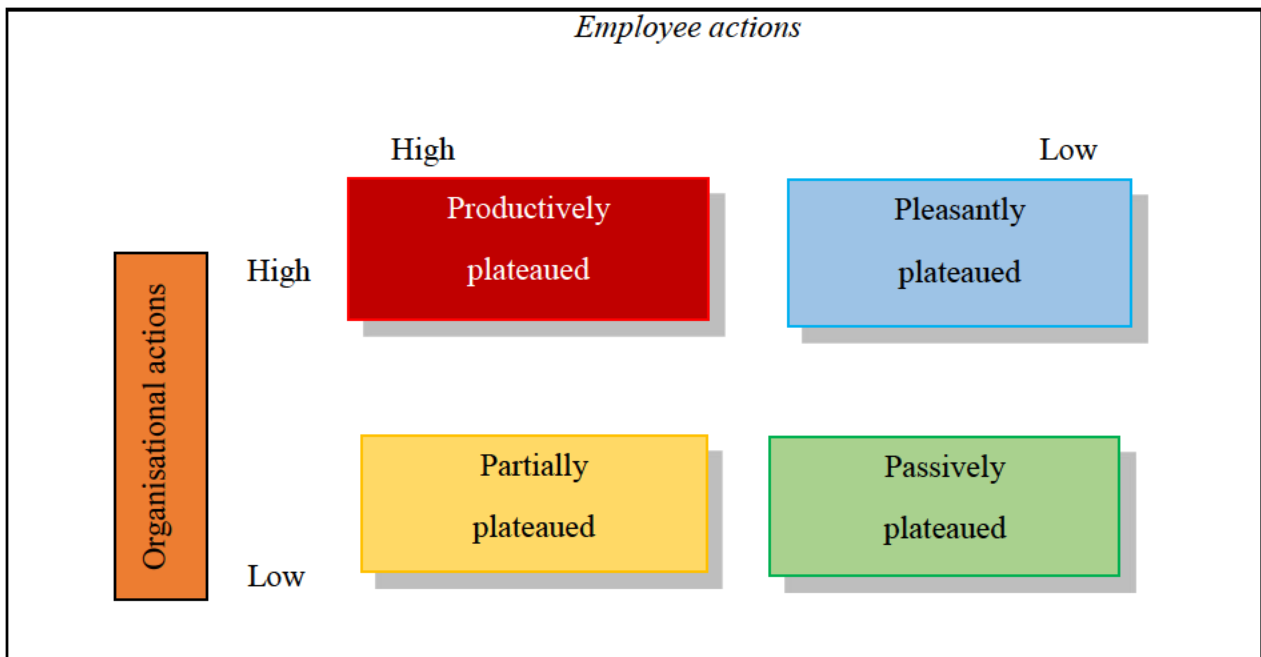
### **2.8.6 Professional Plateauing**

Professional plateauing is a juncture at which employees discover their jobs as unchallenging and renders scarce prospects for proficient growth and forthcoming absorption (Lee, 1999). Lee (1999) cited in Ruig-Smith (2009) refers to a professional plateau as being associated with progression in a profession as opposed to traditionally associating progression in a career. The author attributes importance to this type of plateauing to an appearance of “fresh” patterns of the protean career, and a process which the individual steers and is determined by their own criteria.

## 2.9 CATEGORIES OF PLATEAUED EMPLOYEES

Having taken into account both plateaued and un-plateaued employees (FERENCE *et al.*, 1977; TAN and SALOMANE, 1994; SLOCUM *et al.*, 1985), Leibowitz, Kaye and Farren (1990) cited in Vandrew (2012) and in Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) provided four typologies of the plateaued employee, that is, “productively plateaued”, “partially plateaued”, “pleasantly plateaued” and “passively plateaued” performer which is depicted in Figure 2.5 and discussed thereafter.

**FIGURE 2.5 FOUR KINDS OF PLATEAUED EMPLOYEES**



Schreuder and Coetzee (2011: 220)

The matrix model identifies organisational activities on the one axis and worker interactions on the other axis. Organisational actions consist of interventions such as training programmes, job enhancement activities and other pre-emptive activities. Employee activities are initiated by the employee. These actions include self-nomination, benefits and objectives (Leibowitz, *et al.*, 1990). A productively plateaued employee tends to be a high performer but has to be motivated. Such individuals and their organisation are instrumental to ensure a level of motivation and challenge (Leibowitz *et al.*, 1990). They are content with what they do and are comfortable with taking risks.

In addition, the productively plateaued employee commands the respect of peers and supervisors. They have a profound feeling of devotion to the institute, however they need to be constantly engaged. At UKZN, productively plateaued academics are top performers with regards to teaching and research, and have an academic reputation of worth. They are constantly pursuing their research endeavours to keep them interested and productive.

Partially plateaued employees are high achievers with the perception that the organisation does not do enough for them and find their jobs routine and find stimulation in new ventures to keep them “excited”. Each has a concern or a passionate assignment that keeps them enthusiastic about their work. These individuals enjoy, and are seen as experts in their fields. These employees head for exhaustion if their exhilaration disseminates. Partially plateaued academics could pertain to the high-profile researchers within the academic domain. They thrive and aspire to greater heights, by taking initiatives on their own to keep themselves stimulated.

The pleasantly plateaued employee enjoys opportunity for advancement and is content with the *status quo*. They thrive on routine and are faithful to one company for a prolonged period. They remain content in their comfort zones and anticipate staying with the organisation for a long time. They value their relationships and have a sense of belonging. They prefer to maintain the *status quo* and don’t pursue promotions. The concern with such individuals raises concern for the organisation in terms of advancing innovatively (Leibowitz *et al.*, 1990). Plateaued people who have attained fulfilment have assistance to provide new ventures which are devised by the organisation employees who are content with their present job (Tabarsa and Nazari, 2016). Evidence from the study reflected the pleasantly plateaued academic resides in the UKZN academic arena. This was evident from some of the responses received from respondents, where these individuals highlighted that they were “coasting” in their careers, and were “pleasantly” enjoying the phase they were in.

The passively plateaued employee is dissatisfied with his/her job and lacks creativity and do not welcome change according to Leibowitz (1990) cited in Vandrew (2012). These employees are not eager to embrace change. They receive unrealistic performance ratings since the ratings are not based on proactivity and creativity. Such employees are often unhappy, inactive, in an awkward position, and are unable to do anything about it. They are not eager to upgrade their skills

in order to advance themselves. Such people are miserable individuals who do not have any support from the organisation for transformation (Tabarsa and Nazari, 2016). Some evidence from a few respondents in the study indicated academics of this category. Feelings of frustration, dissatisfaction and discontentment were communicated during interactions, due to individuals' dissatisfaction of the *status quo*.

Karp (1989) investigated the different reactions/responses of the plateaued employees and categorised them into four levels. The immune level relate to employees who do not desire or require promotion, and values the work for itself. The adapters are employees who accept the status quo and turns to the organisation and immediate supervisor, for assistance and sustenance to adjust their outlooks and rejecting advancement as a value token. Karp's observations are pertinent: "The deniers are employees who cast-off the realism of plateauing to negate the imminent fact, they amplify their determinations, work lengthier hours, but are in fact unproductive than previously and the internalisers: are employees who observe the issue as an individual insufficiency, which have a tendency to lessen their self-confidence and invariably reduces output" (Karp: 1989, 35-40).

In essence, the above categorises plateaued employees into four categories, namely, "the immune level" (employees do not want promotion), "the adapters" (the employee who is willing to work with the status quo), "deniers" (unproductive plateaued employees who do not want to accept their status) and "internalisers" (who see their stagnation as a personal defect thereby becoming unproductive).

Career plateaus is not easy to deal with and impacts on all aspects of life and is interwoven. In essence, what is significant in understanding plateauing is attributed to affirmative or negative experiences, individual attributes such as outlooks, adaptability to change and the alignment of personal and organisational objectives (Tabarsa and Nazari, 2016). To contextualize within the focus of the study, the various sources of plateauing are highlighted hereunder.

## 2.10 SOURCES OF CAREER PLATEAUIING

Various sources may contribute to plateaued employees. Factors of career growth or inactivity may be categorised into two divisions: personal and organisational categories (Tremblay and Roger, 1993; Ference *et al.*, 1977 cited in Godschalk and Fender, 2015)). Further, Tremblay and Roger (1993) explain individual and familial factors are tied to certain situations of the individuals themselves, due to the absence of talents, of resolve, of desire, or because of some outside obstacles, a few individuals may stay in their present job or at the same status in terms of the availability of job opportunities. A study by Lemire *et al.*, (1999), reflects socioeconomic, employment and personality factors and organisational factors which justify reaching a career plateau. The more senior the employee in terms of age, the more likely the possibility of being plateaued which may be circumstantial or hierarchical factors that successfully hinder opportunities for mobility and are indicative by low vacancies at upper levels. On the contrary, Lemire *et al.*, (1999), argues that the organisational impacts usually do not impact on the individual *per se*.

Feldman and Weitz (1988) developed a taxonomy based on the principle that career plateaus feature due to three critical factors, namely: organisational factors, job-related factors and individual level factors. Near (1985) identified the sources of plateauing as organisational, cultural and individual. Organisational sources relate to the traditional hierarchical approach; cultural factors relate to the diverse nature of the workforce (including dual career families) and their commitment to work as a cultural norm may be declining and the individual factors are attributed to the lack of employee aspiration, motivation or ability to move further. Ference *et al.*, (1977) cited in Godschalk and Fender (2015) state that some individuals explicitly demonstrate their unwillingness to be promoted further due to personal reasons such as family responsibilities, well-being, avoiding relocation or satisfaction with one's own job, to control their vocational course and avoiding more accountabilities. Duxbury, Lyons and Higgins (2007) cited in Godschalk and Fender (2015) state that both women and men managing both labour and household matters are likewise expected to have particular motives for plateauing.

### **2.10.1 Organisational factors**

According to Weitz (1998) at the individual level, an employee's skills, abilities, needs, and values are related to his or her perceptions of being plateaued on the job; at job level, the absence of intrinsically-motivating job characteristics and extrinsic incentives are causes of career plateauing. They identified at the organisational level stress/burn-out and slow organisational growth as suggested sources of career plateauing.

Various demographic variables related to career plateaus have been investigated. Research reflects plateaued employees tend to be older, compared with non-plateaued employees (Near, 1983; Savery, 1989; Tremblay and Roger, 1993; Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse, 1995). In terms of job occupancy, plateaued employees were more senior than non-plateaued employees (Gould and Penley, 1984; Tremblay and Roger, 1993). Further to this, many studies identified more Blacks than Whites who experience a career plateau (Greenhaus *et al.*, 1990, Milliman 1992).

An interesting study conducted by Allen, *et al.*, (1999) is illustrated in Figure 2.4. It focuses on employee learning and development philosophy and literature associated with individuals' insights of being job content plateaued and hierarchically plateaued. Outcomes were related to top management support, vocational preparation, job participation, and education level. Further to this, career exploration, inspiration to study, organisational and work occupancy remained linked to views of hierarchical plateauing, while supervisor support was correlated to job content plateauing. The factors include compressed career path; span of control; organisational sources; organisational posture; organisational culture and the impact of the economic environment.

#### **2.10.1.1 Compressed Career Path**

“These are domain specific issues or structural matters that successfully hinder the possibility for progression and are revealed by a nonexistence of work vacancies at upper ranks” (Tremblay and Roger: 1993, 418). In accordance with Tan *et al.*, (1994) structural features may hinder vocational advancement: for example, fewer levels or stages in career paths offer little opportunities for advancement meaning that many employees have to struggle with few promotions.

### **2.10.1.2 Span of Control**

Managers with greater supervisory responsibility in a position who manage people in their organisation often experience faster career advancement (Tremblay *et al.*, 1993).

### **2.10.1.3 Organisational sources**

Downsizing, re-engineering, mergers and acquisitions and overseas competition are organisational influences contributing to flatter organisations and career plateaus. The survivors in downsized organisations have reservations about the restructured organisation, different performance benchmarks and the accessibility of progression. Sources of personal plateauing have been identified as inadequate competencies, with little opportunity for vocational advancement and vocational aspirations (Choudary, Ramzan and Riaz, 2013). Most of the times, the reason for plateauing is not individualised but viewed at an organisational level. Senior managers create blockages for advancement, slow economic growth, poor economic growth and/ management strategies such as external advancement limiting access to upper level opportunities within the organisation (Near, 1985). Authors, Tan *et al.*, (1999) and Bardwick (1987) contend that the pyramidal structure is evidently the most prevalent source of plateauing, with fewer jobs obtainable at each level of the organisational ranking. Bardwick (1987) views career plateauing as a function of an impersonal force which essentially limits spaces in the organisational hierarchy. Ference *et al.*, (1977) identify other organisational sources such as competition (where a person is viewed as lowly competent than someone from the outside); age (an older employee seen as less desirable compared to a younger employee) and organisational need (where an employee is too valued in his/her current position and cannot be released for an advanced position). Tremblay and Roger (1993) cited in Cable (1999) viewed organisational factors as structural or contextual factors which blocked advancement, and was reflected by limited vacancies.

### **2.10.1.4 Organisational Posture**

Core planned choices or the purpose of the business would impact on plateauing. Slocum, Cron, Hansen, and Rawlings (1985: 151) described the presence of additional plateaued employees in

defender organisations as opposed to analyser organisations. A defender organisation relates to product lines, highly competitive and an emphasis on efficiency and profitability. The analyser organisation on the other hand pays attention to novel product development, increased trades, and an emergence of novel business to be lucrative (Tan and Salomone, 1994).

### **2.10.1.5 Organisational Culture**

The culture that is currently prevailing at UKZN is based on the REACH principles, which is defined by the REACH value system. Respect, Excellence, Accountability, Client orientation and Honesty (REACH), which forms the bedrock of the institution and its aspirations. Each staff member and student, with no exceptions, is bound by this significant value system, and will be held accountable as the institution strives to collectively live REACH at UKZN. Although some may not aspire to these principles, it is essential that all stakeholders hold one another accountable on an ongoing basis (<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HRPeopleStrategy/UKZN-Values.aspx>). The REACH principles is the bedrock of the organizational culture at the institution therefore embodying BOTH the values & practices inherent at the institution.

Regarding the focal point of the study, there has been frustration from academics in respect of the promotion criteria and the promotion process, hence contributing to the inability to advance to higher levels within the institution. Other areas of discontentment pertained to heavy workloads and work-life imbalance.

The organisational culture which involves performance standards and expectations, the organisational climate which is characterised by management styles (open, autocratic and so on), and communication patterns all have an impact on career plateauing. The way an organisation handles employee career mobility (either lateral-internal relocation, geographic move or termination impacts on the level of morale of all individuals and could possibly exacerbate the difficulty of preventing solid citizens to the level of deadwood (Slocum *et al.*, 1987). Poor selection processes highlighted by Tan and Salomone (1994) may also contribute to plateauing since poorly skilled employees with low potential may be appointed against capable employees.

### **2.10.1.6 Impact of the Economic Environment**

The consequences include situations such as an unstable economy or a merger or takeover, reshuffle, large scale rationalising or consolidations, which may leave an organisation dysfunctional and unable to provide a minimally conducive work habitat. There are less assurances for employees in such situations; therefore issues such as safety or mobility prospects commencing with their supervisors (or higher level management) are dismal or far-fetched (Allen *et al.*, 1999).

### **2.10.2 JOB-RELATED FACTORS**

Perceptions of own work environment employees are dealing with and tasks they are engaging with their jobs also influence the subjective career plateauing. Allen *et al.*, (1999), argued that top management, supervisory and peer support are paramount among the variables related with the working environment.

#### **2.10.2.1 Supervisory and Peer Support**

Social aid for training events and advancement has been recognised as a vital issue that refers to enabling a learning and development positioning among individuals. Allen, *et al.*, (1999) argue that perceived social support from the top management, supervisors, and peers can reinforce the importance and value of learning and development activities and thus foster a positive learning environment among employees, and ultimately, it could lead to a decrease in subjective career plateauing among the employees. Further, they suggest that support from others in the work environment may also help with the identification of aids to aid with precise difficulties and the clarification of career goals. Moreover, if employees do not believe that they have social support, they may be less likely to believe that they have the network essential for movement within the organisation (Allen, *et al.*, 1999).

Near, (1985) highlights the fact that uncooperative superiors may contribute to their plateaued subordinates' status or supervisors could develop uncooperativeness for learning that their dependents have become plateaued. Recommendations from the author suggest that managers should evade supervisors that are not providing assistance to avoid becoming plateaued. Since

superiors display genuine and expected power to a degree attained by not many, superiors can inspire the calibre of employees' work, as well as their outlooks regarding a job (Tan, 1994). Although supervisors are not openly responsible or halt career plateauing, their struggles can contribute to worker gratification and encourage career progression (Tan *et al.*, 1994). Near, (1984, 77) in a study found that un-plateaued managers had more conducive associations with their superiors and lengthy work terms than their equivalents.

#### **2.10.2.2 Training Opportunities**

The availability of training in the organisation also may be linked to managerial career plateauing. Feldman and Weitz (1988, 72) identified plateaued managers as having received same levels of training as fast-track managers. In criticising this aspect some authors pointed out participation in training activities does not capture an individual's interest in learning and development. This is because training activities may be mandatory or cover content already mastered by the employees. Furthermore, individuals may not be psychologically ready for training. This study hypothesised the lack of training opportunities as being positively related to career plateauing.

#### **2.10.2.3 Role Ambiguity**

Role ambiguity pertains to the worker's understanding of job requirements (Rousseau, 1988) or poor clarity related to anticipated performance, the approaches to be utilised to carry out the job, and the after effects of the duty (Graen, 1976). Many studies have concluded that employees often feel uncomfortable when they suffer from a lack of precise knowledge of the duties, responsibilities and goal and objectives of their job. Tremblay and Roger, (2004, 999) in their research identified that role vagueness diminishes gratification with the close supervisor, co-workers, remuneration, prospects for progression and with labour itself'. Employees' ambiguity with their parameters of authority regarding their accomplishment and the manner of their assessment, are not comfortable enough to make decisions (Rizzo *et al.*, 1970). This may reduce the efficiency of the employees. Literature on role ambiguity also emphasise that higher levels of role ambiguity lead to a decrease in the motivation of making an effort. In this sense, it is obvious that reducing role ambiguity may create more favourable outcomes for instance, higher motivation,

and increase in productivity. Fewer research has been done to comprehend the implication of role ambiguity towards career plateauing. Career plateau problems can be rectified through better performance assessments, mechanisms and more effective advice (Tremblay (2004) and Feldman (1989). In this study, role ambiguity was considered as the determinant of the managerial career plateauing.

#### **2.10.2.4 Performance Evaluation**

The performance evaluation system pursued by the organisation can block employees' promotional opportunities and make them plateau. Employees often believe that they have been in the same position due to the weaknesses of the performance evaluation system. "The association among career movement and performance assessment by the supervisor is not as simple as one would perceive (Tremblay *et al.*, 1993). Several studies indicated effective workers don't always get promotions, and promoted workers are not essentially the finest performers. Insufficient evidence indicates the effect of performances on plateauing. However, the performance evaluations research by Greenhaus, *et al.*, (1990) reflected performance presented an undeviating but highly inconsequential result on plateauing.

Regarding performance assessment at UKZN, there has been discontentment from some academics regarding their KPA "research" which does not incorporate productivity units from graduating Masters and Doctoral students. The "research" KPA only identifies productivity units from publications. This impacts negatively on the rating of the academic, if the academic has not published or if the article is still under review by the journal/publication house. This no doubt drastically reduces the incumbent's rating for that performance cycle.

#### **2.10.2.5 Compensation System**

Compensation systems are pivotal in growing employee motivation, performance and productivity (Milgrom and Roberts, 1992). Therefore, in today's context, most organisations are very anxious about creating and upholding the finest compensation system. The choice of a suitable compensation mechanism maybe the fundamental problem for human resource managers, and

represents a pivotal aspect of personnel economics (Garibaldi, 2006). In addition, the author argues that remuneration bundles must be aligned with profit maximisation from the firm's viewpoint, and should also provide employees with the reasons to fare as best as they possibly can.

Career plateau does not occur only due to organisational aspects. Some factors related with individual aspects may also lead to plateauing. At an individual level the employee's skills, abilities, needs, values are linked to his/her perceptions of being plateaued. In addition, intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics and rewards respectively are sources of plateauing.

In terms of personal orientation factors (psychological factors), Allen, *et al.*, (1999, 1117) found numerous psychological variables are linked to career plateauing. Aspects such as stress and burnout and slow organisational growth are also considered sources of plateauing (Weitz, 1988 cited in Cable, 1999). Tremblay and Rogers (1993) cited in Cable (1999) identified individual and familial factors which are linked to situations employees find themselves in due to lack of skills, determination, desire, or due to external limitations. In the study's context, personal orientation factors are resident in the university environment hence warranting a closer look at the variables contributing to the plateauing phenomenon.

### **2.10.3 Personal Orientation Factors (Psychological Factors)**

Personal orientation factors include employee's aspirations for advancement; motivation to learn; career exploration and planning and job involvement. These factors are discussed in detail below in the context of the study.

#### **2.10.3.1 Employees' Aspirations for Advancement**

The extent of employees' needs for advancement could also impact employees' vocation accomplishment. Research on career plateaus revealed that the influence of employees' vocation ambitions are not as simple as perceived, concedes Tremblay and Roger, (1993, 412). Interestingly, Near (1984) observed plateaued employees demonstrating a lower need for advancement than those who was un-plateaued. Pinder and Walter (1984) argue further that the

obvious or indirect admission of a lack of drive can reduce the chances for receiving promotion. In their study, employees' career exploration and planning activities and value of family responsibilities or leisure are taken into consideration together with more resemblance to executives' aspirations for advancement. Ference *et al.*, (1977) considers a personally plateaued employee to be in such a situation due to lack of technical skills, lack of career skills or lack of sufficient desire.

### **2.10.3.2 Motivation to Learn**

Motivation is defined by Allen *et al.*, (1999) and Noe and Wilk (1993) as an enthusiasm, desire or need for learning the content of training and development undertakings. Inspiration to learn was seen as having an affirmative association among growth accomplishments and a negative relationship with perceptions of plateauing. Furthermore, Noe and Wilk (1993) found that inspiration to study had a consistent, noteworthy, and affirmative effect on employees' development activities and in turn leads to more promotional opportunities. The authors suggested that given the positive developmental outcomes accrued by individuals with a high degree of enthusiasm to learn, it follows that enthusiasm to learn should be negatively connected to perceptions of career plateauing.

### **2.10.3.3 Career Exploration and Planning**

Vocation exploration relates to becoming aware of one's own work environment. One also becomes aware of one's own values, interests and talents, job options, requirements, opportunities and obstacles in the environment (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007). Those employees engaged in career exploration and career planning are more aware of their needs and the acquisition of the relevant skills to be successful. This will avert the plateau phenomenon. Chao's (1990) study reported a relationship between vocational planning and career exploration with subjective plateauing such that individuals who report engaging in more vocation planning and career exploration indicate they are least expected to be plateaued.

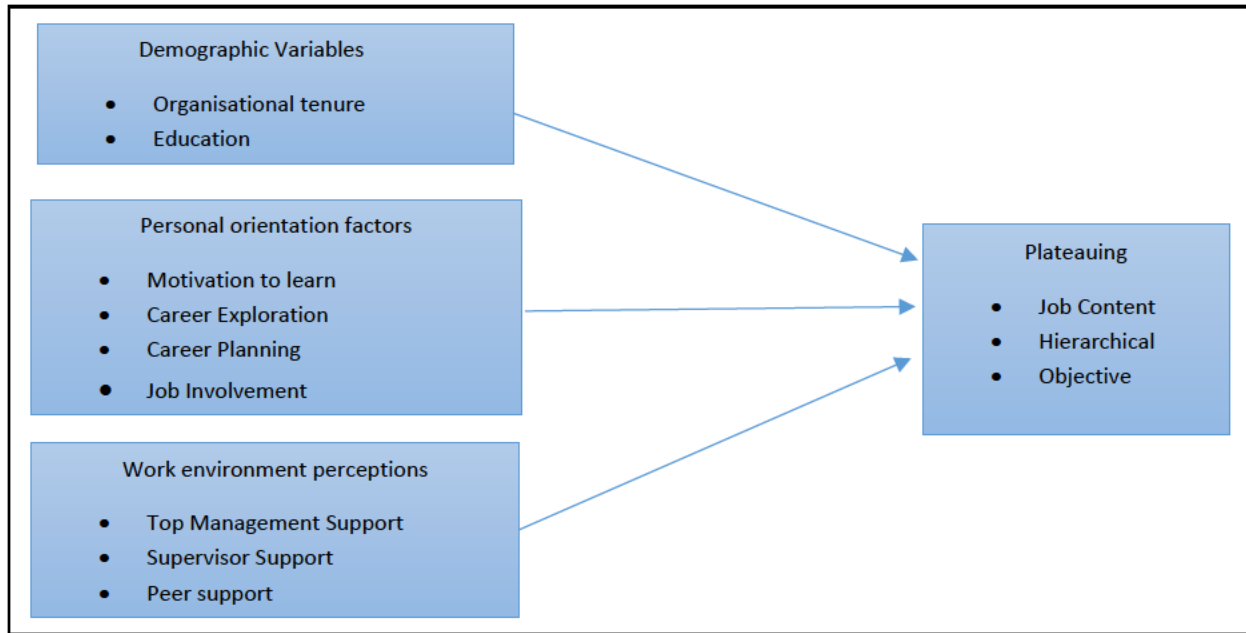
UKZN, as part of their transformation and equity redress policy, are populating junior ranks with developmental lecturers. Developmental lecturers are expected to complete their PhDs within a specified time after being hired by the university. During their tenure as developmental lecturers, developmental lecturers are given lower workloads, some or no supervision (based on their choice) and minimal administrative functions, as opposed to their counterparts, thereby allowing them to focus entirely on attaining their PhD.

#### **2.10.3.4 Job Involvement**

Job involvement is another individual level variable that has been related to career plateauing. Job involvement has been described by the way in which persons are recognized with their work. Generally, the accepted principle refers to individuals who are more involved with their vocations and view their work to be a primary aspect of their existence. Noe and Wilk (1993) contended that job involvement could be useful to trainees' motivation to improve work skills. Some authors argue that individuals who place greater importance on work-related activities (more job involved) may be less likely to feel job plateaued.

In addition to the above, Allen *et al.*, (1999), presented key determinants of plateauing. They categorised the determinants into three distinct areas: demographic variables, personal orientation factors and work environment perceptions. These key determinants may very well be evident in the university context. The determinants feature in Figure 2.6 that follows.

**FIGURE 2.6: DETERMINANTS OF CAREER PLATEAUIING**



Allen, Russel, Poteet and Dobbins (1999:1117)

## 2.11 CONSEQUENCES OF CAREER PLATEAUS

Numerous studies have reported negative and positive influences of career plateauing on labour outlooks. Plateauing has predominantly been associated negatively with career plateaus in terms of employee satisfaction; emotional obligation to the organisation; labour performance and emotional comfort (Chay *et al.*, 1995; Lamourex and Cardinal 1996; Lemire *et al.*, 1999; Tremblay *et al.*, 1995 cited in Lapalme *et al.*, 2009). Negative effects arise when an employee feels he or she has what it takes to get ahead, such as, the aptitude, expertise, knowledge and resourcefulness beyond the current position but from the organisational perspective, there are no available positions or doubts the employee's capability to advance the employee. A scenario such as this may lead to feelings such as psychological strain, frustration, discontent, intention to leave and non-attendance (Jung and Tak, 2008 and Near, 1984). Career plateau found significant links with lowered job performance (Lentz, 2004). Etttington, (1998) in her study focused on successful career plateauing despite a low likelihood of promotion of middle managers. Studies regarding low job fulfillment was carried out by Jung and Tak, (2008) and Lentz and Allen, (2009). A study

by Godschalk and Fender, (2015) highlighted issues such as internal and external issues associated to career plateauing and numerous relations of plateauing with consequence variables. Burke, (1989) in a comparative study examined the career plateau among police officers with 15 years of tenure or more who had been advancing as opposed to those who were not. Results of the study indicated plateaued police officers described a more undesirable work environment in addition to higher levels of stress. In addition, police officers were subjected to more work isolation, a reduced amount of job fulfillment and greater intent for employees to leave an organisation. Jung and Tak, (2008) examined the relationship between apparent career plateau to job consummation and organizational obligation and the diminishing effects of career inspiration and professed supervisor backing on the associations among supposed career plateau and the two dependent variables. The study yielded a noteworthy moderating part only on the association between professed career plateau and organizational commitment.

It follows to say that, perceived career plateaus adversely guides organizational commitment, but an undesirable influence of apparent career plateaus on organizational pledge becomes feebler if staff have elevated stages of vocation inspiration. Other studies focused on lower career satisfaction (Godschalk and Fender, 2015) and greater intentions to leave the organisation (Heilmann, Holt and Rilovick, 2008; Lentz, 2004; Hassan, Ismail and Jegak, 2007). Nwovuhoma and Malik, (2016) in their study wanted to identify the causes and influences of career plateau on teachers. Aspects such as essential talents, and capabilities to complete the work, absence of training, nonexistence of job ability, condensed organizational pyramids and limited promotional prospects contributed to plateauing. Near (1985) Evans and Gilbert (1984) have not found any significant differences in the general satisfaction levels of plateaued individuals (Tremblay *et al.*, 1995).

Despite the negativity associated with career plateauing, evidently such negativities may lead to optimistic employees. Investigators have initiated that some plateaued workers uphold the identical level of output, no boredom and are extremely contented with their occupations and the acquisition of new skills allows them to be more marketable elsewhere (Ongori and Agolla, 2009). Feldman and Weitz (1988) in their study recommend that employees adjust to reduced opportunities and a few may hope to plateau since they are unable to deal with the limitations and strain that continued advancement is associated with. Gunz (1989) cited in Lee (1999) view a

plateau as a useful, recovery and reflection period that provides an opportunity to regain rationale. Allen *et al.*, (1998) cited in Miles (2010) identified “double” plateaued employees as those most negatively plateaued, due to the lack of challenge and promotional opportunities which was confirmed by Bardwick (1987). McCleese and Eby (2006) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009) found work content plateaued employees described higher job fulfillment and organisational obligation if not hierarchically plateaued. Job satisfaction was higher in job plateaued employees if role ambiguity was low. Duffy (2000) identified non-plateaued employees as having higher life satisfaction and well-being than their counterparts.

Rotondo (1999) presented a series of emotion focused coping strategies which were negative in nature such as laying blame with the supervisor or the organisation, poor work quality or quantity and employee turnover in search of better prospects. Due to the negative effects of career plateaus the lifetime employment with a single organisation is rejected which invariably leads to financial and human loss to the organisation (Yamamoto (2006) cited in Choudhary, Ramzan and Riaz (2013). Lapalme *et al.*, (2009) in their study found structurally plateaued people less committed to the organisation and experienced more psychological distress. This is attributed to performance, contributions and abilities of employees not being recognised (Duffy, 2000).

The consequences of professional plateauing are elevated stress, conflicting roles, loss of esteem, the inability to quickly adjust to change, an absence of involvement in group work, poor job satisfaction, poor work performance (Choy *et al.*, 1998), high absence, turnover intentions and loss of organisational involvement (Tabarsa and Nazari, 2016). Those that are “stuck” at a point where their goal/s have not been realised may lose self-worthiness and encounter stress (Wang *et al.*, 2014) and burnout (Sorizehi *et al.*, 2013). The loss of one’s own confidence will invariably lead to turnover as an escape mechanism for the plateaued employee. Job content plateauing may lead to boredom, dissatisfaction, anguish and abstraction (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2013 cited in Wang *et al.*, 2014) which may lead to employee withdrawal (Allen *et al.*, 1998; Jung and Tak, 2008; Lentz and Allen, 2009; Tremblay *et al.*, 1995). Job stress is considered to be a major concern for organisations since workers may drain both the organisation and the economy (Elsass and Ralston, 1989). Yamamoto, (2006) cited in Choudhary, Ramzan and Riaz, (2013) view plateauing as a critical aspect which has negative effects on employee performance and the organisations efficiency.

An aspect worth emphasising is that organisational managers are quick to lower stress levels for valid reasons. Elevated levels of stress contribute to low output, high absences and turnover and employee problems such as abuse of alcohol, drugs, high blood pressure and a range of other circulatory disorders (Warnich *et al.*, 2015; Cable, 1999) and is characteristic of emotions such as anxiety, frustration, tension and depression (Ballout, 2008). Lemire *et al.*, (1999) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009) believe plateauing may contribute to counter-productive ways of thinking and behaviours hence resulting in bodily and emotional trauma. The volume of plateau anxiety experienced is influenced by predominantly on individual and organisational characteristics which result in stressful consequences (Weiner *et al.*, 1992). Even though not all scholars have initiated undesirable consequences related with plateauing, there is substantial confirmation demonstrating that plateauing is associated to unfavourable job outlooks and behaviours (Allen, *et al.*, 1998, 159). Mayasari (2008) cited in Nwovuhoma and Malik (2016) highlighted various and varied reasons for plateauing and outlined the effects as follows: leading to a depressive state, refusal of job involvement, low performance and work conflict, lack of job commitment, low job satisfaction and intention to quit. Further, as indicated in Greenhaus *et al.*, (2000: 223) and Chao (1990) argue that the overall implication of being plateaued may lead to anger, frustration, boredom, immobility, and less involvement and motivation. Other consequences worth noting include: lowered performance in the employee's respective department and overall in the organisation.

For an organisation, the consequences of plateauing can represent difficult management challenges. As indicated in Greenhaus. *et al.*, (2007), Benson, Rosen and Jerdee (1992) found five organisational consequences of plateauing, based on a study performed by means of questionnaire responses of six hundred human resources managers. According to the survey results, the five distinctive outcomes of career plateauing in order of prevalence include blocked advancement opportunities, lesser levels of confidence among colleagues and subordinates, poor productivity levels of the department or unit, damaged relationships with consumers, and elevated nonattendance. Chay *et al.*, 1995; Lemire *et al.*, 1999; Stout *et al.*, 1988; Tremblay *et al.*, 1995 ascertained no evidence of practices linked to career management such as career planning, poor support for growth, no opportunities for new roles and participation in new forums which elevated the perception of plateauing (Smith-Ruig, 2009).

According to Bardwick (1987), plateauing is a trap that stops staff from progress and employees are affected by the plateauing phenomenon over their work lives. Most people within about three years become skillful in one job and after that is subjected to monotonous and routine work. There are no new things to learning. In this situation the person feels helpless and considers his /her work less valuable and undesirable. In investigations and interviews with managers, results obtained indicate that plateauing is an important organisational difficulty and managers affected by plateauing have more stress and suffer from more diseases and present less on work and have less occupational satisfaction (James, 2005). People who have suffered from these complications, tend to change their jobs and feel mentally isolated from their jobs hence resulting in reduced productivity (Rezaian, 2006).

Feldman and Weitz, (1998), demarcated the source of plateaus, the impact of the phenomenon and interventions, which are highlighted below. They viewed the key sources as specific skills and know how, individuals' desires and standards, nonexistence of fundamental enthusiasm, absence of extrinsic incentives, tension and exhaustion and sluggish organisational progression.

Table 2.5 examines the sources, implications and managerial interventions of career plateauing.

**TABLE 2.5: SOURCES, IMPLICATIONS AND MANAGERIAL INTERVENTIONS OF CAREER PLATEAUNG**

Source of Career Plateaus	Impact of performance and attitudes	Managerial Interventions
I. <u>Individual skills and abilities selection</u> system deficiencies Lack of training Inaccurate perception of feedback	Poor performance Poor job attitudes	Redesign of selection system Improved training Improved performance appraisal and feedback systems
II. <u>Individual needs and values</u> Low growth need strength Career anchors of security and autonomy Self-imposed constraints	Solid performance Good job attitudes	Continue to reward, contingent on no downturn in performance Career information systems
III. <u>Lack of intrinsic motivation</u> Lack of skill variety Low task identity Low task significance	Minimally acceptable job performance Declining job attitudes	Combining tasks Forming natural work units Establishing client relationships Vertical loading Opening feedback channels
IV. <u>Lack of extrinsic rewards</u> Small raises, few promotions Inequities in rewards systems Un-contingent rewards	Poor performance Poor job attitudes	Redesign of compensation system Redesign of promotion policies Encourage highly dissatisfied to leave
V. <u>Stress and burnout</u> Interpersonal relationships on job Organisational climate Role conflict	Poor performance Poor job attitudes	Job rotation Preventive stress management Sabbaticals, off-site training
VI. <u>Slow organisational growth</u> External business conditions “Defender” corporate strategy Inaccurate personnel forecasts	Continued good performance in short-run Declining job attitudes	Provide “stars” with increased resources Provide poorer performers with incentives to leave or retire

Feldman and Weitz (1988:71)

Emerging from Table 2.5 in context to the study, regarding the sources of career plateaus, several interventions by UKZN can be identified. Regarding individual skills and abilities, interventions include modifying selection criteria, enhanced training and development initiatives and more detailed feedback during performance assessment from line managers regarding performance. In terms of individuals' needs and values, interventions evident in the institution include rewards such as performance bonuses and assistance with vocation information systems. Regarding the lack of intrinsic motivation, as a source of plateauing, UKZN aims on creating a transparent communication channel thereby creating an environment of trust and openness, that encourages establishing stakeholder relationships. In terms of the lack of extrinsic rewards as a source of plateauing, little has been done by the university in terms of redesigning the compensation system, and their promotional policies. In terms of stress and burnout, institutional strategies include support such as sabbaticals to progress with research and training and development interventions. In terms of slow organizational growth, support from the university include talent mapping, which identifies the "status" of the individual and guides them through the appropriate interventions within the institution.

People grow and develop in careers, however there are instances when people stagnate or decline. This results in negativity on productivity and creates elevated levels of stress for the individual. Stress is viewed as any mandate caused by bodily, mental or responsive factors that requires handling behaviour (Warnich *et al.*, 2015). Parker and Cotiis (1983, 161) defined stress as leading to personal dysfunction, and an undesirable brief psychological situation characterised by anxiety, tension or depression caused by prospects, limitations or strains associated with potential work results. Career plateau stress is underpinned by the following principles: the identification of the career plateau as a stressor to employees; coping strategies such as job changes, absenteeism, turnover, withdrawal and denial. The coping mechanism adopted by the individual will depend largely on organisational and personal variables at the individual's disposal, submits Elsass and Ralston, (1989).

Elsass and Ralston (1989, 38) examined how the career plateauing situation leads to job stress and developed the stress model based on three distinctive properties:

- An identification of a career plateau is viewed as a cause of pressure to many persons;

- Strategies to cope are devised by individuals due to career plateauing stress. These responses are viewed as behavioural responses (which include actions such as job change, the acquisition of new skills, elevated levels of absenteeism) or coherent responses, (such as rationalisation, moving away or renunciation of the plateau); and
- The individual and organisational variables inimitable to each person will adjust specific coping responses to the plateau.

Elsass and Ralston, (1989, 40) further examined the coping responses to stress associated with plateauing from the point of the organisation in terms of transition, reappraisal and defence and came up with the distinctive outcomes as illustrated in the Table 2.6 hereunder.

**TABLE 2.6: POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE COPING RESPONSES TO CAREER PLATEAU STRESS**

<b>Transition Reappraisal Defence</b>		
<b>TRANSITION</b>	<b>REAPPRAISAL</b>	<b>DEFENCE</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning new job skills</li> <li>• Lateral transfer</li> <li>• Participation in task force</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Acting as a mentor to younger employees</li> <li>• Find reward in task success rather than personal advancement</li> </ul>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leave the organisation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Blame the plateau on the organisation, feelings of alienation or powerlessness or hostility</li> <li>• Psychological withdrawal from the job</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Absenteeism</li> <li>• Alcohol, drugs</li> <li>• Poor work performance</li> </ul>

Elsass and Ralston (1989: 40)

The coping responses highlighted in Table 2.6 relates to the positive and undesirable impact of plateauing. Encouraging responses include the acquisition of new job skills, horizontal transfer, employee participation, mentoring to younger mentees, attaining fulfillment with task accomplishment instead of individual progress. Contrary responses include feelings of alienation, or ineffectiveness or resentment, spiritual withdrawal from the job, absenteeism, alcohol and drug dependence and notably poor work performance.

Numerous studies report plateaued employees displaying decreased gratification (Chao, 1990; Ettington, 1998). Findings relating to career plateauing and job satisfaction are varied. Even though a few investigators have described noteworthy transformations among plateaued and non-plateaued managers regarding job satisfaction and progression contentment (Veiga, 1981), other managers have testified non-relevant differences regarding job fulfillment (Near, 1984; Slocum *et al.*, 1985) and gratification with need fulfillment. Gerpott and Domsch (1987) reported that non-plateaued specialists had higher levels of satisfaction as opposed to plateaued colleagues. Nicholson (1993) also stated that executives who thought they were not advancing were more dissatisfied. Chay *et al.*, (1995) surveyed the relation among personal career plateauing and various plateauing outcomes revealing an adverse relationship between career plateauing and job fulfilment.

Robbins, (2005) defined institutional obligation as a feeling which a worker aligns with a specific company and its objectives, and desires to uphold affiliation in the organisation. He further compares and contrasts work immersion and company loyalty. Elevated occupation engrossment refers to recognising one's job, while elevated company alignment projects recognizing with one's company. A number of studies reflect hierarchically plateaued employees as having lower level of organisational obligation (Chao: 1990; Tremblay *et al.*, 1995). Davenport and Russel, (1994) found a relationship between job content plateauing and lower levels of organisational commitment. Research highlights that those who have experienced advancement are inclined to be more committed to the company than those who have not (Chao, 1990). Gerpott and Domsch, (1987) identified job involvement as more related to the organisational commitment and is assessed by the hours worked weekly and report an adverse relationship with career plateauing. Allen *et al.*, (1998) identified hierarchically and job content managers were less convoluted in their

work as opposed to hierarchically plateaued and non-plateaued managers. This study hypothesised that vocation plateauing is adversely associated to organisational obligation.

Regarding vocation plateauing and the aim to quit, Weiner, *et al.*, (1992) revealed through their study, that managers experiencing a plateau were more eager to exit the organisation for better prospects than their non-plateaued peers. Slocum, Cron and Yows, (1987) indicate that non-plateaued employees are more eager to exit the company or move geographically for promotional prospects than plateaued employees. Further, Slocum, Cron and Yows, (1987) reported higher levels of absenteeism than non-plateaued employees. Robbins, (2005) define turnover as the intended and unintentional perpetual retraction from a company. Intention to quit has been studied for decades, and there are many variables that enable/promote quitting. Fisher *et al.*, (2003) classified causes to quit into two categories: external and internal. Further, they describe **external factors** such as the employability and employees' perceptions of outside occupation prospects. Based on that, they concluded that the intention to quit is at a peak when unemployment is low, due to the presence of alternate employment opportunities which are readily available to job leavers. Regarding the impact of external factors on the university, academics are known to join other institutions of higher learning due to limited career progression and better remuneration, as highlighted by respondents in the study. Respondents did communicate that ex-colleagues eagerly joined neighbouring institutions for better pay and less stringent criteria for promotion. **Internal factors** are usually based on the employees' attitudes or perceptions pertaining to the current occupation. Job satisfaction and organisational pledge are usually significant predictors of a decision to quit, with leavers being less satisfied and less committed than stayers (Fisher, *et al.*, 2003, 755). As indicated in Fisher, *et al.*, (2003, 755), Griffith, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) argue that employees turnover occurs, if there is a belief that the organisation treats them inequitably; the existence of a poor strained relationship with one's manager; conflicting; unclear, or stressful job requirements; or through limited or no prospects for growth, expertise growth, and promotion. This proved that lacking promotional opportunities inside the organisation could lead to employees becoming plateaued and ultimately intend to quit from the undesirable organisational context. In terms of internal factors, respondents have indicated the lack of promotional and growth opportunities at the university have compelled colleagues to plateau or to leave the institution.

More often many scholars have scrutinized the link between career plateauing and worker productivity and job performances. Although there are conceivable behavioural insinuations of attaining a career plateau, the company's key worry is the individual's extent of productivity (Canazza, *et al.*, 1981).

Regarding the favourable consequences of career plateauing, most of the studies' findings have concluded that career plateauing often creates unfavourable outcomes both from the employees and employer perspectives. However, there are some career management literature that speak of favourable consequences of career plateauing scenarios. As indicated in Greenhaus *et al.*, (2000), Howard and Bray, (1988) conducted an extensive study of managers, and concluded that the absence of further promotional opportunities is not necessarily seen as a personal tragedy. "It was observed that many managers might not strongly desire further advancement because of possible geographic relocation and potential pressure and politics. This confirms that plateauing is not a negative aspect for all employees. Further, researchers have also concluded that the career plateau can be functional for individuals, both in a professional and a personal sense (Feldman, and Weitz, (1998). Further, Stout *et al.*, (1988, 86) argue that a levelling off period (as represented by a career plateau) can have a positive influence on individual development and personal growth. Because a career plateau allows one to acquire new skills, have and maintain a more stable private life, and can replace psychic energy. Confirming the positive outcome of career plateauing, Near, (1984) has also observed that most managers adjust to their career plateau without much trouble with pay identification, and career planning activities compared with non-plateaued individuals.

In order to curb career plateaus and offset the negative effects of this phenomenon, Human Resource professionals need to devise strategies proactively.

## **2.12 STRATEGIES TO ADDRESS PLATEAUIING**

Dealing with career plateauing has now become a critical issue for both plateaued employees and human resources practitioners. There are some alternative solutions that could be possibly pursued to reduce the unfavourable consequences of plateauing. Strategies allow companies to survive in this competitive era hence avoiding the loss of valuable human capital (Choudary *et al.*, 2013).

One has to first establish the type/s of plateaus that are prevalent in the organisation in order to devise strategies. Effective strategies aid in curbing the plateau issue in its infancy (Salami, 2010). Organisational intervention strategies should also be devised to deal with aspects such as structures, policies and activities (Leibowitz *et al.*, 1990). Action strategies should be demarcated for employees and managers alike, and follows hereunder in discussion in Table 2.7.

**TABLE 2.7 ACTION STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING CAREER PLATEAUS**

<p><b>For employees</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Develop special expertise.</li> <li>▪ Ask for specific feedback.</li> <li>▪ Increase visibility and reputation in the organisation.</li> <li>▪ Look for what's missing in your job and try to change it.</li> <li>▪ Seek training and skill upgrading.</li> <li>▪ Build networks in other departments and divisions.</li> <li>▪ Look for opportunities outside of work.</li> </ul> <p><b>For managers</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Redesign jobs to create more flexibility.</li> <li>▪ Encourage or recommend new ways of doing tasks.</li> <li>▪ Give people time to learn on the job.</li> <li>▪ Give candid feedback.</li> <li>▪ Provide opportunities for peer coaching.</li> <li>▪ Provide training and skill-upgrading opportunities.</li> <li>▪ Provide exposure for all your people, not merely for the stars.</li> <li>▪ Give non-monetary recognition.</li> <li>▪ Build strong networks across the organisation.</li> <li>▪ Make more use of project teams.</li> </ul> <p><b>For organisations</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Create generalists.</li> <li>▪ Pay for performance.</li> <li>▪ Base career paths on skill and mastery.</li> <li>▪ Set up job-rotation programmes to create lateral environment and broaden skills.</li> <li>▪ Work to change the organisational structure.</li> <li>▪ Provide sabbaticals.</li> <li>▪ Provide access and opportunity for mentoring.</li> <li>▪ Recognise employees for their experience and knowledge, not merely for time on the job.</li> <li>▪ Use line people as instructors in programmes.</li> <li>▪ Set up communication channels to ask plateaued employees what would motivate them.</li> </ul>
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Leibowitz, Kaye and Farren (1990: 32)

From the preceding model, Liebowitz *et al.*, (1990) highlights key action strategies for all stakeholders in the plateau process. Those stipulated below provide an effective means to deal with the plateau phenomenon. From the employee perspective, negative implications feature when employees discover their efforts, performance and abilities are no longer acknowledged by the organisation.

### **2.12.1 Individual Interventions**

An important vantage point for the employee is to understand the concept of plateauing (Appelbaum and Finestone, 1994) and identify strategies taken by the employee to normalise the state of affairs through engaging in strategies such as accepting the situation and concealing frustration and anger; decide to move laterally or to another organisation or decide on self-employment (Duffy, 2000). An encouraging stance by Rante and Feller (1985) cited in Duffy, 2000) states employees should be counselled about globalisation and its effects and more especially where “career advancement” is substituted with “career achievement”. Mechanisms such as therapy and placement services for those quitting the organisation should also be made available (Salami, 2010).

#### **2.12.1.1 Career Goal Reassessment**

Regarding additional vocation counseling populations, therapists need to aid plateaued customers to re-examine their prior vocation selections (comprising the equivalence of those selections with their value systems) and to tailor vocation strategies that integrate a variety of preferences and options” (Tan, *et al.*, 1994). Knowledge of the initial detection of plateauing can prepare employees and therapists to engage in proactive activities (for example, upskilling and expanding interests) and for “out of the box” strategies associated with vocational planning (Tremblay *et al.*, 1991; Lemire *et al.*, 1999; Tan and Salomone, 1994).

### **2.12.1.2 Refocused Learning Goals**

Counsellors provide assistance to plateaued employees to embrace and to internalise different types of incentives and acknowledgement. This might be predominantly significant once therapy employees with intense robust inspirations for advancement, when vocationally plateaued, might encounter reduced institutional participation and individual venture in the organisation. As indicated in Tan *et al.*, (1994), Bardwick (1987) suggested “a change in the worker’s inspiration for learning from the acknowledgement a person acquires from another person, to acquiring knowledge for oneself as a technique of propagating challenge and fulfilment in the present organisation”. A plateaued employee acts as a guide to heighten job contentment and labour variety and, unknowingly, to unearth a passion for teaching leading to other career options. Those undergoing transfers or promotions must communicate this when changes are anticipated. They need to delve into deep grounding, displaying high levels of competency at the outset and request to know the *fit* between the job and the firm’s general vocation strategies for them (Feldman, 1989).

### **2.12.1.3 Loss and Transition**

Therapeutic intercessions would comprise the occasion to handle through (a) the demise of one’s idealized vocation and personal objectives, (b) resentment regarding actual or apparent undesirable circumstances or guiding capabilities, and (c) uneasiness regarding potential advancement (Tan, et al., 1994). If an employee is thinking of switching careers, one has to analyse one’s current expertise, interests, know-how and enthusiasm to adapt. One has to examine their goals, values, and habits (Montgomery, 2002). One should let go of anything that one does not benefit from and communicate one’s needs, relates Bardwick, (1987). Non-work interests in personal and extra-curricular undertakings may need to be examined or re-examined for a more detailed definition of career plateau (Chao, 1990). What is significant to note here, is that people get caught up in their careers and those that plateau realise they were too caught up in their work and have lost out on other aspects of their lives. This leads significantly to self-discovery to establish potential objectives and morals in order to get in touch with other aspects of one’s life (Montgomery, 2002). Bardwick (1987) suggests revisiting one’s goals, values and habits and to rid oneself of any

liabilities, foster ongoing learning be it the job, individual development or official courses, prioritise relationships in one's personal life, find an activity outside one's working life to overcome disappointment or frustration and does not define oneself by a mere one role.

Taking into account Figure 2.6, in order to curb the plateau phenomenon, provisions were made by the university academics to develop their expertise through workshops for example, to enhance research writing skills, hence upskilling themselves. Through the performance management process, line managers and subordinates discussed their progress and/ stagnation before and after their rating. This is an instrument through which specific feedback is given to the employee. Research collaboration through research cohorts and "community of practices" within and outside disciplines helps to foster networking. Academics are also active in working with other institutions to collaborate on research and supervision, and the external examination of postgraduate students.

Academic Leaders and Deans and Heads of Schools at the university are proactively involved with initiatives such as supporting staff who are credentialing and pursuing their PhDs. This has helped academics tremendously in reaching finality with their doctorates through this support. Through performance feedback, many academics are alerted to the "no-go" zones by their leaders. This provides solid direction in terms of academics gaining ground in their academic endeavours. Academic leaders are pivotal in also providing mentoring and coaching to their subordinates, thereby providing a foundation for emerging and struggling academics, more especially in the field of research. However, it has also been noted in certain schools across the university, that there are people who prefer to work in silos. Emerging and struggling academics do receive support from their seniors despite their not performing at their optimum, for example, academics are not acquiring their productivity units (PUs) in a cycle. Praise and encouragement are also noted from some quarters, hence increasing the motivational levels of academics.

Organisational interventions enshrined by the university include amongst others, paying for performance, which is encompassed in the performance management agreement, whereby an incumbent attains a score of 4. Talent mapping is another intervention whereby the university identifies career pathing for individuals based on their performance. Provisions such as sabbaticals and mentoring opportunities by seasoned academics, are also evident in the institution.

Weiner *et al.*, (1992: 45) emphasised managerial and organisational strategies (Table 2.8) to effectively deal with career plateauing.

**TABLE 2.8: PROACTIVE AND REACTIVE STRATEGIES FOR CAREER PLATEAUNG**

	<i>Proactive</i>	<i>Reactive</i>
<i>Organisational</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Redesign the organisation</li> <li>– Change organisational climate through education</li> <li>– Change personnel policies</li> <li>– Plan for career and retirement</li> <li>– Develop job loading and cross training strategies</li> <li>– Observe and assess employee attitudes/opinions</li> <li>– Develop honest and equitable performance appraisal recognition and feedback</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Develop special projects, events</li> <li>– Offer awards, dinners</li> <li>– Present courses, seminars workshops (to include exercise/recreation programme)</li> <li>– Provide discharge/outplacement services</li> <li>– Develop recognition programmes</li> </ul>
<i>Managerial</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Present positive models of plateaued employee</li> <li>– Manage by walking around</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Provide counselling for the plateaued employee</li> <li>– Refer to Employee Assistance Programmes</li> </ul>

Weiner, Remer and Remer. (1992: 45)

From the illustration, it can be said that, in order to be at the forefront of challenges, organisations must work proactively towards hurdles that may threaten them at some point. They do not rely on reactive strategies to diffuse a situation. UKZN, in this regard, could benefit by providing proactive strategies from an organizational point of view by fostering a culture of organizational climate change through changing personnel policies, for example, the promotion policy, which academics

showed discontentment about. Furthermore, the institution should engage in career and retirement planning and assessing employee attitudes and opinions on a more regular basis.

Considering the above strategies highlighted by Weiner *et al.*, (1992) organisations and employees are in a position to respond (reactively) and ward off (proactively) the onset of career plateaus. Leibowitz *et al.*, (1990) and Allen *et al.*, (1995) cited in Van Der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) in addition contributes to strategies to avert this phenomenon. They sum up action strategies pertinent to the employee as follows: the need to develop expertise, the need to request for specific feedback, the need for the employee's increased prominence and standing in the organisation, identifying any exclusions in one's job and attempting to change it, obtaining development and upskilling, building linkages in other units and being on the lookout for other opportunities outside the organisation. Hall and Richter (1990), suggest employees must have a concern for basic values and have the freedom to act on these values, the need to focus on oneself, the need for autonomy, there should be less concern for advancement, one should focus on quality performance, entrepreneurship and together with the concern for work/home balance.

In addition to the positive strategies, several negative strategies which are emotion-based also exist (Rotondo, 1999). Elsass and Ralston (1989) utilised several such as blaming the organisation or the supervisor and or alcohol and drugs can also be used as an escape mechanism. Finally, if the employee reaches a point of saturation the employee may choose to exit the organisation in pursuit of better promotional opportunities. Although these are done to reduce their stress levels, these strategies are construed as significantly negative, and can have detrimental effects overall on the organisation and the employee.

### **2.12.2 Organisational Interventions**

Near, (1985); Slocum *et al.*, (1985) recognised education as probably the most advantageous option an organisation could make to educate employees pertaining to the prevalence and the implications of career plateauing. Ignoring the situation is of no value with the expectation of it going away, therefore, organisations need to be proactive handling the situation before it spirals out of control. Employees can use it as an opportunity to acquire recent competencies (Choy *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore, Near (1984, 78) believes the problem becomes clarified since an informed

worker is a solid barrier against fruitless plateauing. Leibowitz *et al.*, (1990), however, views this intervention as the most difficult due to the organisation's ability to adjust to change speedily.

Concomitantly, the implementation of a novel outlook of education and wide communiqué by workers concerning their standing and upcoming occupation ability would direct a meaning of self-assurance and enabling to the labour force" (Slocum, *et al.*, 1985). Tan and Salomone (1994) pointed out that open communications with employees should include information and guidance relating to the development of a second career and change in midlife career. Further, "such openness between organisational leaders and personnel can similarly counterbalance potential outlooks of betrayal concerning the organisation resultant from the need to make arrangements for alternative profession" (Tan *et al.*, 1994).

Education on employee plateauing is an initial move in dealing with career plateauing. Organisations should focus more on additional alternative strategies that could lead to effectively address the issue of managerial career plateauing. Tan, *et al.*, (1994) argue that organisational leaders need to take cognisance of advancement and its value in the current era. In this sense they suggest that provision of different types of incentives and identification for exceptional employee performance. In addition to the above organisationally sponsored coping strategies, Tan *et al.*, (1994); Salami, (2010) and Van Der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) in their studies suggested distinct interventions such as job restructuring; job enrichment programmes; work ventures; lateral transfers; temporary or permanent transfers and paid study leave. Through analysis and the composition of a job, redesigning workflow, clarifying roles and introducing career enrichment plans one is in a position to get rid of additional responsibilities hence reducing burnout (Sorizehi *et al.*, 2013). Some institutional interventions to assist with plateauing are already in place in the university under study. Job restructuring, has been conducted during and after the merger process between then "University of Natal" and the "University of Durban-Westville". Paid study leave is a benefit academics at the institution currently enjoy.

Tan *et al.*, (1994) explain those eager for an additional vocation should engage in planning to acquire and develop abilities to prepare psychologically for transition. This will provide training or ongoing educational opportunities to overcome being plateaued in the current position in organisation. "Some organisations may offer an early retirement plan for reducing the negative

repercussions of career plateauing. There might possibility be an enticement to undertake early departure or supported acquiescence packages obtainable to plateaued persons” (Tan *et al.*, 1994). This position is viewed as a traditional intervention (Bardwick, (1983). Viewing the traditional intervention, the university has over a period of time, more especially after the merger, offered severance packages, to staff eager to exit the institution. Several recipients of the severance packages voluntarily wanted to exit the institution due to low morale and not wanting to be part of the new *status quo*.

Currently, some organisations provide ongoing education exclusively in vocations. Connor and Fielden (1973) suggest it is cheaper for the organisation to pay for educational choices for a substitute career than to remunerate a large numbers of unproductive employees. There’s a possibility continuing education may not avoid plateauing, though it may help to prolong it. Educational interventions, are evident at the institution and academics are constantly prompted to undertake the courses for example, the University Induction Programmes (UEIP). There are four modules academics are compelled to pursue if they are at the lecturer-level or below. In addition, there are ample research assistance workshops, for example, the researcher has been the receipt of a research development grant in order to complete the doctoral project under study. Such grants are provided by the Department of Education to aid academics in completing their doctoral studies. Workshops and retreats are also provided by the university research office to aid emerging and established researchers. Numerous grant calls backed by the National Research Foundation (NRF) in partnership with the university are offered on a regular basis, hence there is ample support for academics to continue with their academic endeavours. Furthermore, the university offers concessions to employees if they wish to further their studies.

Other organisational interventions include challenging work; (McCall, 1994); management of assignments (Hall, 1985; Hall and Louis, 1988); employee participation (Bartunek and Louis, 1988); mentoring (Kram, 1985; Choundary *et al.*, 2013); and revamped personnel policies (Feldman, 1988). By establishing a noticeably demarcated personnel strategy, there is less weight on promotions and alternatives including organisational rituals, relief for conference attendance or to engage in research activities, public acknowledgements either verbally or through printed mediums, opportunities for employees to show off and taking charge through their expertise in leading a task force or conducting an organisational colloquium internally (Montgomery, 2002).

In terms of relief for conference attendance and research activities, these activities have intensified at the university under study. Productivity units are becoming a norm and a basic commodity at the university as it is globally. Mentoring is effective due to knowledge being passed on. Mentors such as teachers and instructors provide support economically and socially and increase the self-esteem of protégés (Choudary *et al.*, 2013). The development of formal mentoring programmes bolsters career motivation, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Salami, 2010). Mentoring is evident at the institution, with seniors in some instances, playing a pivotal role in steering less seasoned academics with the know-how and skill of establishing them as publishers. This provides direction to those academics who need to acquire the skills to publish. An excerpt from the research reiterates this: ".....they do not have mentors, they plateau at that level. If you had a mentor that could take you to the next step .....you can move to the next step"(AL7). Furthermore, engaging in more generalist work, would provide feedback, improved performance appraisal systems (Feldman, 1989), a closer sense of task uniqueness, variation, independence and more task worth which contributes to elevating the job (Appelbaum and Finnestone, 1994).

To grow managers, organisations can engage in lateral, cross-functional transfers, formalise and sanction slow growth, redesign jobs and offer training, introduce skill-based as opposed to position-based career paths, introduce more project-type jobs and make provision for timeous rotation of technical specialists (Appelbaum and Finestone, 1994; Van Der Westhuizen and Wessels, 2011). Job enlargement, job rotation and job enrichment make jobs interesting, provides variety and motivation since it uses a range of abilities and gives the job owner the responsibility to decide how the job is done (Choudary *et al.*, 2013).

Laying off of workers must be done compassionately and discretely by organisations, permitting the temporary use of facilities to find alternate jobs, provide substantial severance packages and outplacement services argues Feldman, (1989). Tan and Salomane (1994) on the other hand, recommend interventions such as learning and openness, alternative forms of work and incentive systems, alternate career prospects and inspiring continued learning and sabbaticals. Other strategies include vocational therapy, stress control, workshops, effective time management, relaxation strategies and workshops covering health (Ivancevich and De Frank, 1990 cited in Duffy, 2000). Incentive systems such as the paying for performance, motivating academics to undertake more training and development initiatives within the institution and sabbaticals to

pursue further study, for example, PhD completion, are initiatives which are readily and openly available at the university.

Montgomery (2002) recommends that the career plateau concern can affect all departments in the entire organisation including directors and supervisors. With everyone being actively and wholeheartedly involved, the individual is not left to handle the plateau situation on his or her own.

## **2.13 CONCLUSION**

The chapter focused on theorising career plateaus in terms of the context of career management in the milieu of tertiary education. The discussion is premised on the discipline of human resource management focusing on career development. However, the synergy to human resource development in the public service is alluded to, as a renewed focus on performance management is seen as a measure of encouraging productive employees, enhancing service delivery and contributing ultimately to good governance. Furthermore, the evolvement of work in a changing work environment and a comparison between traditional and boundary-less careers was explored. Three significant models were used to conceptualise the study which included: the Protean career, the occupation choice model, the vocation management model, together with the higher education scenario and the challenges facing academics in tertiary institutions including the duties and accountabilities of Heads of Departments which were discussed extensively. Career plateauing is a major challenge for HR professionals considering the *status quo*. It becomes the prerogative of both the employee and the organisation (more especially human resource professionals) to promote flexibility in terms of lateral movement and to motivate people to pull themselves out of plateauing in order to become more productive. Aspects covered in this chapter included an extensive coverage on the plateau construct, including typologies in relation to the types, sources, consequences and strategies to deal with the plateau trap.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **CAREER DEVELOPMENT INTERFACING CAREER STAGES**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In Chapter Three, the focus is on career stages which establishes the foundation of the literature summary. Other aspects in the chapter covers an overview of career development, career development models, life stages and the numerous career stages (growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline) and, significantly the practical implications of career stages.

Recently, there has been an amplified prominence on the need to link the country's skills to competitiveness and strategic positioning submits (Bratton and Gold, 2012). Semantically speaking, the field of human resource development (HRD) has established great strides in positioning the discourse as a vital function in that HRD as a sub-discipline of HRM currently exists separately and independently from HRM. HRD professionals are confidently presenting themselves as experts in the development of knowledge, skills, learning and change agents. These professionals utilise terms such as "training, development, or learning or development" (Bratton and Gold, 2012). Vocation growth can be considered by connecting careers junctures to stages during one's lifecycle. An outline of the career development terminology and its processes within the institution ensues.

#### **3.2 CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

Social cognitive career theory (SCCT) has been widely used to guide research about academic and career development. SCCT is grounded on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory (SCT), which offers a hypothetical outline to elucidate how human behavioural vicissitudes and resolutions are determined by individual and societal environmental influences. This is in addition to characteristics of one's personal behaviour. SCCT constructed upon Bandura's theory by highlighting the manner through which persons use human agency in the vocation growth process,

in addition to extra-personal influences that increase or constrain agency. SCCT was developed with the intention of providing a coalescing structure that incorporates common sections or components from numerous vocation philosophies. It endeavours to tackle the varied concerns pertaining to vocation growth and explain the dominant, robust procedure and instruments through which vocation and academic benefits advance, vocation-associated choices are fostered and endorsed, and performance results are attained, submits (Bounds, 2017).

In organizations, human resource managers are given authority by their stakeholders to develop and manage the career paths of employees. In order to achieve the objective, human resource managers often work together with line managers in the planning and designing of various types of career programs. This allows managers to attain an equilibrium amongst the vocation desires of individuals and the company's staff requirements, as well as fitting employees' interests and proficiencies with present and upcoming company innovations and transformations (Lips-Wiersma and Hall 2007; Antoniu 2010). Such initiatives help organizations to retain and motivate top talented employees; enhance engagement and productivity; strengthen the succession plan for talented people; enhance knowledge transmission and maintenance; populate internal talent and role gaps; and produce an encouraging employer reputation, suggests (Insala 2016). As a result, such initiatives may lead to maintaining and supporting company strategies and goals in a period of globalization and economic downturns (Ismail, Nowalid and Bakar. 2016).

It can be said, that the term career development depicts the term "career". The first unprejudiced fundamental feature of "career" can be explained as an arrangement of openly noticeable and definable employment-related situations, roles, proficiencies and undertakings met by an individual and the subjective part of a vocation is necessary for the psychological conceptualisation of the vocation (Koivisto, 2010). Making a constructive vocation preference and taking it up directs a person to individual development, gratification and societal amalgamation, maintains (Coetzee, 2015). Although the key emphasis is on careers, other aspects of an individual's life cannot be excluded (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007). Career development grows more salient among adolescents beginning in middle school and evolves throughout the lifecycle (Bound, 2017). It can be said that, those who have chosen their careers in their late adolescence and early adulthood are very clear regarding their employment and vocation penchants and progress towards them with greater intent, argues Coetzee, (2015).

Success and achievement are indicative of a person's career anchor (Schein, 1993) and of career patterns that follow (Brousseau, 1988). Accomplishment, triumph and success depends on an individual's career orientation (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007). Some individuals progress by being ingenious and inventive, yet some may favour solidity and balance. Trials and ongoing replication might be significant to an individual while crafting an equilibrium between work and life in general is key, submits (Vermeulen, 2015). Individuals possess unique ways in which their careers should develop. A model devised by Driver (1979), identified an individual's career pattern that was also utilized for career decisions.

There are several typologies of career patterns which includes a Linear career pattern, an Expert career pattern, a Spiral career pattern and a Transitory career pattern. Individuals associated with the Linear career pattern, opt to move swiftly up the hierarchy. This career pattern may however in the current era, may face dwindling opportunities for movement up the management ladder (Screuder and Coetzee, 2011). Top financial rewards such as high salaries, perks and incentive schemes characterises this career pattern, is the view held by (Van De Westhuizen, 2016). The Expert career pattern enshrines a choice of a career field and the intention of the individual to remain within it. This pattern is well known for recognized expertise in the field, hence the need for compelling individuals to upskill themselves continuously (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011). The Spiral career pattern involves cyclical changes in occupational fields every 5-7 years, in which growth and variety are sought (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007: 201). Employees in the Transitory career pattern opt to change their career fields every two to four years. This pattern has been referred to as a paradoxically "consistent pattern of inconsistency". The most desired rewards are immediate financial rewards, flexible working hours, job rotation and autonomy (Van De Westhuizen, 2016). Although arguments for the path-dependence perspective seem plausible, recent academic careers research provides evidence of a less-linear trajectory of mobility across academic workplaces. Both the lack of tenure track positions in research-intensive universities and factors rooted in the individual characteristics of academics, such as family commitments and the pursuit of new experiences, leads to higher diversity of workplaces (Ryazanova and Mcnamara, 2016).

The concept "career development" did not originate until the area of career psychology started connecting more tightly with developmental psychology, is the view put forward by (Super, 1957). Prior to this, career psychology was then regarded as a psychology of occupations instead of

careers and hinged mainly on the type of work done by an individual (Themba, 2010). Vocation improvement is defined as the amalgamation of psychological, physical, sociological, economic and educational factors that affects the entire academic life of an individual, concedes (Coetzee, 2015).

Ginzberg, Axelrad and Herma, (1951) cited in Coetzee, (2015) describes vocation expansion as a developing arrangement of achievement and a work-related choice for a person occurring over time. In the present-day realm of labour, career development is seen as a long-term procedure of growth of the worker taking into account employment and experience in one or more organisations. In the career development process, individuals advancement via a sequence of phases, each with a inimitable set of activities, development responsibilities and relationships (Saleem and Amin, 2013). Fundamentally, career development is viewed as compromising the formation and implementation of “self-concepts” in occupational contexts. The process is then viewed as an amalgamation of finding the middle ground amid the individual’s self-concepts and parts of realism such as social, economic and cultural factors (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007). Individuals view “self-concepts” as their personal characteristics. These self-concepts develop through interactions with the environment, wherein they develop their self-concepts in the various roles they play such as that of a student, worker, family or friend. These self-concepts may be different but not all of which are relevant to all work roles and some maybe positive while others viewed as negative. These self-concepts may change over time due to social, economic, cultural factors, occupations and technological change. Such changes influence the process of synthesis between the individual and reality (Super 1990 cited in Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007). Synthesis relates to role-playing which individuals play in childhood such as a teacher or nurse. This role-playing is functional and whether it was played in fantasy or in reality in a work or non-work setting, it could contribute to career adjustment. This ‘adjustment’ relates to the outcomes of behaviour in career development. Depending on the end-product, self-concepts maybe modified during this adjustment (Super, 1990).

It can be said, according to Super (1957), that career development is an aspect of a person’s development. Like other areas of developmental (such as social, emotional and cognitive development), career development emanates early in a person’s life and then commences along a curve until late in life. Considering this perspective, career development views a career as having

commenced and moulded before employment and extending into retirement as the pensioner seeks and finds things to do (Themba, 2010). It can also be viewed as significant learning and experience that is highlighted by a person's professional life, path, capabilities and endeavours through positions, occupations, undertakings and projects (Themba, Oosthuizen and Coetzee, 2012).

Career growth is classically seen as an arrangement of phases or situations whereby a person advances over a period with each stage characterised by exceptional conventional themes, concerns and responsibilities (Themba, 2010). Regarding vocation image, one can ascertain that the most common for all phases of vocation expansion is the supremacy of monetary objectives (Anatolievna and Evgenievna, 2016). Career development is influenced by a person's self-evaluation of their personal career development and different career stages followed by feelings that emanate as a result of these outlooks (Mikelsone *et al.*, 2014). It is submitted then, that career development is where individuals continue to advance their knowledge (Shawer, 2013). To this end, the association amidst higher education and the economy is long standing. Learning and teaching should therefore, allow individuals in a progressive civilization to contend with the finest in the world (Yorke, 2006). However, talent preservation is presently a global task across businesses, and particularly amidst academics at HEIs, is the concern put forward by (Robyn and Preez, 2013). Career development indicates configuration, upkeep and sustenance in enhancing the competencies and abilities of the workforce (Saleem and Amin, 2013), hence management anticipates that cash devoted to grow the subsequent cohort of workers will produce a profit on investment (Robyn and Preez, 2013). One of the main problems that academia faces today, is the economic problem of supply and demand, that is, the number of PhD candidates and post-doctoral candidates seeking permanent academic positions (supply) far exceeds the available academic positions (demand). As a result, competition has increased among aspiring graduates as they ascend to advance in the academic profession, concedes (Ramakrishnan, Giri and Mei, 2016).

Career development can also be defined as “a well thought-out, scheduled exertion comprised of operational happenings or developments which emanate in a joint profession maneuvering amid personnel and the business (Gilley, Egglund and Gilley, 2002: 59) cited in Van Der Westhuizen (2016). It can be viewed as the process of employee development in the path of occupations and experiences, which may occur in one or more organisations (Saharee, 2014).

In the current era of business volatility and competitiveness, all organisations should strive to create a work environment on the pillars of growth and development by introducing and creating a career development plan (Sahraee, 2014). A sound vocation expansion structure enhances organisations to breed their internal capacity for staffing and advancement drives hence enhancing and aligning employees' knowledge, skills and objectives with those of the organization (Saleem and Amin, 2013). The employer is in a strong position to achieve strategic accomplishments and employees can realise their own career goals (Vermeulen, 2015). From an company' view point, career expansion is viewed as a formal, continuous effort by the organization with the intention of focusing on development and enhancing the human resources of the organization whereby both the requirements of employees and the company are met (Themba *et al.*, 2102).

Career development provides a prospect of increasing critical abilities internal to the business, which are company specific, improving the standing of persons in occupations where their talents are attuned, be able to attract the appropriate calibre of individual and employee flexibility, thereby contributing to workplace adjustments. The career development programme should therefore create a link with the aims of the company and the needs of the employee (Sahraee, 2014). This therefore, works in tandem with distinct vocation scheduling and the organisation's vocation expansion structures (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011). Many organisations have failed to provide a conducive learning and development environment hence leaving employees demotivated thereby compelling organisations to constantly attract competent people to occupy their vacancies (Sahraee, 2014).

Organisations that invest in employees, expect citizenship as an affirmative interchange from workers (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005 cited in Saleem and Amin, 2013). Organisations that have not realised organisational goals are facing high employee turnover and exorbitant recruitment and selection costs (Sahraee, 2014). Career development is an effective method to retaining and enhancing staff and improving employees' career competency, submits (Kong, Cheung and Song, (2012) through continuous formal and informal learning activities to enable professionals to improve their practices and profession (Shawer and Alkahtani, 2013). Leadership support for vocation progress will intensify employee faith, job gratification and lower employee turnover (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

It stands to reason, that vocation progress is a continuing procedure in which people advance via a sequence of phases which are characterised by an array of concerns, themes or responsibilities (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007). Constructive feedback must be directed to assist employees to recognise their developing areas (Pienaar and Bester, 2008). The rationale of a development plan benefits the individual and the company jointly. The vocation development plan should therefore identify the updated goals and the desires of both the business and the employee thereby achieving strategic goals and employee's goals (Saharee, 2014).

There are many approaches to career development. The approaches view career development in five stages, with an overlap of career stages. Super (1953) used the notions of life periods in a preliminary life span approach to vocation expansion (Koivisto, 2010). The author viewed the exploration stage at about 14 years of age through to adolescence. The bulk of them share a number of common elements and a few differences. The approaches suggest that people move in an orderly sequence of stages, each presented with a set of challenges or tasks. In addition, each stage is associated with an estimated age factor, with variations in ages. Other aspects that observe an individual in their entire lifetime comprises exertion, family and self-development concerns all of which are interconnected.

These prospects for development inspires Generation Y personnel to persevere and attain their objectives as effectually as can be done. They expect in return, benefits, flexibility and compensation from their employers (Robyn and Du Preez, 2013). Owing to the absence of data pertaining to Generation Y academics in South Africa, there has been lost chances for progression and expansion. This has impacted on organizational productivity and recruitment in companies more especially, with the projected shortfall in tertiary education, argues Robyn and Du Preez, (2013). Generation Y persons aim to cultivate novel talents, are broad-minded intellectuals, remain in a position to synthesize data swiftly, stand willing to accept transformation and remain continuously on guard for different experiences and seeking new challenges (Robyn and Du Preez, 2013). Generation Y persons are driven by chances for one's own-growth and participate in training, learning and expansion initiatives, submits Henry, (2006) cited in Robyn and Du Preez, (2013).

### 3.2.1. Contextualising the National Development Plan, 2030

In contextualising the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 ([http://www.dac.gov.za/sites/default/files/NDP%202030%20-%20Our%20future%20-%20make%20it%20work\\_0.pdf](http://www.dac.gov.za/sites/default/files/NDP%202030%20-%20Our%20future%20-%20make%20it%20work_0.pdf)), emphasis is on promoting the need for research and development. With regard to Higher Education, the NDP 2030 stipulates that Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) must be engaged in continuous quality improvement, and the need for better performance. In so doing, HEIs would contribute to enhancing their strategic focus. Further to this, there is a need to ensure “simultaneous focus on research and development on the calibre of teaching and adequate human capacity, compelling universities to become centres of excellence at the “cutting edge” of technology. In raising the professional profile and cadre of academia, would in turn, provide an invaluable and quality service to the teaching and learning ambit, and the research agenda of higher education in South Africa.

Other benefits of career development includes, the ability of the employee to search and discover future career paths; managers can advance productivity, employee capability, workers’ work attitudes, and occupation gratification and allows for the timeous allocation of employees and the promotion of greater employee loyalty (Vermeulen, 2015). Employees feel the employer has consummated their part of the psychological contract (Saleem and Amin, 2013). The need for ongoing career development is warranted due to greater flexibility and versatile skills needed by employees (Vermeulen, 2015). Public universities can back academics’ vocation growth initiatives via confirmative governance, formation of prospects for planned learning, providing financial resources for vocation expansion programmes make provision for rewards to individuals who endeavour vocation growth. Such initiatives includes advancement upon accomplishment of development initiatives, allowing employees to study leave and organising mediums such as sessions, workshops and symposiums. Such initiatives allows them to disseminate new knowledge and inventions (Saleem and Amin, 2013: 197).

A person’s vocation development is a lifetime process that includes growth and change extending from childhood, formal schooling and continuous processes through a person’s adult working life and into retirement (Baer, Flexer, Luft and Simmons, 2008 cited in NQF and Career Advice Services). It follows then, that career development highlights two linked concepts; in the first

instance, it describes a process of moving through life, learning and work that individuals are undergoing with differing levels of mindfulness and support. The process is driven by the individual without any assistance from an organisation or professionally. In this instance, an individual's career develops invariably, be it through the ageing process, through the actions of others or through change. The basis of the association amongst the employer and the worker has evolved and there is no assurance for a worker's work life through vertical advancement. Employees have to therefore, adjust themselves to the protean career mindset of taking care of their own desires and capabilities (Saleem and Amin, 2013). Secondly, career development also describes the process of intervention in careers (Hooley, 2012). Most attempts to define Human Resource Development (HRD) arrive at two purposes. Firstly, it attempts to improve performance and secondly, to assist people to learn, develop and grow (Bratton and Gold, 2012). Nadler (1989) cited in Bratton and Gold (2012) defines HRD as orderly learning experiences undertaken by the employers, during a stipulated time to foster improved performance and personal growth.

Career development also referred to as professional development, relates to individuals advancing their competencies during their careers, and it is seen as a procedure of lifelong learning (Shawer and Alkahtani, 2013). Academic work and careers are inextricably conditioned by colleagues. To this end, the study of colleagues lends insight into the *social construction of status in academia*. If the primary goal of scholars is to advance knowledge, and if it is accomplished through peer review then colleagues are responsible for assessing the value of a scholar's work and career. One's status cannot be totally self-assumed in academia, as it is created and consolidated in an inter-subjective process, and ultimately defined by outside parties (Hermanowicz, 2016). Career development through interventions and training to inculcate professional behaviour in a desirable manner, has for some time being been seen as an organisational role, suggests Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe, (1994) cited in Shawer and Alkahtani, (2013).

Cocodia (2014) views career development as a process where an individual balances life, work and learning that happens over a person's lifetime. The vocation expansion process normally entails vocation assessments, involvement in vocation growth programmes, and at times psychometric testing. The career development process revolves around needs, interests and abilities of an individual.

### **3.2.2 Organisational Support for Career Development**

From an institution's opinion, career growth is a formalised ongoing progression through which the company aims to develop and enhance the organisation's human potential taking into account both the needs of the organisation and the employer, thereby ensuring that the Human Resources are equipped with essential skills and experience, hence reducing obsolescence (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011). Career development is a combined process amid the worker and the business. The HR or professional staff drive the process from the organisation in various ways. Career planning is pivotal to the process since an audit is conducted in respect of accessing work experiences, formal and advanced learning and attaining support from various sources (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

There has been much change recently in career development due to changes in the business environment. Due to the volatility of the markets, management is at liberty to modify tasks as they see fit (Schreuder and Theron, 2011). Organisations therefore, do not provide assurance to employees as previously in terms of the career paths. This can be attributed to environmental changes such as dense, unprecedented competition, technological acceleration and the dependence on speed, service and quality driven economies (Barunch, 1999 2002; Thite, 2001 cited in Schreuder and Theron, 2011). A sturdy vocation growth system allows organisations to breed their internal talent for staffing and advancement aims thereby ensuring the skills, knowledge and experiences are aligned to that of the organization. Organisations that fund employees, expect a return on investment from these employees. Leader buy-in for career expansion will escalate employee faith, levels of work consummation, reduce employee turnover and typically enhances leader performance (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

In a study by Felt, Fochler and Muller, (2012), the authors investigated how changes on the systemic level of academic research are intertwined with the conditions of living and working in research on the level of individual researchers. The authors found this instrumental relationship to the concerned institutions was grounded in their perceived failure to offer perspectives for long-term development or to adequately rewarding achievements in research. They were criticized for treating their staff as mere resources and were not seen as actors fostering or taking responsibility

in developing their junior staff's careers, but instead as negating their responsibility by delegating to the global market governed by the rationale of new public management.

### **3.2.3 Career Development in Higher Education**

With the growth of an international domain in tertiary education, universities are increasingly undergoing an unyielding neo-liberal offensive of corporatization, metrification, and managerialisation. It has frequently been perceived that this movement is parallel to apprehension, anguish, and dejection. These concerns are closely intertwined, and persons in certain clusters such as students, early career researchers, females, and Black and smaller ethnic persons are undertaking the pressure of competition in the globalizing market in tertiary education. Such anxiety is significantly exhibiting extensive discontent and disaffection (Maclean, 2016).

In the current war on talent, organisations are losing their most talented and skilled employees. In addition to profitability, institutions should focus on other interests such as, the attraction, development and retention of talent, which would yield return on investment by developing the next generation of academics, is the concerns raised by Robyn and Du Preez, (2013).

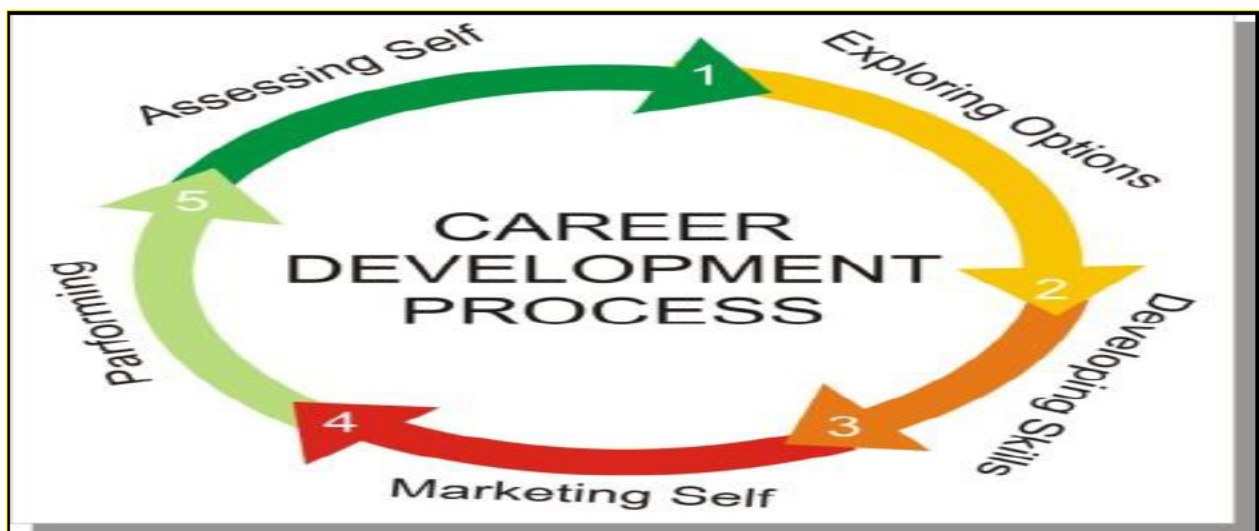
Currently, the core manpower in tertiary education institutions in South Africa are established and knowledgeable academics. Badat (2008) cited in Robyn and Du Preez (2013), estimates that 4000 academics (27%) will stop working and be substituted by 2018. For professors and associate professors, who include the higher competent and more proficient academics, the proportion increases to approximately 50%. Therefore, a younger generation of academics will need to be fortified to take accountability for stimulating enquiry and publishing to meet the knowledge criteria of the higher education sector institutions South Africa (Badat, 2008). If South African and international institutions of higher learning aim to succeed, maintain, cultivate and use their greatest assets as academics, while simultaneously promoting progress and their survival, explanations will have to be established for the vocation hindrances encountered by several academic personnel (Pienaar and Bester, 2009). Dr Diane Parker, Deputy Director-General for University Education in the Department of Higher Education and Training (April, 2016) concurs by highlighting several aspects in her article "THE TALE of two universities: Growing and transforming university education". The article highlighted the challenges in Higher Education

summits. A key challenge identified was the need to transform the professoriate and ensure that Black academic staff are developed and retained. In order to foster enquiry and teaching distinction, attention must be on retaining newly employed and developed academic staff. Holding onto academic staff should be a strategic priority due to their level of knowledge, skill and experience (Robyn and Du Preez, 2013). Pienaar and Bester (2009) highlighted that despite driving their own careers, the onus was on the institution to deliver more sustenance and support in vocational planning and development.

MacGregor (2015) in a study focusing on “50% higher education involvement in 50 years”, reflects on the need for a fundamental growth of higher education, in order to attain an enrolment ratio of 50% within 50 years and greater savings in investigation, employability, diversification, variation and harmonization. A dire need is to escalate investment in higher education to promote expansion, steadiness, foster and promote admittance and equity, recruit and preserve exceptional academics and follow pioneering research and extraordinary quality teaching.

Emanating from the preceding discussion, is a flow diagram reflecting the career development process.

**FIGURE 3.1: THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROCESS**



[https://www.google.co.za/search?q=levinson%27s+theory+diagrams&tbm=isch&imgil=cNExNeYQrxoDbM%253A%253Bj4m59\\_9ZuvVy0M%253Bhttp%25253A%25252F%25252Fwww.side-waysthoughts.com%25252Fblog%25252F2013%25252F06%25252Fwhere-are-you-in-your-career-cycle-supers-career-stages-and-levinsons-life-development-models](https://www.google.co.za/search?q=levinson%27s+theory+diagrams&tbm=isch&imgil=cNExNeYQrxoDbM%253A%253Bj4m59_9ZuvVy0M%253Bhttp%25253A%25252F%25252Fwww.side-waysthoughts.com%25252Fblog%25252F2013%25252F06%25252Fwhere-are-you-in-your-career-cycle-supers-career-stages-and-levinsons-life-development-models)

Theories describe where, when and for what purpose career counseling, career education and career guidance and other career interventions should be done. The process of the career development process emanates from four disciplines: Differential Psychology, personality, sociology and Development Psychology. Theory is a picture, an image, a description, a depiction of reality. It is not only reality itself. It is a way one can reason about some part of reality, so that one can understand it. Hereunder, the discussion of various career development theories follows.

### **3.3 THEORIES OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

Career development theories assists individuals to make logic of experiences and them in understanding the working sphere, including their part in it (Baig, 2012). Career development theory presents a conceptual model, which may help clarify distinct psychological needs, opportunities, problems and concerns of mature workers. Career development theory and research began with Super *et al.*, (1957) Career Pattern Study in 1951. Career development theory of recent has been beneficial as an indicator of changes in workers' satisfaction, goal and work-related patterns of achievement as individuals progress from entry-level positions to retirement (Smart, 1994).

Career growth is therefore a life time procedure, where students gain information and proficiencies about varied parts of study, jobs and the self, which assist them to concentrate on particular vocation, objectives, and lifestyle (Baig, 2012). Career development can be analysed by grouping the existing theories of career choice into two categories (Schreuder and Theron, 2006). The first category is "content theories, which highlights vocation choice regarding specific individual characteristics and encompasses the traditional differential approach to career psychology. The second category is "process theories", which conceptualizes vocation preference as a developing progression evolving over a person's life cycle. In comparison to the traditional differential perspective of career psychology, process theories view career decision-making and career

adjustment as behavioural processes which change with time, generally in the direction of greater complexities and specificity (Themba, 2010).

Career development theories of Hall (1985); Super (1975) and Levinson (1978) identified individual differences and reiterated the certainty of movement through career stages. The finality of career decline or disengagement is certain and Rosen and Jerdee, (1992) suggested in their study, the need to expand career development models to make provision for career renewals, redirections or phase-outs (pertaining to semi-retirement) instead of seeing a decline currently.

### **3.4 MODELS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

Career stage models are based on human developmental theories, which identify the modifications that persons goes through as they mature and acquire careers. Within this developmental phase, a person's career choice is seen as an unfolding progression instead of a once-off occurrence. As a result, career development models unfolding from this perspective, typically segments working life into stages as it attempts to specify the typical behaviour of the various career stage. This approach suggests the presence of variances in the work-aligned outlooks and intentions amidst persons in varied age categories (Themba, 2010).

There has been much criticism regarding career stage models in adopting a traditional and linear perspective of career development. With reference to this Baruch (2004) cited in Themba (2010), highlighted the characteristics of the modern career as multi-directional, dynamic and fluid, which is in direct comparison to the linear, static and rigid traditional career. Methodologies that are not inflexible in age and sequential in phases, and prototypes that integrate the effect of the environmental setting, appear to be more realistic in the contemporary world of work (Wise and Millard, 2005). Considering the rate at which careers are changing, career models assist personnel to take choices at what pace they wish to advance over career phases, and the point at which they re-enter their prior career phase (Saleem and Amin, 2013). In their study of individuals' experiences of voluntary career change, (Wise and Millard, 2005) found that the participants in the establishment phase, did not necessarily view the trajectory of their careers as a linear process, but as a multi-directional one. An additional criticism levelled against career stage models relates to the approach of demarcating career phases in respect of specific age categories. Adler and Aranya (1984) cited in Themba (2010) viewed chronological age as only a single constituent of

the career stage concept. These authors found in their study of accountants at the advanced career stages, that the accountants were not only older, but had been in the profession for a protracted era having accomplished advanced specialized and socio-economic standing than individuals who were at previous career stages.

There has been questions pertaining to the applicability of career stage models for women, since research showed a dominance on men (Ornstein and Isabella, 1993). Key differences exist between males and females in their career stages. Some models of career development, for instance, that of Super, focused on males' vocations as uninterrupted and develop after formal education leading to retirement. Men are exposed to less disruptions by family factors such as child bearing and child rearing, argues Ornstein and Isabella, (1993). Since this chapter focuses on career stages in an academic environment, the nature of the environment is kept in mind as it reflects both traditional, as well as contemporary views of career development. The academic environment is hierarchical and outlines clear career trajectories that academics need to follow when joining academia, hence young academics encounter vocations that exhibit features of the customary and hierarchical approach of vocation stage models.

It is submitted, that theories of career development depict persons advancing *via* a series of life and vocation phases (Hall, 1985; Levinson, 1978; Super, 1975). The authors professed that improvement and upkeep of organizational obligation differed across career stages, as depicted by age and attested by Kaur and Sandhu (2010). A key concern period is that around the age of 40, which Hall and Super view as an important juncture (Rosen and Jerdee, 1992). It is followed by sustained development and advancement for a few, preservation and career plateaus for others and a sense of uselessness inactivity and vocation deterioration for another complement of academics.

The career development models discussed in the chapter was on Erikson's (1963) Stage Theory, Levinson's and Associates (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee, 1978) Approach to Life Development, Havighurst's (1972) Theory and Schein's Career Anchors literacy works. Thereafter, a detailed discussion of Donald Super's (1957) Approach to Life Development Theory, which is most applicable to this study, was scrutinised. The career development models provide a platform for career stage models in the literature of career development.

### 3.4.1 Erikson's (1963) Approach to Life Development

One of the initial, best dynamic authors on life development, Erikson, suggested that individuals advance through eight stages of psychosocial development, as reflected in Figure 3.5.

**FIGURE 3.2: ERIKSON'S EIGHT STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT**



Themba, Oosthuizen and Coetzee, (2010: 58).

Each stage presents a type of crisis and considering the outcome of the stage, it affords the setting for possible development or halted development. For example, at the initial phase of development, the helpless child is completely reliant on others to be nurtured and to survive (Greenhaus, *et al.*, 2007). In terms of this model, an individual experiences a struggle between two opposing tendencies in each stage as part of these psychosocial crises (for example, trust *versus* mistrust or initiative *versus* guilt). It is important for the person to deal with these crises in progressing through the stages (Themba, 2010). Each phase is not different qualitatively, yet, it is disjointed with the preceding phase. Each new stage is viewed as a new level of structural integration that does not

recognize that the transition to a new stage may take numerous months or years (Wrightsmann, 1994).

### **3.4.2 Levinson, Darrow, Klein and McKee's Approach to Life Development**

Authors Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978) have made valuable contributions to the understanding of life development (Greenhaus, 2010), and identified the following life stages: early, middle and late adulthood found in Figure 3.2 (Themba, 2010). It is important to note that Levinson and his colleagues acknowledged that life is not standardized, and ages should not be used religiously to compartmentalize career stages. The model reflects a transition period between stages, which could be between three and six years. The transition is designed to provide some continuity among the eras by linking them to each other (Themba, 2010). Stable periods need not be tranquil, but they are stable due to people attempting to create a desirable life structure or lifestyle. Since no lifestyle remains the same over time, there is a need to reassess the established life structure, and to make modifications in segments of one's life, submits Greenhaus (2007).

Levinson's model is represented in Table 3.1.

**TABLE 3.1: LEVINSON’S ADULT DEVELOPMENT THEORY**

<b>LEVINSON’S SEASONS OF ADULTHOOD</b>		
<b>Age</b>	<b>Season (Phase)</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>
18–20 years	Early adult transition	Seeks independence by separating from family
21–27 years	Entrance into the adult world	Experiments with different careers and lifestyles
28–32 years	Transition	Makes lifestyle adjustments
33–39 years	Settling down	Experiences greater stability
45–65 years	Pay-off years	Is self-directed and engages in self-evaluation

(Data from Levinson, D. [1978]. *The seasons of a man’s life*. New York: Knopf.)

Levinson (1978:1)

The generalisability of Levinson’s model has been questioned, which the author supported by arguing in support of universal applicability since individuals pass through these eras and periods that have ruled human development in the last five or ten thousand years. The most enthralling is the role of sexual category in adult life development. Levinson has noted that some of these issues may not be similar, such as key aspects regarding the balancing of career progression with the responsibilities of motherhood (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007). Despite men being obsessed with achieving career success in early adulthood, Bardwick (1987), believes that women’s early adult transition is dominated by a balance for family, work and dual-career issues. For women in their 30s, concerns such as balancing multiple life roles and having children are common. There are numerous career patterns for women such as employment prior to motherhood, employment-motherhood-employment and motherhood-than employment and some may opt not to have

children. This bears testament of how different the adult lives of women are than those of men (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011).

### **3.4.3 Havighurst's (1972) Model of Developmental Tasks Across the Lifespan**

Havighurst (1972) influenced by Erikson's Stage Theory, outlined six age periods across the human lifespan and a series of developmental tasks lined to each of the six age periods, as reflected in Table 3.2. According to this theory, a "developmental task is one that arises around a specific era in one's life. This is teamed with successful accolades leading up to contentment and accomplishment with other jobs, while disaster leads to discontentment in the person, condemnation by the world and trouble with other jobs (Havighurst, 1972).

Following the above summary, the phases of Havighurst's model is presented in Table 3.2.

**TABLE 3.2: HAVIGHURST'S MODEL OF DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS ACROSS LIFESPAN**

<b>Havighurst's Developmental Stages and Tasks</b>	
<b>Developmental Stage</b>	<b>Developmental Task</b>
Infancy and Early Childhood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Eat solid foods</li> <li>Walk</li> <li>Talk</li> <li>Control elimination of wastes</li> <li>Relate emotionally to others</li> <li>Distinguish right from wrong through development of a conscience</li> <li>Learn sex differences and sexual modesty</li> <li>Achieve psychological stability</li> <li>Form simple concepts of social and physical reality</li> </ul>
Middle Childhood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Learn physical skills required for games</li> <li>Build healthy attitudes toward oneself</li> <li>Learn to socialize with peers</li> <li>Learn appropriate masculine or feminine role</li> <li>Gain basic reading, writing, and mathematical skills</li> <li>Develop concepts necessary for everyday living</li> <li>Formulate a conscience based on a value system</li> <li>Achieve personal independence</li> <li>Develop attitudes toward social groups and institutions</li> </ul>
Adolescence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Establish more mature relationships with same-age individuals of both sexes</li> <li>Achieve a masculine or feminine social role</li> <li>Accept own body</li> <li>Establish emotional independence from parents</li> <li>Achieve assurance of economic independence</li> <li>Prepare for an occupation</li> <li>Prepare for marriage and establishment of a family</li> <li>Acquire skills necessary to fulfill civic responsibilities</li> <li>Develop a set of values that guides behavior</li> </ul>
Early Adulthood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Select a partner</li> <li>Learn to live with a partner</li> <li>Start a family</li> <li>Manage a home</li> <li>Establish self in a career/occupation</li> <li>Assume civic responsibility</li> <li>Become a part of a social group</li> </ul>
Middle Adulthood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fulfill civic and social responsibilities</li> <li>Maintain an economic standard of living</li> <li>Assist adolescent children to become responsible, happy adults</li> <li>Relate to one's partner</li> <li>Adjust to physiological changes</li> <li>Adjust to aging parents</li> </ul>
Later Maturity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Adjust to physiological changes and alterations in health status</li> <li>Adjust to retirement and altered income</li> <li>Adjust to death of spouse</li> <li>Develop affiliation with one's age group</li> <li>Meet civic and social responsibilities</li> <li>Establish satisfactory living arrangements</li> </ul>

Havighurst (1972:1)

Another theory in career development and underpinning this study, is that of Super's Life theory. Super is viewed as one of the leading proponents in the theories of career development.

### **3.4.4 Super's Theory**

This research focuses on Super's five life-span and life-space theory of vocation development, hence the theory discussed in detail. Super and other theorists concur that variations take place in people as people mature (Baig, 2012). Super's model comprises five life and career development periods: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline. The career developmental tasks within the five main vocation phases provides direction in respect of how to reconstruct steadiness and uphold continuousness in a wider, indeterminate societal environment (Coetzee, 2015). The five key stages are seen as psycho-social undertakings of career enhancement that make up a mini-cycle around various transitions that individuals face in their lifespan.

The author developed his views on career development over a period of approximately forty years of research at Columbia University in a study "Career Pattern Study" where the theory of career development theory was born covering five life stages from childhood to old age (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011). Career development theory and research commenced with Super *et al.*, (1957) in the Career Pattern Study in 1951. Career development theory is useful since it can predict changes attributed to employee satisfaction, goals and patterns of attainment, as workers move through from entry stages to the retirement phase. These ideas were combined by Super (1957) into a four stage model of career development. Influenced by Havighurst's (1973) goal-direction and Buhler's theory of personality, Super directed the model on working life and sub-divided the career life cycle into four major stages (Smart, 1994). This theory is extensively recognised in vocation services occupations and is utilised by vocation counsellors, coaches and academics. The theory focuses on an extensive outlook on vocation development and concedes the number of portfolios undertaken by an individual over a period, the vocation developmental tasks and the evolvement of the vocation self-concept (Cook, 2015).

The key theme for career development after World War 11 was to focus less on the choice process and more on the career development process (Pryor and Bright, 2014). Super's life-span, life-space theory focuses on a person's fruition and development of a profession or job-related option in

addition to the growth of vocation self-concept through one’s life-time. Self-concept relates to conventional understandings and connotations individuals have around themselves. The vocation self-concept relates to the aspect of “self” pertaining to work or profession (Cook, 2015). Super (1957) proposed a career stage model comprising four stages: exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline (Sahraee, 2014). Super’s career development theory recognises five career or vocational stages such as growth (ages 4-13); exploration (ages 14-24); establishment (ages 25-44); maintenance (ages 45-65) and decline (over 65). Despite Super (1957) demarcating the career stages as chronological, the author also views the career as age-dependent and task-centred relative to career stages. It is significant to take heed that these stages pertain and relate not only to careers, but to all aspects of living and life (Super 1957 cited in Themba, 2010). Career development is seen as constituting the formation and implementation of self- concepts and factors impacting socially, economically and culturally. Individuals view self-concepts as their personal outlooks of particular features, which form over one’s collaboration with the situation. Some of these self-concepts may be related, but are not linked to all work and life roles. They could be positive or negative. Economic, social, occupational and technological factors change over time, and these changes as such, influence the process of “synthesis” between the individual and reality (Super, 1990).

Dependencies and shared associations amidst the expert scope and reserved life of a person is ideally highlighted by Super’s Rainbow Model of a career (Figure 3.7). Super’s Model does not consider the intense basis of diversity and variability of the environment and the individual (Januszkiewicz, 2015).

**TABLE 3.3: SUPER’S FIVE LIFE AND CAREER DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES**

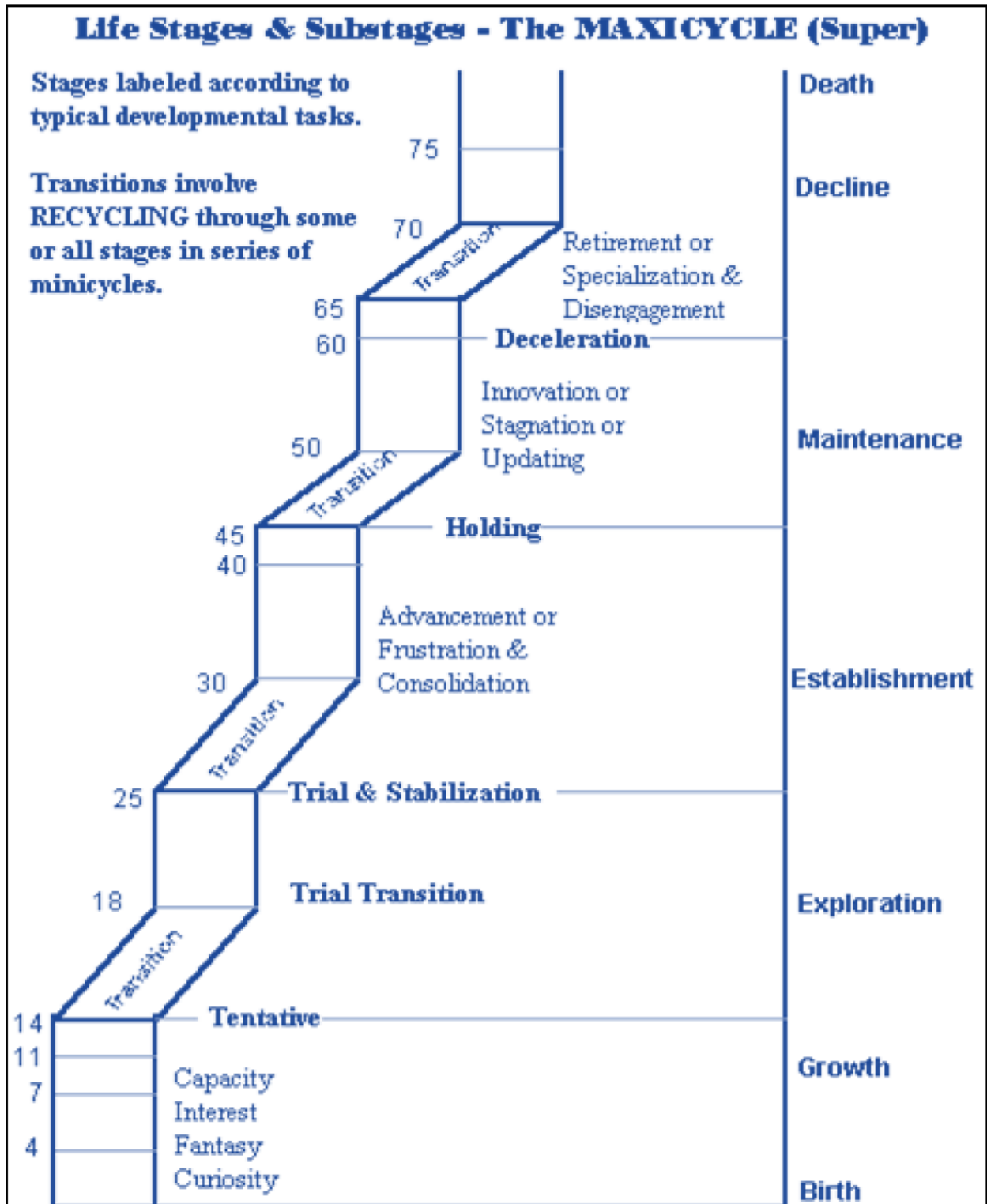
STAGE	AGE	CHARACTERISTICS
Growth	Birth -14	Development of self-concept, attitudes, needs, and general world of work.
Exploration	15 – 24	“Trying out” through classes, work hobbies. Tentative choice and skill development
Establishment	25 – 44	Entry-level skill building and stabilisation through work experience.
Maintenance	45 – 64	Continual adjustment process to improve position
Decline	65+	Reduced output, prepare for retirement

Januszkiewicz, (2015:178)

In the classic concept of a career by Super, a person progressively executes setting up responsibilities throughout ensuing stages of the life cycle (Table 3.3). Six elementary concepts for a vocation are identified as the concentration on choice of occupation, collecting information and scheduling, consistency in the career preferences, crystallisation of qualities, specialized impartiality and understanding of proficient choices (Januszkiewicz, 2015: 178). The sequential growth structure to maturity is attained in a lifespan, and is viewed as a culmination of experience, which determines professional success. This new approach however, must consider the fluctuations in the model of a vocation, where the grouping of career maturity is no more an evolving procedure conceded out in a single lifespan, but rather a process that is undertaken several times when deemed necessary or when present patterns become obsolete (Januszkiewicz, 2015).

A detailed breakdown of Super's Life stages and sub-stages, which is referred to as the "maxi-cycle" is exemplified in Figure 3.6 which follows.

FIGURE 3.3: SUPER'S LIFE STAGES AND SUB-STAGES – THE MAXI-CYCLE

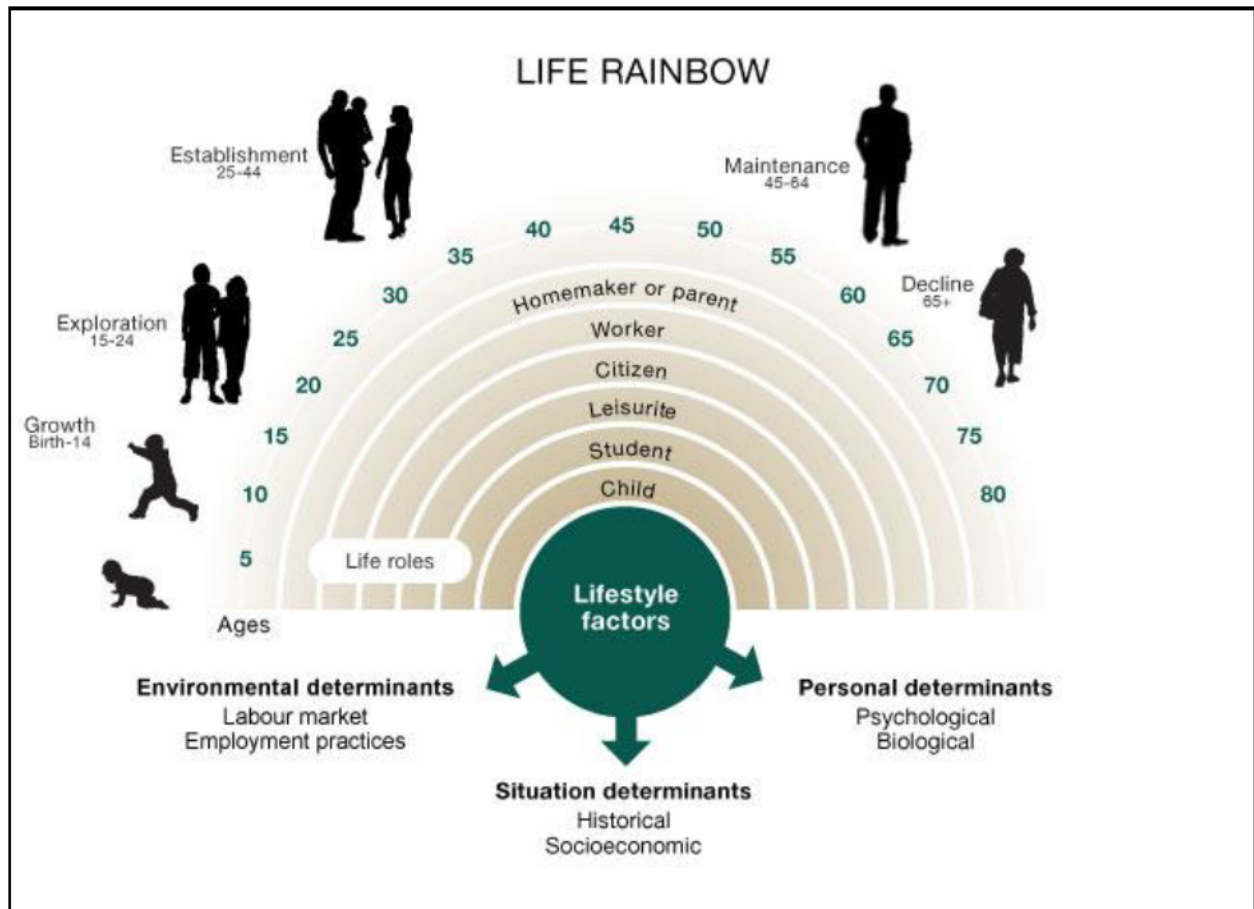


Super. (1957)

A new paradigm of a career has implications for permanent transitions, thereby removing the sequencing of development. The need for flexibility entices the individual to continuously modify the place and character of work in the quest to attain specialised accomplishment. There is therefore, no stabilisation phase, upkeep of a situation or lagging in skill attainment. This is no doubt a precondition for remaining in the labour marketplace, but one needs to remember that the propensity of sequencing in attaining specialised and individual objectives is lacking. Therefore, the expectation of a prolonged waiting period in a career defers the attainment of specialised accomplishments. Permitting attentiveness on additional features of life is becoming more improbable (Januskiewicz, 2015).

Super's life "rainbow" with a detailed discussion further highlights the various stages of an individual's life.

**FIGURE 3.4: SUPER’S LIFE RAINBOW**



Januszkiewicz, (2015: 177)

Super’s life “rainbow” emphasises the life span individuals have in their lifetime, namely: worker, citizen, retiree featuring in a sequential manner and these roles contribute to the ‘rainbow of experience’ (Salomone, 1996; Super, 1980; Super *et al.*, 1996). Super’s model of vocation factors sums up the effects in vocation development, and particularly, the individual and contextual elements that have an influence on the life vocation “rainbow” (Lew and De Bruin, 2006). Sterner (2012) cited in Smaliukiene *et al.*, (2013) analysed Super’s Life Career Rainbow (Figure 3.7), and concluded that there is a need for a wider take to career growth that explores life and career meaning over human life.

Most philosophies of psychological growth present a host of irrevocable alterations that trail a sequential development that is aligned to consecutive age. Super’s theory however, distances itself from this stance in two ways. In current literature, Super relied heavily on the concept pioneered in the 1950’s career stages, depicting a group of distinctive attitudes, motivations and behaviours

that occur sequentially (Salomone, 1996). Super (1990) argued that the spacing amidst career stages was attributed to a person's disposition and life situations instead of consecutive age. For example, while one may finish developmental tasks in the exploration stage and may remain in the same career during the course of their employed lifecycle. They may at a later juncture, progress *via* other stages just once, prior to retirement at 65. This is not the only developmental option. There could be decisions to progress further with higher education to move between different career opportunities and there could perhaps be a delay in career entry due to the responsibility of child rearing. Super's theory highlights that despite these challenges at varying times, it does not spontaneously make the job of career development any more challenging, or presents any implications for an unsuccessful outcome (Smart and Peterson, 1997).

Super's second exceptional forecast is a phase that does not have to be long-lasting to describe optimum growth. Several additional stage theories reflect that conversions are irreparable, and that only the uncommon and damaging situations of ill health, hurt or degeneration can yield reversion to earlier stages (Smart and Peterson, 1997: 359). The presence of instability in usual and prosperous developmental transformation is inherent in Super's notion of "recycling". Regarding the recycling concept, a portion of the usual development route may encompass a reoccurrence to stage concerns that were passed in the life stage. This could then promote own development and deal with high-tech or social transformation. Super reiterated that the exploration stage associated with mid-adolescence indicated it to be invalid. He observed vocation decision-making as an all-time procedure whereby individuals repeatedly endeavour to equate their constantly changing career goals to match reality. Other forces such as economic challenges, layoffs and technological advancement contribute to regressive recycling backward through career phases (Smart and Peterson, 1997). Several concerns with Super's four phases of career growth were measured by Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers and Jordaan (1988) ACCI, and is a recent account of a previous instrument known as the Career Development Inventory (CDI), which was established by Super *et al.*, (1981) (Smart and Peterson, 1977). Unlike other adult measures, the ACCI is based on the notion of adaptability rather than the notion of career maturity. The results clearly support Super's (1957) four stages of career development (Smart, 1994), theoretical approach to adult vocational development as a planned, ordered progression through a core set of psychological concerns.

Another important consideration of career adaptability as assessed by the ACCI, is the concept of “recycling through the stages as compared to the linear maturation model of adolescence” (Smart, 1994). With reference to Super *et al.*, (1988), the pioneers of the ACCI manual, the ACCI is an extent of outlooks considered necessary to career and vocational flexibility, as it is intended to evaluate planning and forethought in observing and discerning a person’s work and working life in advance (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers and Jordaan 1988: 5). The four-factor arrangement of the ACCI was examined in a sample of 457 employed Australians. Men and women made up the sample, and the purpose of the research was to generalise both the ACCI instrument and Super’s (1957) model to a distinct culture of working adults outside of North America (Smart, 1994).

Super (1957) classifies occupations into the following categories, which highlight age of entry and tenure: early-entry early-leaving occupations, early-entry normal-leaving occupations, early-entry late-leaving occupations, normal-entry early-leaving occupations, normal-entry normal-leaving occupations, normal-entry late-leaving occupations, late-entry early-leaving occupations, late-entry normal-leaving occupations, and finally late entry late-leaving occupations.

#### **3.4.4.1 Growth Stage (From Birth to 14)**

Children develop particular visions of their roles as adults in terms of autonomy, self-esteem and taking charge of their lives for the future (Van Der Westhuizen, 2011). The growth stage is the first stage of Super’s career stage model and consists of physical, psychological and social growth (Westhuizen, 2011). Individuals in this phase commence with developing self-concepts, abilities, outlooks and wellbeing. These attributes aid the individual to progress from play to work orientation, hence identifying and accepting the sphere of work and their likes and distastes, maintains Baig, (2012). The stages compromise of sub-stages: Fantasy, Interests and Capacity (Themba, 2010).

**3.4.4.1.1 Fantasy (4-10)** - child’s needs at this stage are key and role-playing in this phase is important. Fantasies about academia, researching or teaching, or maybe emanating from a parent already in the profession.

**3.4.4.1.2 Interests (11-12)** - child's preferences are regarded as major influences during this phase. As a child, an individual would reflect on their interests to research, investigate and teach.

**3.4.4.1.3 Capacity (13-14)** - competencies have a higher weighting and job requirements are considered. An individual's aptitude for a specific field, interest, career counselling and career workshops would be determinants for a career in academia. Growth stage consists of four key career developmental tasks: a concern for the future, growing individual control over a person's life, influencing him or herself to accomplish at school and at work and attaining competencies in work behaviours and outlooks (Themba, 2010).

**3.4.4.2 Exploration Stage (Ages 15 – 24)** - people gather specific and accurate information about themselves and the world (Baig, 2012). Characterised by a tentative phase in which choices are narrowed and not finalised (Coetzee, 2015). Super split the exploration stage into three periods identified with vocational developmental tasks. The first two developmental tasks of the phase – crystallising occupational penchants and postulating choice – attention on professional preference. After stipulating a vocation choice, the adolescent faces the third and ultimate choice of the exploration stage, applying a choice (Koivisto, 2010). This phase represents the crystallising of the socially recognised vocation through training and education (Cook, 2015).

Exploration hinges on mapping out and implementing a self-concept (Smart, 1994). Certain fields may be pursued as a result of inspiration or expectations of parents or other adults (Westhuizen, 2011). An early decision at a later stage, may result in the person not being able to cope with change since they are habituated to noticing a career as incorporating “an occupation” as opposed to dissimilar roles or directions, is the view held by (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007).

During the exploration phase, people try to recognize their interests and abilities through their classes, hobbies and work experience and gauge how they fit into certain occupations (Crites, 1976 cited in Themba, 2010).

From an academic perspective, when individuals are faced with the challenges of teaching, research, administration, community engagement (the pillars of academia), they start reflecting on the self-concept they formed during the childhood phase. In this context, the numerous sub-stages of the exploration stage namely: the Tentative stage, the Transition stage and the Trial stage are highlighted hereto.

#### **3.4.4.2.1 The Tentative Stage (Ages 15-17)**

This stage relates to needs, interests, capacities, values and opportunities. Tentative preferences are made and attempted in fantasy, dialogue, courses and work.

#### **3.4.4.2.2 The Transition Stage (Ages 18-21)**

This phase grasps reality as the young individual ventures into the world of work or specialized training and strives to introduce the self-concept.

#### **3.4.4.2.3 The Trial Stage (Age 22-24)**

Once the individual chooses a specified field, a first choice career is attained, thereafter and attempted.

#### **3.4.4.3 The Establishment Stage (Ages 25 – 44)**

The establishment phase relates to the late 20s and an era of stabilisation in the 30s and early 40s (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007). According to Super (1957, 1990; Super *et al.*, 1957) and Savickas (2002), the establishment phase includes three developmental tasks. The first is that of stabilising in a job (by actual work experience). Mastery of the job involves the achievement of an agreeable performance level in job projects and a reworking to the organisation's ethos (Koivisto, 2010). This phase involves stabilisation with the relevant tasks in terms of workplace orientation and effective job performance. It further includes consolidation of positive work attitudes and harmonious co-worker relationships and productive work habits and career advancement (Cook, 2015). The trial period characterises a few occupation modifications before an ultimate job decision is taken (Koivisto, 2010). During the stabilisation phase, security and advancement takes precedence. Failure to stabilise may lead to stagnation or the need to change. Some individuals thrive on change, hence exposing the individual to multiple trial periods. Super agrees that many, comprising those who find stabilisation or anticipate transformation, view early adulthood as the best years of their existence (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007). Individuals focus on different career choices and occupational interests (Baig, 2012). It has been found however in many instances, that

children of well-educated parents tend to be well educated themselves, and are employed at higher levels than children of people with a low level of education (Van der Westhuizen, 2011).

The trial phase at this stage is less tentative as the individual commits to an occupation and family duties. One needs to remember that commitment to academia is influenced by drive and enthusiasm for the profession including levels of flexibility.

Sub-stages of establishment include:

**3.4.4.3.1 Trial (Age 25 – 30)** - may turn out to be undesirable, resulting in more career changes. o leaving academia and pursuing a career administratively (for example as a School Manager) or opting for secondment (in management for example) in the institution or opting for a job in industry or civil service.

**3.4.4.3.2 Stabilisation (31 – 44)** – Employees are stabilised through the attainment of career goals (Smart, 1994). As the individual gains a concise picture of one’s career pattern, one stabilises and secures an avenue in the sphere of work. The phase is characterised by three developmental tasks such as stabilising one’s position in the organisation by aligning oneself to the organisation’s requirements and performing job duties aptly. The second task hinges on merging one’s position by displaying positive work attitudes and industrious habits with collegiality; and the third task aims to progress to new levels of responsibility (Themba, 2010).

What needs to be remembered though, is that circumstances may change to this linear traditional approach to career development since some people may become “de-established” due to illness and industrial change. Some may pursue new fields, therefore exposing themselves to a prolonged establishment phase. This career change is becoming more evident among people at this age. The exploration and establishment phases combined make up a course of vocation character creation through which adolescents and young adults grow progressively unwavering career self-concepts, interpreting them into communal job-related parts and fairly steady positions. A further flexible explanation of the life-stage approach developmental tasks of exploration and establishment stages can be agreed as vocation anxieties, which individuals may run into at any age (Koivisto, 2010).

Re-exploration and re-establishment happen throughout the conversions amid the dissimilar vocation periods (Super, 1980; 1990). These occurrences span over the ages 18, 40, 60 and 70. Over and beyond the re-exploration that occurs amid vocation stages, Super *et al.*, (1988) contends that a major transformation in an individual's arena of movement is becoming more and more prevalent. Throughout the recycling of periods, the individual may encounter the identical developmental responsibilities of each of the dissimilar phases, but in diverse forms (Lew and De Bruin, 2006).

#### **3.4.4.4 Maintenance Stage (Ages 45 – 64)**

Traditionally this phase is viewed as a phase of continual adjustment and characterises developmental tasks such as holding on, keeping up and innovating while planning for the final career stage, Decline (Smart, 1994). The individual aims to maintain what he/she has attained hence compelling them to update their competencies finding innovative and creative ways of working (Cook, 2015; Sverko, 2006 cited in Themba, 2007). They also have to face competition from younger people who are exposed to up-to-date training hence posing a threat to older workers (Van Der Westhuizen, 2011). For those that have not attained what they had set out to, this may lead to stagnation in the status quo, avoiding the attainment of any new skills and knowledge. For the others, they may focus on furthering their goals, for example, through continuing their education, while others may become innovators of change, similar to some people in the establishment phase (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007). It must be noted that the research by Super's career developmental stages are not identical as some studies found differences among Super's career stages on aspects such as organisational obligation, gratification, intent to leave, preparedness to reposition or yearning for advancement (Ornstein and Isabella, 1990 cited in Themba, 2010). Taking into account the Protean career, one should not presume that individuals may progress to the final stage. Individuals may explore new career opportunities and academia is no exception, with academics opting for positions in other institutions or superannuation within the same institution. In pre-retirement, individuals should be proactive in scanning the environment for new job and career opportunities. This also implies that an individual takes charge of one's career path instead of waiting for the organisation to plan one for them.

#### **3.4.4.5 Decline Stage (Age 65 onwards)**

This is the last stage of Super's model. This stage, according to some authors, is viewed as the least scrutinised stage, and is not often discussed (Themba, 2007). As individuals age they resent their physical and mental decline and the implications it poses for their future (Van Der Westhuizen, 2011). Frequently, due to wellbeing concerns, age, retirement, they start by finding other sources of gratification (Baig, 2012). Regarding the institution under study, the requisite age for retirement is that of 60. If academics have not been research productive they are not in a position to stay on or superannuate. Academics could be very seasoned academics in terms of lecturing but due to their lack of research activities, they would have to "exit" at the requisite age. Some academics may opt for superannuation due to their willingness to continue working. Cook (2015) reiterates this in the findings of her study. Depending on the situation on hand, retirement may present a sense of loss or could influence new choices (Schreuder and Coetzee, 2007).

The disengagement stage comprises the following sub-stages:-

##### **3.4.4.5.1 Deceleration (65-70)**

During this phase, the pace of work decreases, work duties and accountabilities are shifted and the work is aligned to the individual's decreasing physical and mental capabilities. Individuals in this phase may possibly secure part-time work to fill in the void of a full time one (Themba, 2007).

##### **3.4.4.5.2 Retirement (71 onwards)**

This sub-stage heralds the termination of all occupational activities. This may also differ from person to person based on their views and expectations of retirement. Some may welcome retirement whereas others may detest it (Themba, 2007).

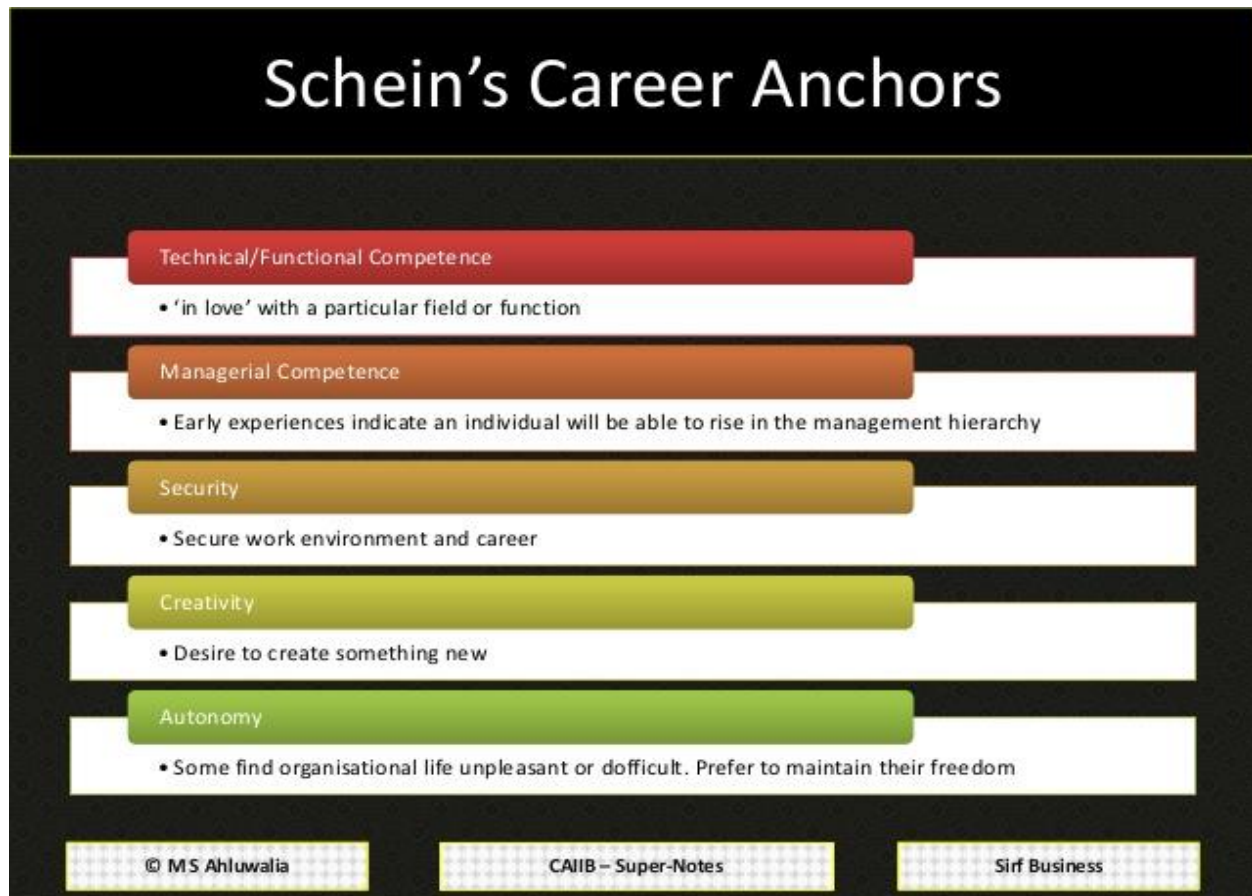
Although Super *et al.*, (1996), did not focus on retiree's effective adaptation to retirement past the three responsibilities during disengagement (deceleration, retirement and retirement living), certain studies have surveyed retirement changes and retirees' adjustment to retirement via volunteering (Cook, 2015).

Retirement in academia, particularly the institution under study, compels academics to be pensioned off at the age of 60. The general retirement age is 65. There has been much debate and talk in terms of reviewing the retirement age, however at the time of the write-up this thesis the status quo remains. Successful retirees in academic environments are secured as post-doctoral staff and are involved in research activities and supervision.

### **3.5 SCHEIN'S BASIC CAREER STAGES**

Schein (1993) assessed the effects of information on “career dynamics” in organisations. Various stages and sub-stages are presented. Three new career stages, namely service or dedication to a cause, pure challenge and life stages were added in Schein (1980) and (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005). This is depicted in the illustration that follows.

**FIGURE 3.5: SCHEIN'S CAREER ANCHOR**

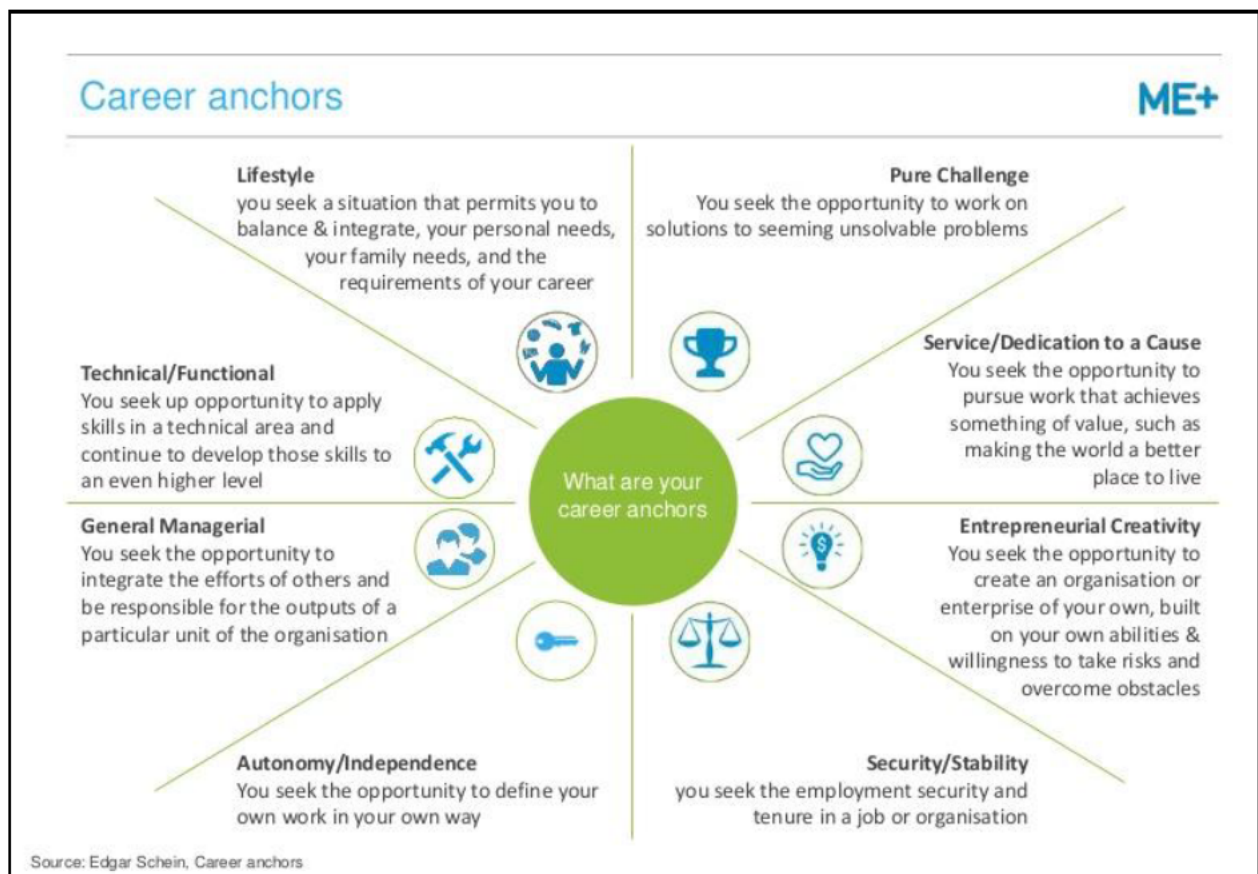


<https://www.slideshare.net/msahluwalia/caiib-super-notes-advanced-bank-management-module-c-human-resource-management-development-of-human-resource>

A further, detailed discussion ensues on Schein's career anchors.

Schein's model hinges on the foundation that some of a person's personality, skills and abilities are fixed while others can change to varying degrees. Individuals adjust themselves to situations they presented with, be it a new job, a new departmental move, show new attitudes, values, a new sense of self and different behavioural patterns to new situations (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005). The model also takes into account vertical and lateral career moves and structural boundaries of the organisation. Movement to departments or units and promotions may have an adverse impact, including social and political processes on careers.

**FIGURE 3.6: SCHEIN'S CAREER ANCHORS**



<https://www.google.co.za/search?q=schein%27s+career+anchors&oq=Schein%27s+&aqs=chrome.2.69i57j0l5.6068j0j7&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8>

Schein indicates that each individual's vocation anchor is his or her self-concept, aptitudes and capabilities, straightforward principles and a progressed sense of intentions and requirements since they relate to a vocation. It follows then that job anchors develop as one achieves job and life experiences and progresses through a series of stages.

Schein (1993) outlines various anchors:

- Autonomy;
- Security and stability;
- Technical-functional competence;
- General Management competence;

- Entrepreneurial Creativity;
- Service or dedication to a cause;
- Pure Challenge; and
- Life styles.

From the foregoing discussion, it can be said that the acknowledgement of a career anchor is a process of finding oneself. Individuals reaching a certain age may realise that their present career is no longer desirable. Other values, needs and motives may become important and individuals may prefer to include them in their career. Individuals have a better idea of their experience, competencies and needs and values which they will not give up. Becoming conscious of one's career anchor can have a profound influence on vocation choices and individual life. Employees' choices are more informed due to a better understanding and consciousness of their capacities, purposes and standards, that is their vocation anchors (Schreuder and Theron, 2001).

### **3.6 Human Resource Philosophy at UKZN**

The Executive Director of HR on UKZN's people strategy stated on the University webpage: "I am very pleased to introduce our People Strategy towards 2016. It demonstrates our acknowledgement of the value we place on our people, and our divulgence that people are the creators and shapers of our destiny - being a Premier University of African Scholarship. This strategy provides an overarching framework within which our people, processes, practices and policies, as well as human resources activities take place. It is intended to become an integral part of the way that we lead and review our success. This strategy provides clarity to our People Definition of Victory (DoV), which defines the experience, and emotions we will have when we have reached our destiny. This DoV is "United in Excellence" - it declares our confession that our destiny will be achieved when we are united in excellence. The path towards being The Premier University of African Scholarship is fulfilling to all committed stakeholders (<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HRPeopleStrategy/IntroductionPPLStragegy.aspx>).

In addition, the Director of Human Resource Development highlighted the University's People Strategy, which communicates the University's Employment Value Proposition (EVP), which is the value people and the University will receive for being employed at UKZN. Beyond this, People

Strategy outlines UKZN values, which describes what we stand for as an institution, as well as provides guideline for self-evaluation. These values are embodied in the institutional principles namely: collegiality, research-led and academic freedom.

To reiterate from an earlier discussion in the chapter, these values are respect, excellence, accountability, client orientation and honesty - represented as R.E.A.C.H. These values shall hold us together despite institutional and personal challenges, and embrace our rich diversity and continue to pursue destiny without any destruction. The strategy identifies key people challenges and provides solution by means of five (5) key people strategic objectives; as well as People Performance Index, which will enable us to conduct periodic Institutional Performance Review to determine the extent to which we are making progress towards being the Employer of Choice for staff (academic and administrative support) ([www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)). The strategic objectives provide a clear framework for delivering people practices within the University over the next five (5) years. The Human Resources Management Team will be responsible for ensuring that key HR objectives identified within this strategy are built into the HR Delivery Plan and integrated into Individual Performance Agreements. This strategy document provides the framework for making the very most of people. I look forward to continuing to work with you all to make the vision a reality” (<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HRPeopleStrategy/Purpose-of-HRD.aspx>).

### **3.6.1 UKZN’s Value Employment Proposition**

The mission of the University’s value proposition is stipulated as follows:

“This is the value or benefit an employee obtains through being employed at this University, and the value an organisation receives through this employment experience.

Our commitment to talent is:

- We recognise and reward excellence;
- We are an innovative, high performing research-led university;
- We are positioned for engaging, agile, achievement-oriented and committed talent and accelerated development programmes for emerging, aspiring academics; through graduate development programmes and scholarships; The New Generation Academics Programme and the Leadership and Equity Advancement Programme (LEAP).

- In addition, a stimulating and empowering environment conducive to career development and advancement for all employees and demonstration for respectful and competent leadership within all situations”, is displayed.

“The University’s strategic goal six (6) – to be an institution of choice led to the development of the People Strategy. This goal seeks to establish the University as an institution of choice that attracts and retains academic and support staff of the highest calibre. This is done by creating an intellectual environment that fosters and stimulates academic life, and a climate of organisational citizenship in which all staff recognise and understand their role in ensuring the success of the University. To this end, the six People Strategic Objectives were developed as follows:

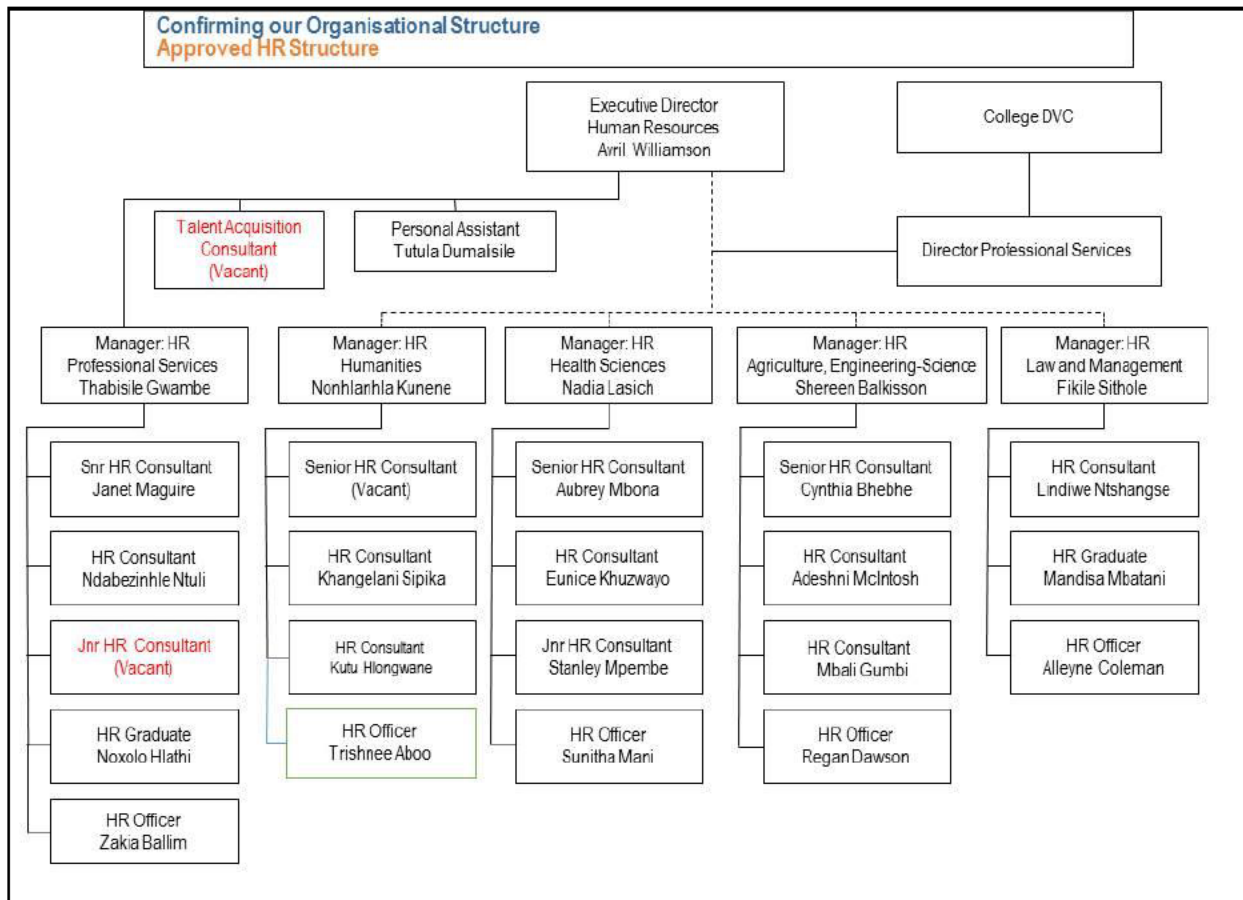
- **Create and Build Sustainable Performance Improvement Culture:** broaden participation of all stakeholders in the development and deployment of People Strategy - ownership is obtained from being active participants in the creation.
- **Ensure Leadership Excellence Beyond Compliance:** drives leadership and management excellence in people business; as well as ensure good governance and compliance through broader transformation and management.
- **Improve Total Reward Framework to Attract, Encourage and Recognise key Talent:** ensure alignment of employment value proposition attributes to reward philosophy.
- **Position Leadership and University Performance for Excellence:** to attract, and nurture a strong mix of high-calibre, motivated, research-responsive Talent Pool for the University; in order to maximize performance and efficiencies.
- **Technological Enhancement for People Processes:** create a platform and migration plan for Employee and Manager Self Services through systemic automation of Management Information”

<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HRPeopleStrategy/UKZN-Employment-Value-Proposition.aspx>).

These six strategic objectives play a pivotal role in contributing to the vision and mission of the University.

The organogram depicts the approved Human Resources structure at the university.

**FIGURE 3.7: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL – HR ORGANOGRAM**



<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HRPeopleStrategy/IntroductionPPLStragegy.aspx>

### 3.6.2 Career Development Support at the University

The HRD division have displayed their commitment to their constant support regarding career development at the institution. The researcher has accessed (from the website) the following dialogue from the HRD Director of UKZN.

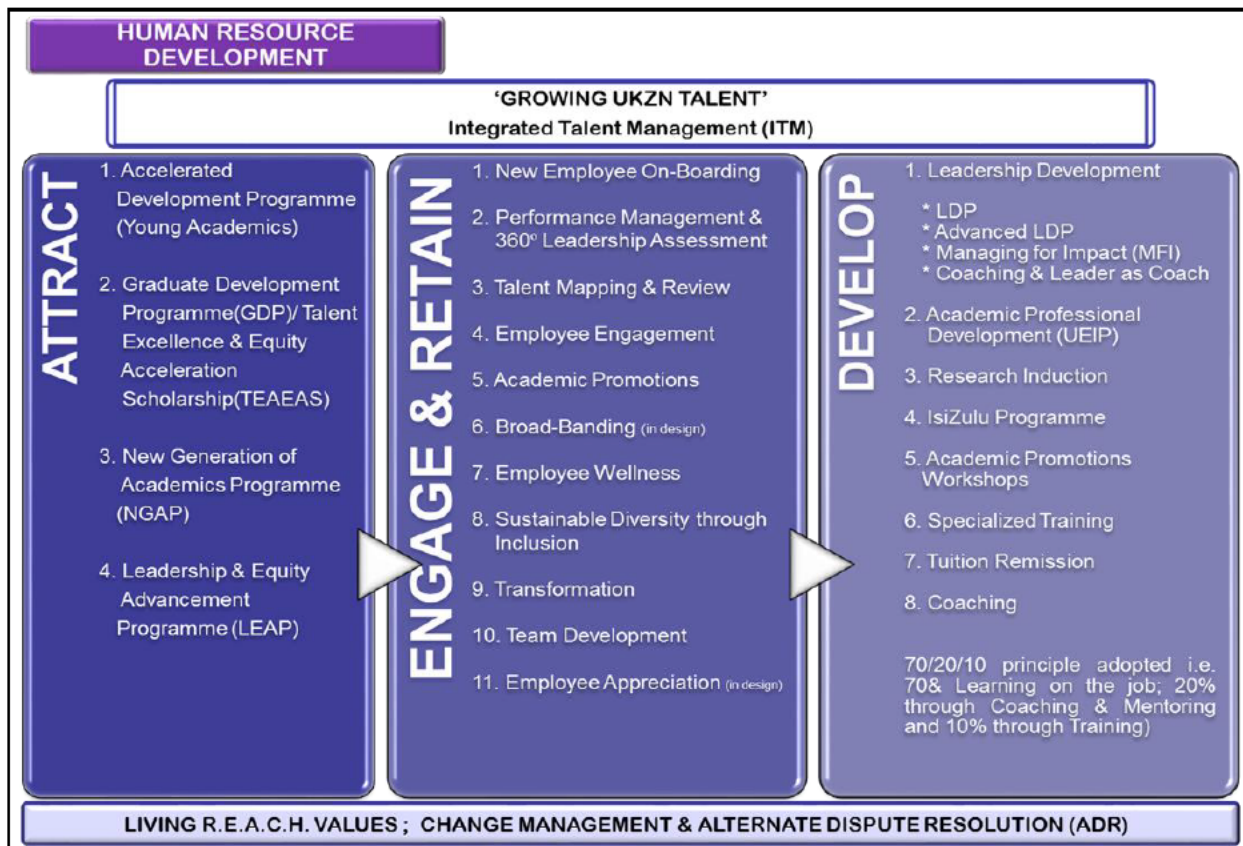
“The role of Human Resources Development is to enable the achievement of the University of KwaZulu-Natal strategy through targeted and effective programmes aimed at the development and performance of individual employees, and the institution as whole. HRD is a centre of excellence of HR Strategic and Organisational Development programmes aimed at positioning the University of KwaZulu-Natal as an Institution of Choice for employees. We constantly strive for excellence in all programmes and systems in the drive to achieve the HR People Strategy. HRD also plays an advisory and consultancy role to senior management that is, Executive members, Vice Chancellor, Deans and Directors in terms of people and organisational development processes.

The Human Resources Development Department drives programmes that are aimed at the **Attraction, Retention and Engagement** and **Development** of talent (of all employees). The programmes are delivered in three modes:

- 1) Through College/ Divisional HR;
- 2) Directly through HRD; and
- 3) Through collaboration with HR Rewards Services ([www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)).

The programmes determined by and through HRD are depicted in the next illustration:

**FIGURE 3.8: HRD PROGRAMMES**



<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HR-Development/humanresourcesdevelopment.aspx>

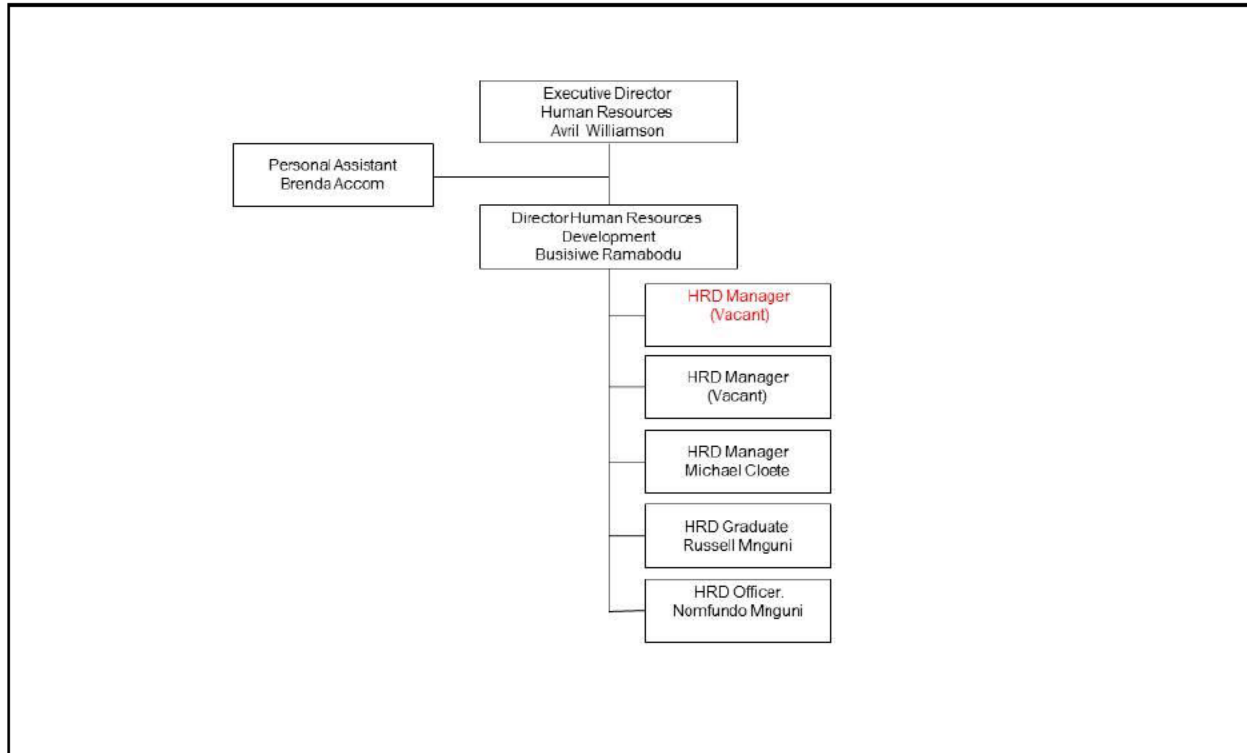
In terms of attraction, there are several instruments such as accelerated development programmes for emerging, aspiring academics; through graduate development programmes and scholarships; The New Generation Academics Programme and the Leadership and Equity Advancement Programme (LEAP) to expedite this process.

In terms of Retention and Engagement, several interventions are available such as On-boarding for new employees; The Performance Management Process; Talent Mapping; Employee Engagement; Academic Promotions; Broad-Banding; Employee Wellness; Diversity Initiatives; Transformation; Team Development and Employee Appreciation.

Regarding the development of talent, the 70/20/10 principle is utilised, whereby 70% identifies with learning; 20% with coaching and 10% with training. Talent development initiatives amongst

others, include leadership development; workshops and specialised training. The diagram introduces the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Human Resource Development organogram.

**FIGURE 3.9: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT ORGANOGRAM**



<http://hr.ukzn.ac.za/HR-Development/humanresourcesdevelopment.aspx>

The preceding discussion focused on the Human Resource Development organogram within the case study.

### 3.7 CAREER STAGES

According to Wrobel, Rsakin, Maranzano, Frankel and Beacom, 2003 cited in Themba (2010), the career stage construct evolved from the conceptualisation of the human lifespan by psychoanalysts (for example, such as Erikson, 1963), developmental psychologists, and sociologists who independently studied stages of life and work. Whilst developmental psychologists focused on phases of psychological growth, sociologists recognized eras of people's working lives, and a

combination of these two efforts led to the emergence in the literature of the construct of “career stages”. Careers are viewed as clarifying in a sequence of developmental periods, with every phase influenced by definite responsibilities (Themba, 2010). Career phases are anxious with the sphere of work and include occupation-associated behaviours through which individuals persevere to state, elucidate and satisfy their psychological make-up, wants and beliefs (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005). Career stages refer to the evolutionary phases of an individual’s working life (Themba, 2010). Throughout the career development process, personnel move through an arrangement of platforms, which is evident of a distinct set of activities, development responsibilities and relationships (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

The concentration in the career life sequence has heightened significantly over the last decade, in line with modifications in adults’ designs of working life and an increased concern with psychological development especially during middle and late adulthood (Smart, 1994). A pivotal research concern that relates to the adult development view is the possibly mystifying effects of career stage and age (Feldman, 1989). Research done by Smith-Ruig (2009), recognised that both males and females advanced over three age-linked stages in their vocations as justified by Levinson *et al.*, 1978) and Super (1957): early adulthood, middle adulthood and pre-retirement. The middle adulthood was characterised by an era of establishment and maintenance. In the establishment phase, members proceeded over a sequence of roles in any one organisation or numerous organisations. The career preoccupations emerging from the developmental tasks individuals encounter during different phases of the lifecycle likewise seem to be non-age associated and more erratic due to a further unpredictable work marketplace (Coetzee, 2015). These stages are characterised by a series of critical happenings and psychological alterations which individuals have to produce regardless of their profession or upbringing (Kaur and Sandhu, 2010). Flexible career plans and paths should be aligned with an employee’s changing needs during the different stages of an employee’s life. This flexibility is in keeping with the different roles employees take on in their lives (Sahraee, 2014).

Several studies conducted in higher education institutions (HEIs), associate career success with job satisfaction and motivation. These studies identified high levels of job satisfaction associated with intrinsic academic work and research activities and autonomy to plan and organise the work itself. Dissatisfaction or career barriers were related to poor working conditions, (for example,

financial restrictions, large student numbers, lack of support staff, and heavy administrative workloads) and workplace relationships, such as the deterioration of collegiality and peer competition and the loss of autonomy in choosing research topics due to market-driven HEIs (Santos, 2016). Pienaar and Bester (2009), in their study focused on determining, in accordance with academics, the part of institutions of higher learning in addressing numerous obstacles they faced in diverse chapters of their vocations. The obstacles outlined included: monetary compensation, job overload, better advancement prospects and performance management system, more frequent and relevant training and development in the areas of teaching and research methodology. In order to lessen strain on overload, research modelled a maintainable academic vocation, promoting time management as a reason related with academic sustainability. Then, by applying Just-in-time manufacturing research to academic pedagogy, a Just in Time Teaching Approach (JITTA) intended to increase faculty associates teaching efficiency while increasing the time for research and service responsibilities. Businesses have used the just-in-time approach to manufacturing for years, but faculty members can also apply the just-in-time tactic to teaching by arranging for lectures closely prior to the lecture. Arranging only for lecture delivery releases opportunity for the faculty associate to dedicate time to research and other undertakings. The spin-offs of JITTA entails avoiding repetition of preparation, novel lecture material to be distributed, and amplified spontaneity in the lecture hall (Marley and Metrejean, 2016).

The job description of academics could be broadly separated into three; teaching, research and community engagement. Embedded in these job responsibilities are lecture preparation, reading and marking of assignment, term papers and examination scripts of hundreds of students, project supervision, publication of research works, consultancy, editorial works, involvement in administration at various levels of academia to mention just a few. It is interesting to note that most of these tasks are difficult to accomplish within the perimeter of work hours. Hence, they are often extended into family hours and even late at night causing strain to the individual and family relationship. If it could be that strained among academics in general, it could be imagined how difficult it would be for women academics in dual earnings who are saddled with more domestic and maternal responsibilities (Akanbi, 2016).

Different career stages present concerns, motivations and characteristics at each stage and how these have an impact on their job related characteristics (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005). The

establishment, management and disengagement stages afford continuing, and frequently unanticipated, career reworking encounters to the career development and welfare of persons (Coetzee, 2015). There is unclear agreement amid scientists regarding how career stages should be defined or operationalised. However, generally, the total period of work experience has been observed as a realistic and unbiased gauge of career stage for majority personnel (Lam, Ng and Feldman, 2012).

A career stage defines output of the work at a common possibility of influence and responsibility, such as admission level, intermediary professional. Inflexions or “modifications” along a vocation path that distinguish one career stage from the other by noticeable variances in scope, influence, and complexity and so on (Olesen, White and Lemmer, 2007: 32). A career stage influences job attitudes, job satisfaction, perceptions of corporate culture and the job performance of an employee. It is imperative for managers to understand the different stages in order to provide support so employees can attain personal and organisational goals. Adequate and relevant career development programmes should be aligned to the respective career stages (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005).

Research endorsed that a worker’s current career phase has an effect on the employee’s outlooks, behaviours and wants (Saleem and Amin, 2013). For instance, a salesperson at the exploration stage, may opt for promotion instead of maintaining the same position in other stages of his career (Slocum and Cron, 1985). During an individual’s lifecycle persons go through foreseeable stages or periods and occupations. Each life or career stage is shaped by circumstances which need to be dealt with. Each phase of the career is categorised by happenings, developmental accountabilities and associations (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

Super (1957, 1984) cited in Kaur and Sandhu (2010), projected a philosophy that individuals progress through precise career junctures in their life time. They encounter a procedure of transformation which may be summarised as in a series of life periods as exploration, establishment (early career), maintenance (mid-career) and disengagement (late career) (Stead and Watson, 1999; Lam *et al.*, 2012). The timing of changes among profession phases was more a purpose of a person’s character and life situations than of sequential age (Super, 1990) cited in Smart and Peterson (1997).

Career stages pertain to the world of work and involves work connected behaviours that explain, simplify or satisfy their emotional make-up, requirements and morals (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005). Research by Saleem and Amin, (2013) endorsed that a worker's existing career stage has an effect on their approaches, behaviours and wishes. These phases are identified by numerous critical events and changes which individuals are exposed to despite their occupation. A study by Basak and Ghosh (2014), on exploring the relationship between personality and career stage at different groups of school teachers in Kolkata India revealed, honesty about change, cordiality and scrupulousness are meaningfully and clearly associated across career stages while neuroticism is adversely related and meaningfully associated with reappraisal and disengagement periods and extroversion is absolutely and meaningfully linked with stabilisation and disengagement periods. Kaur and Sandhu (2010) in their study on career stage influence on organisational loyalty in the Indian Banking Industry, highlighted noteworthy dissimilarities in organisational commitment across vocation phases of personnel when career stages were categorised on the foundation of consecutive age but insignificant change in any measurement of organisational commitment has been identified amongst participants in early career stage (up to 2 years of experience) and employees in mid-career stage (3-10 years of experience). Coetzee's (2015) research on employees' psychosocial career concerns regarding their on-the-job commitment, yielded that workers' career establishment preoccupations were more likely to definitely impact on their commitment to the current organisational work and vocation.

Research has established dissimilar forms of associations among organisational commitment and age (Cohen, 1993; Morow and McElroy, 1987; Sarros, 2000) and organisational commitment and occupancy across career stages. Readings have also reflected that employees' work outlooks vary through career stages (Allen and Meyer, 1993; Cohen, 1993; Cron and Slocum, 1986).

Super's (1984) theory of self-concept indicates a person's individuality development is lasting, rather than early career (Smith- Ruig, 2009). There are many authors who have contributed to career stages, birth to death stage, (Erickson, 1963; Gould, 1979; 1978; Hall and Nougaim, 1968; Levinson, 1978; Schein, 1993; 1978; Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet and Warnath, 1957; Vaillant 1977; Veiga, 1973) cited in Veiga (1983). There are competing perspectives on the stages of adult and or career development.

Career stages are broken up into three distinct stages/phases: (1) early adulthood, namely the novice, transitional and settling down phases; (2) The midlife/career stage (self-related factors); and (3) The late life/career stage (self-related factors) (Ponjuan, Conley and Trower, 2011; Demers and Wang, 2010; Levinson, Darrow, Klein and McKee, 1978 cited in Murchinsky *et al.*, 2005). Cron (1984) cited in Miao and Lund (2009), summarises career stages as the exploration phase (20-30), the establishment phase (30-45), the maintenance phase (late thirties to forties) and disengagement phase (transition from working to retirement).

Super's (1960) career development theory cited in Themba (2010), identifies five career stages, namely growth (age 4 – 13), exploration (age 14 – 24), establishment (age 25 – 44), maintenance (age 45 – 65) and decline (over 65). Leithwood (1992) cited in Eros (2011) recommends a five stage model of the vocation cycle: introducing the career, stabilising, encountering novel encounters and apprehensions, attaining a professional plateau and arranging for retirement.

Earlier research associating plateaued and non-plateaued workers have observed noteworthy changes in vocation issues related with career stages (Slocum *et al.*, 1988; Stout, 1988). Most research on the career plateaus of sales employees has focused on the nature of career stages and the impact of career stages on plateauing (Feldman and Weitz, 1988). The sources of change are the context in which individuals exists, including biological, psychological, social, spiritual, cultural, economic and historical contexts (Schreuder and Theron, 2001). This leads to change for both the individual and the environment.

Coetzee (2015) identified three fundamental proportions of psychosocial career anxieties that are non-age related:

Career establishment concerns, which relate to anxieties about affiliating to a group, career and economic stability and sanctuary, establishing projections for self-expression and individual development and expansion, and advancing in one's vocation in the present company;

Vocation adjustment concerns, which include employment concerns about adapting to changing settings that could include vocation deviations and correcting one's interests, capacities and abilities to adjust to prospects in the work domain; and

Work-life adaptation concerns, which focuses on issues such as settling down, dropping one's workload and attaining better concord amongst one's labour and individual life, and should also relate to retracting from remunerated engagement totally.

Campbell and Heffernan (1983) emphasise that their career development model allows people to cycle through the same stages several times during their lives (Themba, 2010).

### **3.7.1 Stage 1: Growth Stage**

The growth stage focuses on an adult's younger life. However, the content does not affect this study, therefore the discussion hereto is of an elementary nature.

The main aim of the initial phase is to generate a picture of oneself and an understanding of the nature and significance of work (Themba, Oosthuizen and Coetzee, 2012). Nicholson and Arnold (1989) cited in Porschitz, Guo and Alves (2012), in their study found that career transitions patterns of younger employees from higher education to work entails of four phases: preparation, anticipation, encounter, adjustment and stabilisation. During the preparation/anticipation phase, college students and recent graduates are mentally preparing for their transition into the world of work. They are developing their expectations for what the world of work would be like, how much they will get paid, and how quickly and in what directions their careers will advance (Porschitz, *et al.*, 2012).

### **3.7.2 Exploration Stage**

The models of career stages suggest that at the exploration stage, individuals are responsible for finding an appropriate occupation and employer. In the second stage, the principal job is to crystallise, postulate and introduce a vocational preference (Themba *et al.*, 2012). In the exploration stage, individuals find the type of job which would benefit and interest them and acquire the relevant education and training. They study their morals, well-being and labour preferment and they attain proof about vocations, jobs and vocations from colleagues, friends and relatives (Saleem and Amin, 2013). Retaining human resources is vital in organisations where monetary sustainability and existence hinge on rare personnel and expert abilities (Pienaar and Bester, 2008). To add to the issue of keeping younger personnel, career movement is growing and

companies are discovering it more problematic to preserve accomplished workers (Robyn and Preez, 2013).

In the academic environment, in the period of elderly academics at most South African institutions of higher education, there is a need for individuals to enter the profession, more so if they are representative of the South African population (MacGreyor, 2015). Individuals may pass through this stage at the beginning of their career development processes, when negotiating for major career changes, or when planning a re-entry to the work environment following a period of either voluntary or forced unemployment (Themba, 2010). In early adulthood, an individual is at his/her peak psychologically, physically and emotionally. This phase signifies and includes challenges concerning achieving independence and responsibility and establishing one's self in a career and family life. To understand career transition patterns of younger employees, Porschitz *et al.*, (2012), viewed this encounter phase as a phase when younger employees enter the world of work through particular organisations and encounter shock, or surprise as they encounter aspects of work they did not expect.

Research by MacGreyor (2015) in research undertaken by the Vice Chancellor's Association of Higher Education South Africa, into South African academics' reward and remuneration between the public and private sectors, reflect senior academics are healthier remunerated than lower-ranked lecturers. This may please senior academics however it has ramifications for the retention of junior academics and building the next generation of academics. At this stage, low remuneration could lead to competent academics venturing into the private and public domain due to more attractive packages. According to a study by Pienaar and Bester (2009), institutions and role players responsible for academics in higher education establishments ought to concentrate on compensation, role overwork, advancement and performance management in addition to, the training and development of academics. Outcomes were generated from academics across the early, middle and late career phases (Pienaar and Bester, 2009).

At this stage employees are instructed to be more pre-emptive in looking for mentoring and vocation-preparation opportunities (Fischer *et al.*, 2010; Gerdes, (1988) cited in Schreuder and Theron, 2001; Miao *et al.*, 2009). This phase persists between 15-24 years of age. This juncture is characterised by numerous career selections, however, the incumbent chooses what he or she finds most suitable (Saleem and Amin, 2013). In terms of career adaptability (career life stories),

exploration concerns are mirrored in stories regarding an interpretation of what persons might desire to do, in what way to acquire about entry-level occupations, how they fared in their part-time positions and if they need further education (Coetzee, 2015).

It stands to reason that universities have a financial interest in the success of a faculty career that progresses through the requirements for tenure and promotion. UKZN, as with other institutions of higher learning, have a financial stake with the movement of academics in relation to the number of years in the institution and promotion to higher levels. Early faculty development is tantamount to early success and leads to a successful career. Early career faculty development depends largely on progression toward the next milestone on the academic career path. Tenure and promotion is primarily based on instruction, research and publications and service. Thus, career success is partially based on research outcomes which are established in the early years of the faculty career (Held, 2014). However, Santos (2016) in a study on a group of 87 male and female academics in Portugal in different periods of their academic occupations, highlighted that academics in early vocation stages (especially younger academics) experience difficulties in attaining a balance between numerous roles especially between teaching and research. They were also more concerned with job security and income levels. Santos (2016) explored the relevance of contextual specificities (organisation and professional level factors), the lifecycle and age/career stage (individual-level factors) and gender (a structural-level factor) for the perceptions of career barriers to career success. In a study by Archer (2008) cited in Santos (2016), younger academics reported increasing pressure to build a publication record swiftly. They were of the opinion that they were unworthy due to their inability to continually produce research outcomes such as publications and attract research grants. In addition, they stipulated that their teaching abilities were not fully appreciated (Santos, 2016). Similarly, in the early career stages work-life balance challenges featured whereby especially females encountered difficulties in finding a balance between numerous professional and personal roles. Women encounter more career barriers in attaining career success due to childcare, priority to husband's career and or other family constraints. Thus, women face a "maternal wall" in academia and in addition, are faced with adversarial work-life culture (the culture of long working hours) (Santos, 2016).

Opportunities for individuals and attractive options determines the level of organisational obligation in early career stages. A person in this stage seeks to attempt jobs of interest and if

unhappy, will eagerly pursue another. Levels of employee turnover is higher and there is keenness for individuals at this stage to relocate, hence age being a vital determinant in organisational commitment. Opportunities and experiences resident in this phase vary greatly and results in different levels of organisational commitment depending on different employment opportunities (Kaur and Sandhu, 2010).

Santos' (2016) research on Portuguese academics, reflected younger academics in their initial career stage being highly dissatisfied with the negative experiences of their PhD supervisory relationships since some of them had a PhD supervisor who was also a senior colleague at the same university and frequently mentioned the lack of guidance and support from them. Given that the PhD requirement was an essential criterion for remaining employed in their current university and job stability. Other challenges highlighted at this stage by academics was establishing research collaborations. This refers to the completion of the PhD which is an independent piece of work which reflects the lack of PhD supervisory support, resulting in minimal opportunities for academic teamwork. Other challenges at this stage included, the lack of financial resources for research and heavy teaching loads (with more women affected by this).

### **3.7.3 Establishment Stage**

In the establishment phase, performance increases as employees concern themselves with growing their competencies and widening their business knowledge (Feldman and Weitz, 1988). Early career is a phase through which persons progress through the labour marketplace and primarily discover dissimilar vocation and work opportunities (Lam *et al.*, 2012). The third stage involves stabilising in a preferred occupation thereby consolidating and bettering one's position in that occupation (Themba, 2012). Employees become established in their careers and organisations (Pienaar and Bester, 2008). Levinson (1978) cited in Murchinsky *et al.*, (2005), associates midlife with developing a greater sense of identity through individualisation (finding a balance between opposing psychological states of awareness). Sheey (1976), sees this as a search of authenticity which characterises renewal of one's own self through focusing on one's inner self as opposed to what society expects (Schreuder and Theron, 2001).

During the establishment phase, workers make a place in the organisation, carry out autonomous contributions, shoulder additional accountability and accomplishment monetarily thereby contributing to a desired existence (Saleem and Amin, 2103). Concerns however in MacGregor's study (2015), however, reveal a broad opening between academic men and women earnings particularly from the age of 30 years. In the early career stage, the chief jobs of the employee are learning an extensive array of abilities, starting associations with others at labour and in the industry and progressing to original stages of responsibility (Gibson, 2003; Miao *et al.*, 2009 cited in Lam *et al.*, 2012). Through this learning course, initial vocation persons are able to initiate outlining their proficient self-concepts more copiously (Cron and Slocum, 1986). This phase commences on the first day of employment (Themba, 2010).

In the context of work, assessing one's self, prospects to learn fresh abilities, distribution of talents and capability are essential. A suitable or conducive work environment including rewards is important during this phase (Schreuder and Theron, 2001). At this phase, people are concerned about amalgamating their vocation selections (Hess and Jepsen, 2008). They therefore, are still "investigating" with dissimilar "futures" and attempting to discover the appropriate fit for themselves; hence greater job movement is more desirable to them. They therefore, are more prone to discover diverse occupation choices and attempt diverse work domains. This could be attributed to having no child-care and care-giving responsibilities in this phase of their lives (Lam *et al.*, 2012).

The intermediate adulthood phase is characterised by an era of establishment and maintenance. In the establishment phase members progress via a sequence of portfolios (Saleem and Amin, 2013). The employee must not only perfect the practical components of their jobs but must study the standards, morals and prospects of the company (Pienaar and Bester, 2008). The desires and challenges of mid-life academics are often overlooked by institutions notwithstanding their being responsible for the bulk of teaching and attracting large sums of research funding. The mid-career is generally the lengthiest and most fruitful phase of the academic vocation (Pienaar and Bester, 2007). This phase presents the finest and utmost productive work in terms of teaching, research and service (Pienaar and Bester, 2007). At this stage, personnel are considered to be co-workers and are less reliant on seasoned workers (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

This stage allows employees to gain support from the organisation in terms of work-life balance and employees are actively engaged in career preparation activities. During this stage, workers are expected to modify their abilities (Saleem and Amin, 2013). By the maintenance phase, many members had attained an objective plateau in their vocation growth as they advanced to high-ranking points in the organisation. During this phase, a few members were satisfied to function alongside in their occupation, highlighting they had optimistic outlooks towards a plateau. Newer employees however, highlight Porschitz *et al.*, (2012), after the encounter phase, begin to shift their expectations, as they enter the adjustment phase, and over time they move into the stabilisation phase where they find comfort in the workplace and thereafter develop more realistic plans for their long-term future. Becoming established can uphold itself in one form or another for an entire fifteen years (Pienaar and Bester, 2008).

Stories highlighting establishment concerns pertain to anxieties about progressing one's work, feeling a sense of steadiness on the job, knowing the straightforward principles of the job and discerning about the job on an extended duration basis (Coetzee, 2015). Lam *et al.*, (2012), in their research on the relationship among job movement and salary accomplishment through vocation phases, contended with the career timetable theory, and proposed that there are societal standards concerning in what way much movement is considered suitable for persons in diverse career stages. This applies more especially to early-career workers since they expect additional job modifications than mid and late career employees.

One of the research questions probed in a study by Januszkiewicz (2015), involving 155 students from Poland (111) and Russia (40) focused on what career stage they expected to be deemed successful. Responses of these future managers indicated that the ideal period to attain specialised accomplishment is the period between the 25 and 45 years of age. At the similar time they considered the era from 30-45 years as the most likely period to succeed. From the results one can postulate, that before 25 years of age, one is not seen as in readiness and in preparation for the satisfying performance of professional tasks. Respondents perceived this as a period (45-60+) of inactivity, relaxation and a sense of accomplishments. Amid the participants from Russia, the normal age at which they expected to attain specialised success is 33.3 years, and for the Polish it was slightly higher (36.3 years). This age depicts the last interlude of early adulthood, which in

the customary career model reflects the achievement of established purposes and complete participation in labour and family (Januszkiewicz, 2015).

In a study by Pienaar and Bester (2007), mid-career difficulties of academics included performance management and advancement, role overwork, financial compensation, management concerns, job insecurity and discrimination, the most important being, performance management, promotion and role overload. Considering the challenges, results from Pienaar and Bester's (2008) study of the maintenance of academics in the early vocation period, reflected that 66.6% of the White male panellists as opposed to 57% female panellists, 83% of the Black men panellists and 50% of the Black women panellists were unsure if they would remain at the establishment any further, and in some instances a certain and solid likelihood existed that they would certainly exit the institution. Eight panellists had already exited the organization. This paints a desolate image of the establishment. Overall, 16.6% in a year and a half indicated an intention to exit the institute.

Regarding promotion, respondents highlighted the lack of promotion, discrepancies and dual ideals in relating the promotion criteria inside and amongst departments. They were also dissatisfied with the unclear promotion policy guidelines and the over-emphasis accorded to credentials and research outputs for promotions, whilst other undertakings did not transmit the equivalent weighting (Pienaar and Bester, 2007). In terms of role overload, White and Black males and females, outlined they were overburdened with a host of activities such as simultaneous teaching, research, community engagement, personnel development and administrative duties, argues (Pienaar and Bester, 2007).

Due to higher responsibilities for teaching, mentoring and community service, heavy amounts of work present a challenge for middle vocation academics. The higher workloads could be attributed to pitching in for newly-hired faculty members. This is compounded by serving on committees and recruitment and personnel committees (Randall, 2006). A further issue is that of salary compression, which reflects disparities between upper and lower levels and those at the lower end receiving higher starting salaries. This salary compression results in lower morale. Inadequate remuneration presents a further challenge in tertiary organisations not merely in South Africa but internationally. Potgieter (2002) confirms many Black academics in South Africa leave HEIs due to poor remuneration. This is evident in HEIs' inability to recruit and retain highly seasoned academics (Ball, 2004). This contributes to low morale and disillusionment since there are distinct

disparities between remuneration between the private and public sectors, submits (Oshagbemi and Hickson, 2003).

Other concerns related to academics' needs at mid-career, are lack of recognition of their intellectual creativity and productivity and a lack of promotion resulting in higher levels of dissatisfaction (Pienaar and Bester, 2007).

### **3.7.4 Maintenance Stage**

In the maintenance stage, employees stabilise in their positions and their performance in their occupations and organisations and take on responsibility for managing and training others (Feldman and Weitz, 1988). The challenge faced with this stage is that of maintaining and preserving the status one has acquired (Themba, 2012). Many career development theories have concentrated on issues faced by both genders who have reached the so called "maintenance" or "career plateau" phase of their careers (Super, 1957; Levinson *et al.*, 1978; Cron and Slocum, 1989). Smith-Ruig (2009), in her study of accounting professionals, many participants in the maintenance phase, had attained an objective plateau in their vocation growth as they advanced to higher points inside the organisation. Levinson *et al.*, (1978) for example, maintained that the individual reaches mid-life transition (40-45) where the individual revisits the life structure he religiously followed in their 30s (Smith, 2006). Mid-career refers to the time era for the duration of which persons attain some level of steadiness in their private lives and some amount of accomplishment in their vocations (Lam *et al.*, 2012). Smith (2006), contends that older employees should not be seen as not having an interest in their active development of their identity or career purely due to their being in the maintenance phase of their careers with their focus on stability and job security. Employees are viewed as contributors in the organisation due to their experience, awareness and complex understanding of the organisation's expected operations. Employees in this stage play a key role in training and mentoring. They may be requested to develop new goals and policies (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

Research shows a faculty needs different kinds of support and opportunities at different careers stages. Many associate professors were seen struggling after long years of mid-career, which was coupled with exhaustion, doubt and depression. These individuals easily plateaued due to less clear

goals, despite having plenty attractive personal and professional options available. In addition, at this stage, the professors need to weigh the challenges of work and personal life balance, such as responsibilities on the home-front, child-care and care-giving to elders (Canale, Herdklotz and Wild, 2013). Participants in Smith's (2006) study, reflected plateauing in their career development in the maintenance stage as they advanced to high-ranking levels within their organisations.

During this phase, some members in Smith's (2006) study were happy to continue to "coast" along in their careers, however six men participants and five women participants were at the juncture of re-evaluating their careers. The reasons women participants outlined were to achieve greater work-balance flexibility and to follow an extra gratifying vocation. The males opted for pursuing their own businesses (two) and the others wanted to pursue academic careers at a tertiary institution. Overall the participants were striving for: greater flexibility, more control over their jobs and the need for more fulfilment and stimulating work.

Management concerns are mirrored in stories about concerns about one's job while at the same time learning more about what is necessary in the occupation, bettering one's performance and dealing with novel high-tech developments. As employees approach their mid and late career phases, their foremost apprehensions move to grasping onto career achievements they have already accomplished (Coetzee, 2015).

Results from MacGregor's (2015) study on Higher Education in South Africa, reflect that the compensation of high-ranking academics to senior lecturers to full professors was in 2012 healthier than the compensation of similar employees in the public and private domains. Universities should however, be vigilant of the aggressive rivalry amid organisations for the finest academics and compensation. Employees at the mid-level have on average developed a level of identification with their companies and occupations, thereby making it difficult and undesirable to change organisations and career paths (Lam *et al.*, 2012). Some academics in Santos' (2016) study reflected that this period is characterised by balancing distinct roles and occupying management positions. Some participants in Smith's (2006) study, specified that they were merely "treading water" since they had already achieved and were now ready to "coast" to retirement. They are relatively satisfied with their work and are unlikely to make extreme changes unless they are faced with a crisis. Their aim is to work towards career stability, career permanence, the maintenance

and protection of acquired skills, and the accrual of seniority. There is therefore, an intention by the employee to continue in the profession (Themba, 2010).

Findings from the study by Santos (2016) revealed that age or career stage may influence the experience of collegiality relationships. Results reflected that academics who were older and in the more progressive vocation phases viewed the themes of vocation blockages and peer rivalry as more important career barriers than younger academics, with older women slightly more dissatisfied with peer rivalry and competition in the workplace. Older academics were more affected by huge administrative workloads (Santos, 2016).

### **3.7.5 Disengagement Stage**

Ultimately, individuals are seeing entering a final disengagement phase after the age of fifty-five, with the transition from working to retirement. Disengagement may, however, present itself at an earlier age (Feldman and Weitz, 1998). The disengagement stage is characteristic of deceleration, disengagement and challenges associated with one's forthcoming or actual retirement (Themba *et al.*, 2012). Work related factors undertake a significant role in late career life. This phase is characteristic of more responsibility, decision-making and increased life expectancy (influences people's availability for work) (Murchinsky, *et al.*, 2005). Needs during this phase include security, maintaining motivation and productivity (Miao *et al.*, 2009). Late career is the era wherein persons have passed the ultimate of their professional accomplishments and are readying themselves for lesser work immersion or the evolution to retirement (Lam *et al.*, 2012).

The disengagement phase as viewed by Miao *et al.*, (2009) involves a critical adjustment from work to retirement. This phase is viewed as a social and economic policy that affects individual career development. Retirement requires planning and action under circumstances that may sometimes not be clear and predictable. Generally, with retirement approaching, people shift from maintaining what was their lifelong occupation to planning for retirement (Themba, 2010). This involves a robust self-identity external of work while still upholding peak performance and an emphasis on detaching oneself from the company and company life. Individuals need to balance their work and network activities. Employees in this phase are seen as sponsors since they direct other employees, act as company representatives, initiate actions and make decisions (Saleem and

Amin, 2013). Though retirement may mean escaping from a frustrating job, it may also lead to a loss of professional identity (Cron and Slocum, 2001).

The late life stage revolves around productivity, maintaining self-esteem and retirement (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010 cited in Schreuder and Coetzee, 2015). Miao *et al.*, (2009) states career moves and competitiveness decline in this phase. There is a decline in authority and recognition and physical decline (Murchinsky *et al.*, 2005). During this phase responsibility and performance levels may decline (Feldman and Weitz, 1998). Employees are more likely to turn away promotions at this stage (Kaur and Sandhu, 2010). Stories replicating disengagement preoccupations, relate with issues such as dropping one's occupation due to poor well-being or bodily limitations, slowing one's effort or employed part-time or retiring, is the view by Coetzee, (2015).

This stage is characteristic of complete attention on nonworking undertakings like games, interests, volunteer activities and so on. The company also gets mileage from these employees due to their experience, knowledge and expertise, which are difficult and costly to replace thereby offering such individuals part-time and consultancy work. Employees in this phase may also opt to change professions or jobs (Saleem and Amin, 2013).

The steadiness of obligation level, coupled with higher complications, in parting the organisation weakens the link amid age and organisational promise in the average and late vocation phases as opposed to the earlier stages (Kaur and Sandhu, 2010), which has been confirmed in other research (Cohen, 1993; Meyer and Allen, 1993; Morow and McElroy, 1987). Tenure on organisational obligation has been found to fluctuate through career stages. Tenure instead of psychological influences such as prospects, encounters, and struggle, could be the main precursors at the initial vocation phase. In the late career phases, not merely do psychosomatic and behavioural influences demonstrate a crucial part in developing guarantee but rooted expenses such as amassed investment and an absence of prospects furthermore combine to reinforce the person's connection to the organisation (Kaur and Sandhu, 2010).

Conway (2004) (cited in Hess and Jepsen, 2008) suggested that the management of worker capabilities through career stages could be practically deliberated by organisations. Doing otherwise, organisations are facing loss of productivity, decreased competitive advantage, a decline in morale and motivation due to the effects of plateauing.

Career theories provide parameters within which one can understand career behaviour and from which one can hypothesise the meaning of such behaviour hence warranting one to predict future behaviour. Theories also assist career counselors in identifying and, interpreting and assisting clients with their career goals.

### **3.8 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CAREER STAGES**

Career stages present many implications for career development practice for the company and the incumbent and for Human Resource specialists. The implication of career stages in the mentoring of professionals, and the manner in which needs change over time are explained as follows:

- During early careers as professionals commence with their work, they usually assume to have independence and means to do their work. Organisations allow this autonomy, but they are placed under the observation of high-ranking experts. Due to the high mobility of these professionals at this stage, they are in sync with their professions and enter mentor relationships outside the organisations, which have been established during their apprenticeship training.
- During the mid-career (mid 30s and 40s), There is direct pressure for professionals to participate in activities that benefit the organization as opposed to the individual. The professional's response to this pressure may be influenced by both age and the number of years in the organization. As a result of the shift of dual loyalty in terms of a better focus on their organisations, professionals are more in likely in mid-career to look for a mentor in the organization.
- In the late career stage, the majority of people are anchored in occupations and probably not desiring mentors, but play those roles themselves (Peluchette and Jeanquart, 2000 cited in Themba, 2010).

Cohen's research (1993) highlights career stages as having a moderate relationship amid organizational commitment and consequences. Results indicated that the association among commitment and turnover seemed to be robust in the initial vocation period than in middle and late vocation periods. The relationship between commitment and performance was the most resilient in late career stage. Cohen (1993), highlighted that organisations benefit by growing

commitment through all career stages. The level of increased commitment results in lower levels of turnover, and in mid and late-career stages a decrease in absenteeism and enhanced performance is noted.

Career stages also presents implications for HR practitioners. An important role of career counsellors is that of enhancing employees' job satisfaction. Through this intervention, young employees can confidently make appropriate career choices and enter jobs that have high satisfaction whilst staying clear of those jobs that may be dissatisfying. Hence, counselors must be mindful of the determinants of job gratification and how it evolves over various career stages, as well as the conditions which influence it (Jepsen and Sheu, 2003 cited in Themba, 2010).

From an organizational perspective, an understanding of the five stages has pivotal applications to manage the career stages of individuals. Life stages are key to appreciating the concerns that individuals may face at each stage of their working life, and the motivational interventions that are compelled to advance job performance, growth and adjustment of the individual to the organization (Chattopadhyay, 2011).

### **3.9 CONCLUSION**

The chapter focused on career development, with particular reference to UKZN under study in particular, and Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in general. Other areas covered under career development included organizational support for career development, the Human resource philosophy culture of the university, the theories of career development and career development models. A generalized theoretical perspective was presented on career stages looking in-depth into the different career stages and linking prevalent research relating to these stages to HEIs. Various key career development theories were discussed, with particular emphasis on Super's theory of career development, which forms the dominant basis of this study. Findings of previous studies were good leads to ascertain the outcome of this study. Numerous hurdles experienced by academics at tertiary institutions were highlighted in the chapter, thereby providing an alignment to challenges in the institution under study. This would no doubt provide valuable input for the further research going forward.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter Four allows the researcher to plan the study, schedule the timing of the research and link research approaches to the research problems. The scholar is thereafter in a position to undertake appropriate choices regarding the techniques of information gathering and investigation. The methodology chapter encompasses the objectives of the study, study's plan, categories of research design, the research's philosophy, research setting, time horizon, the sampling design, probability and non-probability sampling methods, population, study's sample and data collection methods. A detailed discussion on the measuring instruments (questionnaires and interviews) and the dependability and soundness of both measuring tools are covered in the chapter. This section also provides details on the pilot study and the data reduction strategies for both the descriptive and inferential statistics.

#### **4.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The research aimed to:

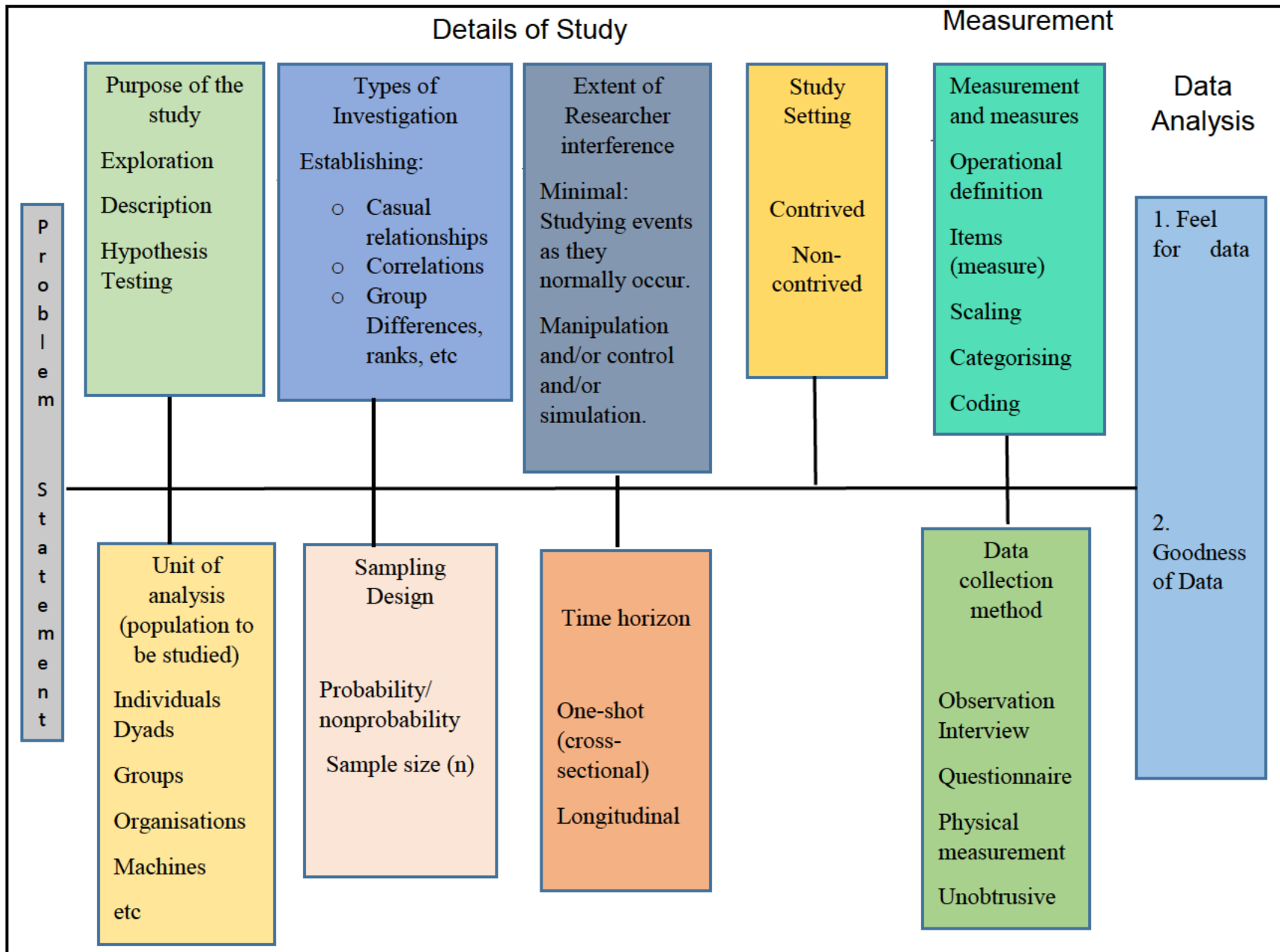
- Undertake a literature review on career plateaus and career stages;
- Establish the career plateau status of the participants in terms of structural/hierarchical, job content, personal and job skill plateauing;
- Ascertain the career stage of the participants in terms of exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement;
- Ascertain if there is a valid association with career plateaus and career stages;
- Determine whether the variance in career stages is due to the career plateau status;
- Examine the influence of the biographical variables on the career plateau status and career stages respectively; and
- Make appropriate recommendations arising from the study.

### 4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The intention of the study was to examine and discover the research validly, objectively and in a precise manner (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout, 2014). This plan of action provides an outline for the gathering and breakdown of information. A selection of the study's blueprint reveals choices around the significance attributed to a number of proportions in the investigation procedure and the prominence accorded to several dimensions in order to express causal connections between variables. It is also able to generalise to a larger group outside the study; be capable to comprehend performance and the significance of that performance in a particular communal setting and be able to justify social phenomena and their interconnections and changes over time (Bryman and Bell, 2014). Babbie (2014) concurs by stating that the study's design involves established choices concerning the topic that needs to be discussed, the target population; the research techniques to be utilised and the purpose why the research was undertaken. Bryman and Bell, (2011) and Babbie, (2014) both agree that the research design in essence, is the process of focusing one's perspective on the purpose of the study. Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008) and (Yin, 2011) confirms the research design as a sound plan for attaining aims and responding questions which may be compounded by an obtainability of a number of ways and means, procedures, techniques, conventions and sampling strategies. A research design accounts for internal reasoning (causality) and external reasoning (generalisability) (Griffie, 2012). Creswell (2003) cited in Griffie (2012), uses various terminologies such as "strategy", "tradition", "method", "approach", "procedure" and "process" to explain design. Another key consideration in research design is whether the study is primarily quantitative or qualitative (Neuman, 2011).

Sekaran and Bougie (2010), outline the critical components (Figure 4.1) of the research design which are key considerations for the research and the researcher. The components relate to critical aspects such as the resolve of the study, study site, kind of investigation undertaken, degree of management during the research period, timelines of the research; and the extent of data analysis.

**FIGURE 4.1: THE RESEARCH DESIGN**



### **4.3.1 Types of Research**

One of the key difficulties in research is the goal of the investigation. There are broad categories within which a researcher will articulate the purpose or aim of the specific research when one reaches this stage in the research journey. The nature of the research could be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory and will depend largely on how much knowledge regarding the research area is available. Exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research are discussed in greater detail.

#### **4.3.1.1 Exploratory**

Exploratory research can be based on one or more of the following: to obtain insights through a pilot test (Maree, 2014); to identify key concepts; to identify key stakeholders; to prioritise social needs; to identify consequences of research problems; to develop hypotheses (Cooper and Schlinder, 2008); to confirm assumptions (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout, 2014), to formalise themes for further research (Bryman and Bell, 2011) and or to gain familiarity with unknown situations, conditions, policies and behaviours (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout, 2014) and (Neuman, 2011). This type of research would not project a precise understanding of the target problem, but can be useful to confirm the nature and scope of the problem and serve as a determinant for further investigation (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

#### **4.3.1.2 Descriptive**

A descriptive study aims to describe a position, issue or occurrences in an orderly manner or furnish evidence about certain aspects such as living conditions of a community, the relationship between variables or relationships between phenomena as precisely as can be done (Du Plooy-Cilliers; Davis and Bezuidenhout, 2014: 76). Sekaran and Bougie, (2010) reiterate the description of the characteristics of the variables as key in such a study. This can be done in several ways, hence descriptive research can suffice for both qualitative and quantitative studies. A descriptive study expands on trends and themes already discovered by survey research (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

#### 4.3.1.3 Hypothesis Testing (Explanatory)

In research, explanatory research holds higher value and significance than descriptive questions (Maree, 2016). Explanatory researchers seek to derive a detailed understanding of a particular phenomenon separate from more quantitative methods (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

It focuses on investigative and descriptive enquiry and ascertains the reason as to why an incident or action transpires. This type of research looks at the sources and reasons in the study (Neuman, 2011).

There are two aims in defining and explaining behaviour:-

- *Firstly*, the aim of research is to explain the phenomena such as human behaviour in business and administrative sciences by indicating how variables are related to one another, and how one variable affects another and;
- *Secondly*, by explaining and predicting human behaviour one is in a position to change or control that behaviour (Welman and Kruger, 2001).

Creswell (2003) cited in Maree (2007) views the purpose of explanatory research as enabling the qualitative findings to clarify the quantitative results, hence suggesting qualitative data assists justifying the quantitative results. In explanatory research, the researcher collects data twice, quantitatively and qualitatively. The logic of this lies with the quantitative results providing an image of the research problem, while the qualitative results clarifies and enhances the general picture according to Maree, (2007), as evidenced in the study undertaken.

The different types of research and their purposes are summarised in Table 4.1.

**TABLE 4.1: THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF RESEARCH AND THEIR CORRESPONDING AIMS**

TYPES OF RESEARCH	AIMS
Exploratory research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Obtain new insights</li> <li>• Identify key concepts</li> <li>• Identify key stakeholders</li> <li>• Prioritise social needs</li> <li>• Identify consequences of research problems</li> <li>• Develop hypotheses</li> <li>• Confirm assumptions</li> <li>• Become familiar with unknown situations, conditions, policies and behaviours</li> </ul>
Descriptive research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Describe a situation, problem or phenomena systematically</li> <li>• Provide information about things such as the living conditions of a community</li> <li>• Draw comparisons</li> </ul>
Explanatory research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clarify how and why there is a relationship between different phenomena</li> <li>• Indicate the direction of cause and effect relationships between variables</li> </ul>

Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014: 80)

The study encompasses a combination of the types of research and comprises descriptive and explanatory research. Justification for utilising descriptive research can be attributed to the researcher wanting to describe the characteristics of the phenomena, that is, establish the career plateau status of the participants in relation to structural/hierarchical, job content, personal and job skill plateauing, and ascertain the career stage of the participants in terms of exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement.

In addition, it would be an appropriate research type since the investigator wishes to establish the association between the two key variables of the research, that is, to decide if a statistically significant association exists amidst career plateaus and the career stages of people in academia at UKZN.

The rationale for utilising explanatory research would enable the researcher to make inferences and to find solutions pertinent to the research. This kind of research is used firstly to clarify the phenomena such as human behaviour by indicating how the variables (career plateaus and career stages) are related to one another; and how one variable affects one another (for example, whether the variance in career stages is due to the career plateau status). Hence, by explaining and predicting human behaviour, one is in a position to change or control that behaviour. For example, the researcher can establish if a significant affiliation does occur between key variables, that is, career plateaus and career stages. Another reason for its usage is attributed to the utilisation of the mixed methods research in the study, which would permit the researcher to cross check the outcomes from the quantitative segment with the qualitative segment.

The research site must be chosen appropriately in terms of suitability and feasibility (Maree, 2007). Studies may be carried out in two types of environments, *namely*, a natural setting (non-contrived) setting or a contrived setting (artificial environment). Both of these settings are discussed below.

#### **4.3.2 Setting of the Study**

The research was undertaken in an ordinary setting, that is, within the University of KwaZulu-Natal across its five campus sites (Westville, Howard College, Edgewood, Pietermaritzburg and Medical School).

The settings are discussed briefly in the next discussion.

##### **4.3.2.1 Natural Setting**

Research can be undertaken in a regular surrounding where work goes on as normal (that is a non-contrived setting) (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Researchers aim to see the world through respondents being observed in a natural environment.

By observing the behaviour of a group, organisation or community, one is in a position to presume the meanings they align to their setting and department (Bryman and Bell, 2014). The types of studies carried out in a natural setting are field studies and field experiments (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Field research positions itself on the tenets of naturalism and allows researchers to capture events they unfold naturally in real life in the “field” in safe settings such

as an office, laboratory or classroom. Researchers are emotionally involved and it is time-consuming (Neuman, 2011).

The study was carried out in a natural setting that is across UKZN's five campus sites (Westville, Howard College, Edgewood, Medical School and Pietermaritzburg). The natural environment is warranted since the researcher intended to engage in correlational studies, that is to establish the association with career plateaus and career stages of individuals in academia in the actual university (work) environment as a focal point of study.

#### **4.3.3. Unit of analysis**

The element or unit researched can be construed as the unit/element of analysis/investigation. The element of investigation could pertain to an individual, a pair of individuals (dyads), groups, organisations, cultures and so on (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The element of investigation for this research would be at the group level since data was elicited from different strata (academics at various levels in the institution – professors, associate professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, junior lecturers, below junior lecturers and those classified in the category “other” such as developmental lecturers and research fellows).

#### **4.3.4 Time Horizon**

Studies are conducted either over a protracted time or within a specified timeframe (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The time perspective of a study might be a one shot case study or a longitudinal study. Both time horizons are discussed below.

A brief discussion follows with relevance to the study.

##### **4.3.4.1 One Shot Case Study**

A one shot case study is undertaken once information is collected one time, maybe above a few days or weeks or months, to justify a research question/s (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). These studies are also referred to as cross-sectional studies. A cross sectional survey design is used to create an overall image of a phenomenon at a specific time. One therefore collects data only once from respondents. There are no repeats (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout,

2014) and such studies have no intention of focusing on trends over a period of time (Remenyi, Williams, Money and Swartz, 1998).

The one shot case study was undertaken in the research. This was warranted because the researcher had no intention of prolonging the research over time possibly because there were time and cost constraints. In addition, the researcher had no intention of assessing trends or how situations develop over time. Information for this study was collated once off through questionnaires and interviews. Interviews were conducted over a few weeks and questionnaires were disseminated over a period of time electronically during the study.

#### **4.3.5 Research Philosophy**

A research plan provides complete guidelines for the study and the procedure in which it should be undertaken. The research process strategically is defined by the philosophical approach the researcher aligns the research to (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998). A study's research viewpoint is the conviction about the manner in which information about an occurrence should be collated, examined and utilised <http://is.cityu.edu/hk>. Researchers may opt to utilise a positivist view or maybe interested in people and their real life world. Positivists use methodology from the natural sciences to investigate phenomena. Quantitative statistics on the other hand, are utilised by providing rigorous, reliable data and the statistical hypothesis testing. In real life worlds researchers focus on distinct language and meanings which people align to their experiences (Berg, 2001). The study utilised both questionnaires and interviews, hence mixed methods was used. Questionnaires were more prominent in the study since all members of the sample (academics) populated one. Interviews were conducted with line managers only (Academic Leaders). There was a need to interview academics to confirm findings from the questionnaires. The research philosophy includes the positivism approach and the phenomenological approach, both of which are discussed below.

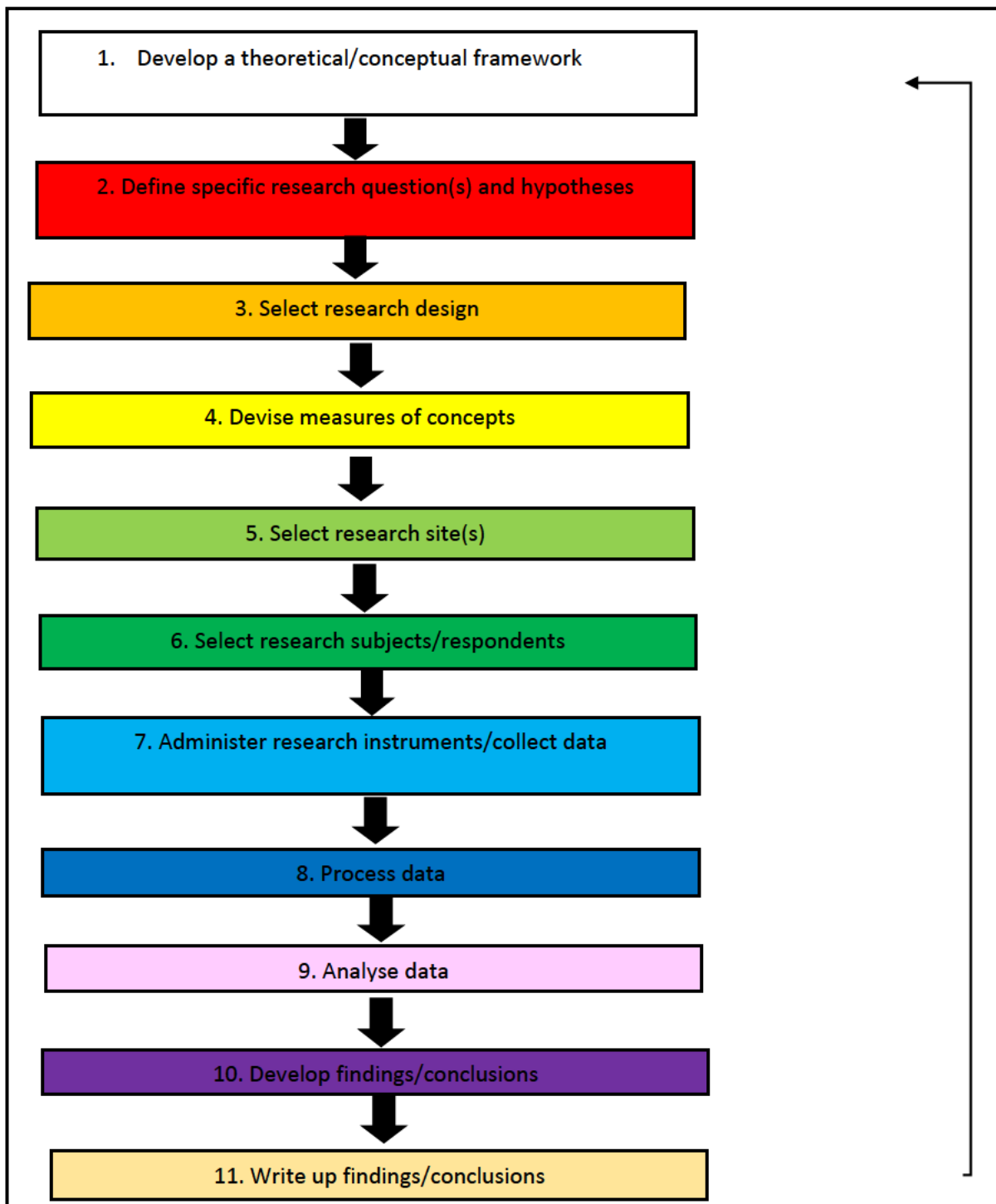
##### **4.3.5.1 Positivism (Quantitative)**

The doctrine of positivism is extremely difficult to quantify in an exact way, since it is utilised in diverse ways by different writers. A few authors regard positivism as a descriptive group – an individual defining a rational stance which could be recognized in investigations - although there has been some disparities regarding anything it entails, for others, it is an

uncomplimentary word used to illustrate rudimentary and frequently feigning information gathering (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Positivism is an epistemological notion that supports the submission of ordinary sciences approaches to the scholarship of social reality and beyond (Bryman and Bell, 2011, 15). Positivist researchers prefer to use quantitative data and frequently utilise experiments, surveys and statistics with the purpose of pursuing exact measures and objective research (Neuman, 2011) and anti-positivism researchers utilise qualitative methods such as interviews and observation (Bhattacharjee, 2012). This theoretical standpoint or model sees the investigator as an impartial expert and interpreter of a tangible social reality. Underlying positivism, is the thinking that the investigator is autonomous and is unaffected by the theme of the study (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998). Positivism is therefore not regarded as an approach (especially in the social sciences) that will lead to stimulating and philosophical understanding into multifaceted difficulties, more so in the field of business and management studies (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998).

Quantitative research can be seen as a solid investigative method which:- comprises numerical data; views the connection between philosophy and exploration as logical; assumes a natural science approach (positivism) and adopts an unbiased notion of social reality (Bryman and Bell, 2014). This methodological approach allows one to view the study as objectively as possible by utilising factors such validity, reliability, generalisability and reproducibility to establish credibility (O' Leary, 2014). Maree (2016) outlines quantifiable research as taking a broad an empirical methodology and highlights the use of several steps in the quantitative research process, which is presented in Figure 4.2 below.

**FIGURE 4.2. THE PROCESS OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH**



Bryman and Bell (2014: 32)

Figure 4.2 depicts the critical steps in quantitative research. In step 1, theory is seen as the basis for quantitative research that commands a deductive approach. The theory is the pillar on which research questions and hypotheses are deduced (step 2). It is noted though that quantitative research does not involve the formulation of hypotheses but theory is the basis on which research issues are aligned to the study area and the

collection of data. The research design is outlined in step 3, which ties up with issues of validity of the findings and the results. Step 4 brings the researcher to the measures of the concepts termed as operationalisation. Steps 5 and 6 reflects on the choice of the research location/s and the respondents of the study. Step 7 pertains to the administration of the research instruments. This study, entailed structured interviews and the dissemination of self-completion questionnaires which were distributed to the respondents. In step 8, the information collected was converted into data. Biographical information was secured from the questionnaire. Codes were assigned to other variables to convert them to numbers in order to be processed electronically. Quantitative data analysis techniques were utilised to encapsulate the collected data and to establish relations amongst variables and articulating ways of highlighting the outcomes. The outcomes were highlighted in step 10. The write-up either academically or in any other form as intended at the inception of the research was presented in step 11. A feedback loop is distinct from step 11 to step 1 (Bryman and Bell, 2014).

#### **4.3.5.2 Phenomenological (Qualitative)**

Phenomenology is viewed as some of the key scholarly customs that has been liable for the anti-positivist situation (Maree, 2016). It hinges on conscious experiences which allows people to understand the reality around them. Early in the 20<sup>th</sup> Century a German philosopher, Edmund Husserl had a firm belief that the experiences of people is the source of all knowledge (Bhattacharjee, 2012). The method is concerned with the question of how people comprehend the world around them in an orderly manner and how in particular philosophers brace their own presumptions. The phenomenologist sees human behaviour as an invention of how people construe their domain through diverse perspectives. Such studies pay attention to the experiences of participants, that is, to gain their perspective in order to gauge their experience and get a detailed description of it. The descriptions provide general meanings (Maree, 2016). Positivists claim to study reality independent of a person's experience whereas phenomenologists opt to study such a reality with so-called objectivity (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2008).

To comprehend the meaning of an individual's comportment, the phenomenologist endeavours to view things from that person's perspective (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The key thesis of

phenomenology is that the subject and the object are intimately connected. In other words, the one who is experiencing something can never stand apart from the experience (Lee and Lings, 2008: 59).

Qualitative research relies on linguistics rather than numerical data (and or statistical forms of data) and utilises meaning based data. The focus is on natural social settings where interactions occur (Maree, 2016). It is associated with the gathering and examination of non-numerical data such as words, pictures and actions (Bryman and Bell, 2014). A researcher may utilise different approaches to qualitative research design. These approaches are outlined below in Table 4.4.

Similar to positivism, phenomenology is a philosophy of knowledge which focuses on the direct observation of phenomena. Phenomenologists however want to identify reality and describe it in words instead of numbers. Phenomenology hinges on the experiences of all individuals and the ability to relate to the feelings of others (Bernard, 2006).

**TABLE 4.2: THE FIVE APPROACHES TO QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS**

Dimensions	Narrative studies	Phenomenology	Grounded Theory	Ethnography	Case study
Focus	Exploring the lives of individuals	Understanding the essence of experiences about a phenomenon	Developing a theory grounded from data in the field	Describing and interpreting the cultural and social group	Developing an in depth understanding of a single case or multiple cases
Data collection method	Primary interviews and documents	Long interviews with up to 10 people	Interviews with 20-30 individuals to “saturate” categories and detail a theory	Primarily observation and interviews with additional artefacts during extended time in the field (for example 6 months to a year)	Multiple sources including documents, archival records, interviews, observations and physical artefacts.
Data analysis strategy	Stories Epiphanies Historical content	Statements Meanings Meaning themes General description of the experience	Open coding Axial coding Selective coding Conditional matrix	Discussion Analysis Interpretation	Description Themes Assertions
Synthesis or reporting form	Detailed picture/description of an individual’s life	Description of the “essence” of the experience	Theory or theoretical model	Description of the cultural behaviour of a group or an individual	In-depth description of the “case” or “cases”

Maree (2016: 75)

Table 4.2 highlights the five methods, that is, narrative studies, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and case study and are summarised with regard to their focus, data collection methods, strategies for data analysis, and the synthesis or reporting format frequently utilised.

Generally, individuals lead storied lives and tell stories of those lives. Researchers collect stories of a person's life and analyses and retells the stories in respect of a narrative experience. Data is collected through field notes, shared experience, journal records, interview dialogues, observation, story-telling, letter writing and auto biographical script.

Phenomenology hinges on the experiences a person has had and provides a detailed description of it. From the description, one is able to extract general or universal meanings, for example, grief, anger and so on. In terms of the methodology, there are two approaches used by the researcher. *Firstly*, the researcher identifies phenomenology not only as a description but as an interpretative process, whereby, the investigator deduces an interpretation of the individual's lived experience. *Secondly*, the researcher embarks on identifying a phenomenon to study and eliciting information from those who have had similar experiences. The information is narrowed to important statements or quotes and identifies themes.

Grounded theory is the opposite of the positivist view. The key distinction amid grounded theory and other research methodology is its method to theory development – grounded theory strives to advance theory that emerges from information methodically gathered and examined (Maree: 2016, 79). The approach is viewed as inductive instead of deductive. Data collection and theory development is seen as a constituent of the same procedure and is related to each other in order to build on ongoing data analysis.

Ethnography is a qualitative design wherein the investigator outlines and depicts the joint and commonly utilised and frequently used configurations of standards, behaviours, principles and dialect of a common group of individuals. By immersing oneself researchers can gain a good perspective of rituals, and everything else specific to that culture. The researcher is “absorbed” into the same environment and as an insider sees and experiences as a member of that community. Conviction and affinity are critical between the researcher and the respondent.

Case study research pertains to a pragmatic probe about an existing occurrence (for example a case) in the real world context, submits Maree, (2016: 81). Researchers suggest parameters such as time and place; period and activity and by explanation and context- to avoid a too wide focus in research. The purposes could be exploratory, descriptive, interpretive or explanatory.

With the use of qualitative methodology tools such as interviews, observation and documents researchers can study complex phenomena within their contexts.

The researcher adopted the case study approach since ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions were asked (Yin, 1994 cited in Maree, 2016), and since the researcher intended to establish close collaboration with the subjects, thereby permitting subjects to provide details regarding their situation (Crabtree and Miller, 1999 cited in Maree, 2016). The case study depicts the real life situation in which the phenomenon occurs and to understand the phenomenon in their unique circumstances. The approach aids in giving a voice to those who may be suppressed, unknown or neglected. The study focused on a single case (UKZN), although a multiple case design is said to yield greater confidence in the results.

#### **4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN**

Researchers generate samples of customers, clients, employees and so forth in order to gather their opinions. Typical phases in the sampling design entail: identifying the population under study, the parameters of interest, the sampling frame, an acceptable sample method and the sample size (Cooper and Schindler, 2008).

##### **4.4.1 Population**

When one engages in research, one ponders who will hold the answer/s to the key research question/s (Maree, 2007). Sourcing broader, societal representation through a population or the masses are key. Most often, the resolve of social research is to understand the population, to get a representative picture of what a particular group of people really do and think. The definition of a population and its attributes were discussed below (Maree, 2007).

The population is the study object and is made up of clusters, organisations, people and events/circumstances to which they are privy to (Welman *et al.*, 2008). The research problem focuses on a certain population and the population is made up of the entire assemblage of all elements of analysis about which the investigator aims to make certain deductions or assumptions. O’Leary (2014, 182) defines population as “the total membership of people, objects or events”.

**TABLE 4.3: PERMANENT AND LONG CONTRACT ACADEMIC STAFF PER CAMPUS SITE AND RANK**

Row Labels	Edgewood	Howard College	Medical School	Pietermaritzburg	Westville	Grand Total
PROFESSOR	6	45	18	39	27	135
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR	9	40	15	31	40	135
SENIOR LECTURER	14	52	20	51	71	208
LECTURER	45	251	91	136	222	745
JUNIOR LECTURER		9	8	1	3	21
BELOW JUNIOR LECTURER	4	8	20	7	46	85
OTHER	1	6	4	2	5	18
Grand Total	79	411	176	267	414	1347

Institutional Intelligence: UKZN (2016)

The population size of this research is 1347 academics across all five UKZN campuses (that is, Westville Campus, Howard College campus, Edgewood Campus, Medical School and the Pietermaritzburg Campus). The University has in its employ the following number of academics staff: 135 professors, 135 associate professors, 208 senior lecturers, 745 lecturers, 21 junior lecturers, 85 below junior lecturers and 18 under the category ‘other’ (Institutional Intelligence: UKZN - 2015). Two hundred and fifty three (253) academics were utilised as the sample. This sample is viewed as a reliable and valid sample that allowed the researcher to simplify the outcomes from the identified respondents to the population under study. In addition the investigator wanted to safeguard against non-responses and therefore elevated the sample size (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

#### **4.4.2 Sample**

Sampling is a portion of respondents where an investigator chooses from a bigger segment and generalises to the population (Neuman, 2011). Sampling is a thoughtful selection of a sum of individuals to symbolise a wider population (Anderson, 2008). The intention is to select a sample which is large enough and to allow one to speak about a parent population large enough to conduct the intended analysis and small enough to be manageable (O' Leary, 2014). A researcher could however, be unable to reach the entire population; the population may be too large; there may be elements the researcher cannot identify or access or time and costs are other factors the researcher has to take into account (Maree, 2007). Sekaran and Bougie (2010) describe a sample as a subcategory of the population that is made up of only some members of the population.

The sample therefore included UKZN professors, associate professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, junior lecturers, below junior lecturers and those categorised as "other" across all five UKZN campuses. Data was collected from each sub-group in the population. The element of study was therefore at the group level.

#### **4.4.3 Sampling Technique**

Once a researcher has identified the population, established a sample frame and confirmed the sample size, the researcher needed to confirm a strategy for gathering the sample (O'Leary, 2014).

There are two techniques of establishing a suitable sample, either through proportionate or disproportionate sampling.

##### **4.4.3.1 Probability Sampling**

The researcher used probability sampling. Respondents in the population have some predictable possibility of being selected as sample subjects (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The sampling strategy used was stratified random sampling (Bless and Smith, 1995). The process is a manner of stratification which was trailed by the random choice of participants from every stratum. Stratified sampling is a way for finding a better amount of alignment by reducing possible sampling inaccuracy (Babbie, 2014). Other advantages associated with this sampling design include assurance of the sample's representativeness irrespective of sample size since it

has been encompassed in the sampling strategy from the start. In addition, stratified random sampling involves a reduced sample, hence including a reduced amount of time and cash than simple random sampling (Welman *et al.*, 2008).

Probability sampling involves using a section that is statistically illustrative of the research population as a whole and should reflect the characteristics of the population. This implies that provided that the researcher queried the identical questions to everyone in the sample, there is assurance that conclusions from the data could be generalised to the wider population (Anderson, 2008); (Bless and Smith, 1995). In sampling methods belonging to this class, every constituent in the population has an identified, non-zero probability of being chosen. Probability sampling is underpinned on the choice of units of the population based on randomisation or chance (Statistics Canada, 2010). This means that an objective mechanism is used in the selection procedure. There must be no human or subjective meddling in the process (Maree, 2016). This type of sampling is more costly, time-consuming and complex when compared to non-probability sampling (Statistics Canada, 2010).

Probability sampling methods include Simple Random Sampling, Systematic Sampling, Stratified Random Sampling and Cluster Sampling.

#### **4.4.3.1.1 Stratified Random Sampling**

When using stratified sampling, one has to up-front divide the population into sub populations (strata) on the grounds of additional data. After dividing into strata, one extracts a haphazard sample from each subpopulation. In stratified random sampling, one controls the qualified magnitude of every section rather than allowing unsystematic procedures to control it. This allows a representative sample or establishes the quantity of dissimilar sections in a sample (Neuman, 2011); hence it is random compiling based on categories (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

There are three reasons why researchers choose stratified random sampling; (i) to upsurge a sample's statistical efficacy, (ii) to provide sufficient information for analysing the numerous sub-populations or strata; and (iii) to allow diverse enquiry techniques and measures to be utilised in various strata (Cooper and Schindler, 2008).

In stratified sampling, the population is separated into sub populations (strata) on the grounds of additional data. Subsequent to this, a random sample is drawn from every sub- population. In stratified sampling the comparative magnitude of every stratum is controlled instead of permitting arbitrary methods do it. This ensures representativeness or fixes the quantity of dissimilar echelons within the sample (Neuman, 2011). Stratified random sampling encompasses a course of stratification or separation shadowed by the arbitrary assortment of respondents from every stratum (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

The sample consisted of academics in various strata (Professors, Associate Professors, Senior Lecturers, Lecturers, Junior Lecturers, Below Junior Lecturers and those categorised by the institution under “other” (such as developmental lecturers and research fellows). These academics were geographically dispersed across campus sites (that is, at Westville, Howard College, Edgewood, Medical school and Pietermaritzburg). Hence, the sample was segregated in terms of strata both in terms of designation and geographically. Hence, the sample ensured similarity within every section that is, very little dissimilarities or distributions on the variable under study in every section but differences amid divisions hence there would be more between- group variances than same group differences (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

The researcher utilised stratified sampling since there were distinguishable subclasses of participants in the population that were envisaged to have dissimilar bounds on a variable of importance to the investigator. For instance, the investigator wanted to ascertain the association between career plateaus and career stages among academics. Varied responses and, concerns were presented by academics at different levels (Professors, associate professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, junior lecturers, below junior lecturers and academics categorised under “other” (such as developmental lecturers and research fellows). Feedback from academics at different levels will allow the researcher to ascertain the needs and concerns of each subgroup. The unit of analysis was at the group level, hence stratified random sampling was warranted. Stratified random sampling was utilised for both questionnaires and interviews.

#### **4.5 SAMPLE SIZE**

The researcher utilised guidelines from Sekaran and Bougie (2010) to conclude the appropriate sample size grounded on the population of the institution.

The sample size was 253. The university employs 135 Associate professors, 135 Professors, 208 Senior Lecturers, 745 Lecturers, 21 Junior Lecturers, 85 Below Junior Lecturers and 18

categorised as “other”. As per campus site, the sample reflects the following: Westville – 31%; Howard College – 30%; Pietermaritzburg – 20%; Medical School – 13% and Edgewood 6%. This is highlighted in Table 4.4 below.

**TABLE 4.4: PROPORTIONATE STRATIFIED RANDOM SAMPLING: 5 CAMPUS SITES AND RANKS**

	EW	HC	MED	PMB	WST	
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR	2	9	3	7	9	30
BELOW JR. LECTURER	1	2	4	2	10	19
JUNIOR LECTURER	0	2	2	0	1	5
LECTURER	10	56	20	30	49	166
OTHER	0	1	1	0	1	4
PROFESSOR	1	10	4	9	6	30
SENIOR LECTURER	3	12	4	11	16	46
<b>Total</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>300</b>

## 4.6 DATA COLLECTION

Numerous data collection methods could be utilised to collect data from respondents of a study. The various methods have both advantages and disadvantages and some are more beneficial than others in certain circumstances hence an appropriate method needs to be selected by the researcher/s. Data in this study was collected both quantitatively and qualitatively.

### 4.6.1 Sources of data

Information is collated from primary or secondary sources.

#### 4.6.1.1 Primary Data

Remenyi *et al*, (1998: 287) define primary data as data collated from initial sources and unpublished sources such as directories or databases hence it is data collected by researchers purely for their research purposes and is confined to specific issues the researcher is exploring

(O' Leary, 2014; Cooper and Schindler, 2008). Primary data can be sourced from individuals, focus groups or panels of respondents on their opinions regarding certain issues. The internet can also be considered as a primary source as well if questionnaires are disseminated through it. The most common way to collect primary data is through surveys and interviews (O' Leary, 2014). In the study, the researcher collected data electronically and personally administered questionnaires and conducted interviews.

#### **4.6.1.2 Secondary sources**

Secondary data relates to information obtained from existing printed sources such as directories or databases (Remenyi *et al*, 1998: 289). Cooper and Schindler, (2008: 711) view secondary data as research conducted by others and for multiple purposes than the one for which the information is being appraised. Secondary sources include business archives, government publications, trade evaluations provided by the mass media, websites, internet sources and a particular environment or setting can constitute a source of data (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The researcher of the study elicited secondary data from the data management system (Institutional Intelligence: UKZN) which provided the statistics in respect of the population.

#### **4.6.2 Data Collection Methods**

Information gathering techniques are critical components in research. There are many methods of data collection each with their own strengths and weaknesses. The use of the appropriate method/s greatly enhances the research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The data collection methods utilised in the study was extensively explored below.

The information gathering procedures utilised in the study were interviews and questionnaires (primary data) which are popular utilised methods (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010) and the utilisation of secondary data (Institutional Intelligence: UKZN). The study used the mixed methods research. Mixed methods research integrates quantitative and qualitative research within a single study (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

#### 4.6.2.1 Questionnaires

Babbie (2014) explains a questionnaire as a paper entailing questions and additional aspects devised to collect material suitable for investigation. Questionnaires are utilised predominantly in survey research and utilised in experiments, field research and types of observation. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) defines questionnaires as pre-established printed set of questions on which participants document responses from a set of alternatives. A questionnaire is normally utilised once the investigator is aware of what is exactly expected and in what way to quantify the variables of importance. They can be overseen either individually, electronically or by post. In the study, questionnaires were electronically and personally administered. The advantages and disadvantages associated with these type of questionnaires are highlighted by Sekaran and Bougie (2010). Electronic questionnaires were easy to administer and had a wide coverage. It was inexpensive, fast and respondents responded at their leisure. One of the disadvantages the researcher faced included a poor response rate of the questionnaire on the University intranet that compelled the researcher to align the questionnaire to the online data gathering google form. This however, did not significantly increase the response rate. The researcher therefore, conducted the surveys on all five campus sites.

Questionnaires are popular because scholars can acquire statistics honestly effortlessly and the questionnaire responses are straightforwardly coded (Babbie and Mouton, 2002). Though the word “questionnaire” suggests an assemblage of questions, a classic questionnaire would possibly disclose several statements as questions. This is attributed to the researcher showing interest in defining the magnitude to which participants grasp a specific brashness/viewpoint (Babbie and Mouton, 2002). Statements, as well as questions can be used beneficially. Using both approaches, allows more flexibility in the design of the items and can make an interesting questionnaire (Babbie and Mouton, 2002). Questionnaires are a resourceful information gathering instrument which is utilised when the investigator knows exactly what is expected and exactly in what way to assess the variables under study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

Two kinds of questions are used in questionnaires, open and closed questions. Open-ended questions which permits a respondent to respond in whichever manner they please. A closed question on the other hand provides a list of alternatives provided by the researcher which the respondent has to choose from, and which allows respondents to make quick choices (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

The researcher should stay clear of double negatives and the over reliance and use of the words “not” and “only” since they lead to confusion. The researcher avoided questions that had sub-parts that elicited different responses. These are referred to as double-barrelled” questions. Avoiding ambiguous questions are important since they do not exactly deliver the right response to the question (Neuman, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Some questions may expect respondents to recall experiences from their memory. Responses to these questions may create bias (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Questions were not formulated in a manner that allowed participants to furnish responses the investigator desired (Crowne and Marlowe, 1980; Edwards, 1957) cited in Sekaran and Bougie (2010). In the study career plateau and career stages’ statements elicited responses from a set of alternatives. The 5 point Likert scale extending from strongly disagree to strongly agree was utilised for both variables (career plateaus and career stages).

The questionnaire encompassed three segments, Section A, Section B and Section C. Section A entailed the biographical information of the participants for example, age, marital status, job status, campus site, tenure, race, gender and educational level. The personal information of respondents for example, age, marital status and so on, contributed to the classification of data. Personal information responses were subject to a range of responses instead of figures (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

### **Career Plateaus**

Section B focused on career plateaus. The career plateau construct questionnaire was adapted from Joseph (1996) and Lee (1999). The researcher utilised these questionnaires since they aptly accommodated the dimensions (with the respective items) of the study exclusively as opposed to other questionnaires where the dimensions and the items were dispersed. Item 2 from Joseph (1996) was modified from the Career Future Subscale of the Index of Organisational Reactions (IOR: Smith. 1976) revealed in Chao (1990) and items 4, 5 and 6 from Bardwick (1983, 1987). 2 items from Lee (1999) (items 9 and 10) focused on job skills. Items 1, 3, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13 was from Joseph (1996). In Joseph’s (1990) questionnaire, the items loaded on four factors, that is, factor 1 (structural movement and promotion) with a factor loading of 0,796 and 0,706; factor 2 (job content) with a factor loading of 0,746, 0,759, 0,722; factor 3 (personal choice) with a factor loading 0,876, 0,700 and factor 4 job skills with a factor loading 0,632 and 0,703). The Cronbach Alpha values of the study for the three structural items was 0,827; for three content items was 0,704; two personal choice items was 0,443 and three

job skill items was 0,275. The items of the questionnaire related to the two main variables of the study, that is, career stages and career plateaus. There were thirteen career plateau items. Career plateaus was made up of four dimensions, that is, hierarchical/structural plateauing; content plateauing, job skill plateauing and personal plateauing.

In Joseph's (1996) questionnaire, the initial three items measured views of structural/hierarchical plateauism and included some items such as "Promotions are limited at the university due the university's structure" and "Promotional opportunities have been limited at the university". The next three items focused on content plateauism such as "they knew everything about their jobs", and "if they found their academic job challenging". Items seven to ten focused on job skill and asked respondents "if they were technically current and updated in their academic skills through seminars and extra training" and "if their job skills were transferable to other institutions of higher learning". Items eleven to thirteen related to personal plateauing and included statements such as "if they would not opt to advance at the university due to family considerations"; "if they did not desire promotion because of additional responsibilities". Items nine and ten which relate to job skills were adapted from Lee (1999) and included items such as "I am constantly learning new things on my job" and "I like the contents of my job". Lee (1999) in his study focused on job skill in terms of a concept he referred to as "professional plateauing" which is occupational skill specific. Participants were requested to show their level of agreement with statements on a Likert Scale relating to their career as an academic on a scale of 1-5 with 1- strongly disagree (SD), 2 disagree (D), 3 neutral (N), 4 agree (A) and 5- strongly agree (SA).

### **The Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI)**

Section C focused on career stages. Items for career stages were adapted from The ACCI by Smart (1994). The researcher identified the ACCI as an appropriate instrument since it is a "measure of attitudes deemed essential to career and vocational adaptability". The ACCI was designed to assess an individual's ability to plan and forethought in watching and thinking ahead about one's work and working life" (Super *et al.*, 1988 cited in Smart, 1994). The ACCI provides evidence of its factorial validity, which is encouraging and aligned to findings for the CDI (Smart and Peterson, 1997). The factor analysis items utilised in the study by Smart (1994) are as follows:

**TABLE 4.5: FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR ACCI**

item 1	(0,82)	item 15	(0,49)
item 2	(0,80)	item 16	(0,36)
item 3	(0,81)	item 17	(0,81)
item 4	(0,75)	item 18	(0,77)
item 5	(0,73)	item 19	(0,74)
item 6	(0,67)	item 20	(0,73)
item 7	(0,58)	item 21	(0,70)
item 8	(0,48)	item 22	(0,57)
item 9	(0,66)	item 23	(0,36)
item 10	(0,65)	item 24	(0,83)
item 11	(0,63)	item 25	(0,60)
item 12	(0,62)	item 26	(0,43)
item 13	(0,60)	item 27	(0,42)
item 14	(0,55)	item 28	(0,37)

The ACCI has relevance for the study, in that, the ACCI is based on the concept of adaptability instead of career maturity. The authors of the ACCI state the ACCI is a measures attitudes necessary for vocation and vocational adaptableness. It is made to evaluate planning and forethought in observing and forward thinking about an individual's work and working life. Super *et al.*, (1988), are of the opinion that the “perception of vocation adaptableness, or the outlooks and data required for the enthusiasm to handle with changing work and working circumstances, underpins the development, regulation and authentication of the ACCI.

The above table highlights the Factor loadings for the items of the ACCI of the study.

### **Career Stages**

There were twenty-eight career stages items. Career stages were made up of four dimensions: exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement. In terms of career plateaus, items 1, 2 and 3 related to the structural/hierarchical dimension, items 4, 5 and 6 to job content; items 7, 8, 9 and 10 to job skill and items 11, 12 and 13 to personal plateauing. Career stage items 1 to 8 covered the dimension exploration, 9 to 16 relate to the dimension establishment, 17 to 23

were focused on the dimension maintenance and items 24 to 28 was in relation to the dimension disengagement.

In the career stages questionnaire, some items relating to the exploration stage were, “finding the line of work I am best suited for” and “Clarifying my ideas about the type of work I would really enjoy”.

The establishment phase covered items such as “Achieving stability in my academic occupation” and “Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started”. In terms of the maintenance career stage, some items included, “Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field” and “Developing new knowledge and/or skills to help me improve in my academic work”. In terms of the final career stage, disengagement, some items utilised in the questionnaire included, “Having a good life in retirement” and “Doing things I have always wanted to do but never had time for”. Academics were requested to indicate their level of concern regarding key dimensions such as exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates no concern (NC), 2 slight concern (SC), 3 neutral (N), 4 concern (C) and 5 great concern (GC).

#### **4.6.2.2 Administration of the Questionnaire**

Questionnaires in a study could be administered personally, electronically or through the post. There are advantages and disadvantages associated with each (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The researcher was requested to utilise electronic questionnaires due to stipulations by the Registrar of UKZN. Questionnaires were uploaded and electronically administered on the University intranet. The advantages associated with the method included, reaching respondents that were spread across different campus sites, it was cost saving, they were easily designed and administered and respondents’ replied at their leisure. In addition, questionnaires can be attractively presented and are more appealing to the respondents cosmetically through aids such as google-forms (as used in this study). Contrary to this, in order to reach respondents needed to have access to computers, laptops and facilities and must be willing to participate in the study. Given busy work schedules, there was some apathy from some respondents to partake in the research.

Another drawback for this research in particular was that the researcher had to upload the questionnaire (ANNEXURE 6), informed consent (ANNEXURE 5), gatekeeper’s letter

(ANNEXURE 3) and ethical clearance documents (ANNEXURE 2) on a daily basis since the notice system did not allow for a protracted period for the notice to run on the intranet. This was time-consuming for the researcher since it had to be done daily before the close of business each day. Due to the low response rate of electronically collecting questionnaires, the researcher sought permission from the Research and Ethics Committee to administer questionnaires across all five campuses that was subsequently granted by the university.

#### **4.6.2.3 Interviews**

O'Leary (2014) defines an interview as a data collection method, which involves researchers seeking open-ended answers associated with questions, topics or themes. An interview as viewed by Babbie (2014) is an alternative method of collecting data orally and recording the responses. Face-to-face or one-to-one interviews are one of the most prevalent methods to research. A researcher may opt to utilise telephonic or one-to-one interviews. The researcher opted to use one-to-one interviews.

Structured interviews have a precise interview schedule (Bernard, 2006). Structured interviews follow a predetermined set of procedures and is known for specific questions which are confined to a set of questions. Irrespective, all interviewees are asked the same questions (Yin, 2011). Unstructured interviews involves sitting down with the interviewee and engaging in conversation. This type of interview is chosen due to vast amounts of time available. The interviewer has a fairly good idea of what he/she wants to pose during the session. Interviewees are frank and are at liberty to express themselves in their own way (Bernard, 2006). Types of questions posed in an unstructured interview range from personal questions, actual enquiries about others, informant truthful questions, questions about outlooks, enquiries about views, questions about normative values and morals and requests about knowledge (Bryman and Bell, 2014).

O'Leary (2014) further highlights issues and complexities associated with interviews. The author states there is no better way to source information than to talk to people and find out first hand their feelings. Interviews she states are popular due to one being able to develop rapport and trust; extracting rich, qualitative information, providing opportunities for both verbal and non-verbal data; its flexibility to approach the respondents from different angles regarding the matter at hand and it has enough structure to generate standardised information. The author also stipulates the many limitations associated with the method. These vary from

ethic accessibility to respondents; lack of anonymity; being in a position to lead the discussion and creating a good impression for further dialogue (O'Leary, 2014). There should be sensitivity to factors such as age, gender and cultural background and encouragement for open-ended questions, prompting for further information and or clarity, making provision for small talk, harnessing good interviewer skills, posing important questions in the middle of the session and repeating responses neutrally (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

#### **4.6.2.3.1 The Interview Schedule**

The investigator utilised face-to-face, semi-structured interviews, since flexibility was wanted to extract important information (Dawson, 2002). The interview allowed the researcher to extract in-depth information and other issues pertaining to both the variables, which were not covered in the questionnaire (ANNEXURES 7 and 8). Information for the interviews were extracted from the literature and research objectives, questions and/statements regarding the variables of interest were formulated. Questions were formulated on the two variables of the study, that is, career plateaus and career stages.

#### **Career Plateaus and career stages**

There were nine questions in total: four on career plateaus and five on career stages. Numerous reasons have compelled the researcher to utilise this method. In addition to their high response rate, interviewing allowed complex and lengthy questions to be posed. An opportunity was presented to pose all types of questions and to prompt responses (Neuman, 2011). In such a qualitative semi-structured interview, the relationship between the interviewer and the person being interviewed was not scripted since the interviewer had an approximation of what questions needed to be posed and was able to adjust questions accordingly to suit the setting and conversational mode. The semi-structured interview entailed two-way communication which involved intense listening, probing, enquiry, open-ended and closed-ended responses. Participants used their own terminologies specific to their content and domain (Yin, 2011).

#### **Interviews with academic leaders**

Twenty three academic leaders were interviewed in total across all five campuses. The intention of the interview was to gauge their perspectives on career stages and career plateaus as line managers (academic leaders). The academic leaders were academics of various designations (Professors, Senior lecturers and so on). Their responses were then compared and

contrasted with the responses from the questionnaires of academics. Items in the interview covered generic information on both variables. For example, interviewees were asked if they understood the concepts (career plateaus and career stages); what in their opinion were the underlying factors which contributed to career plateaus in the university; including what support structures were at the university to assist in this regard. Career stage items included aspects such as what their understanding of career stages were; the degree to which they observed their subordinates vocation and associated wants changing over time; how the School/university provided support/assistance to those who were experiencing challenges at varied phases of their vocations. Respondents were convinced to answer as widely as they could. Confidentiality and anonymity was assured to all interviewees prior to the interview. In addition, all respondents were requested to sign an informed consent document.

#### **4.6.3 The Pilot Study**

Welman *et al.*, (2008) state it is necessary to “try out” a new instrument through a pilot study. This means administering the questionnaire to a restricted amount of subjects from the same population. It is viewed as a “dress rehearsal”. In-house pretesting was done for both the interview and the questionnaire to warrant that questions were understood and explicit and the wording or measurement were problem free.

Few participants were utilised to mandate the suitability of the questions and their understanding. Any problems were identified prior to embarking on the actual study. This eliminated bias. Feedback from these participants assisted in gauging their feelings about the questionnaire and the interview and their reactions towards completing the questionnaire (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

In terms of the questionnaire, the pilot study covered approximately ten percentage of the sample. The intention of the researcher was to distribute thirty-five questionnaires across the five UKZN campuses, distributing seven questionnaires to academics per campus site (Edgewood Campus; Howard College, Medical School, Pietermaritzburg, and the Westville Campus) respectively. The intention of the researcher was to target at least one academic from the respective levels, that is, from levels of Professor, Associate Professor, Senior lecturer, lecturer, junior lecturer, below junior lecturer and other academics categorised under “other” such as developmental lecturer and research fellows). This, however, posed challenges since it was difficult to locate academics due to ‘the-fees-must-fall’ debacle, which was escalating

amidst violence on the various campuses at that time. Questionnaires were therefore disseminated to those who were available at the time of the pilot study. Feedback from respondents did not indicate any major concern with the questions apart from one respondent from the Pietermaritzburg campus who indicated that she found no relevance with the career stages' questions. A respondent from the Westville campus indicated the need to highlight the rating scale on each page. The researcher responded to the first concern by highlighting the relevance (and need) for the items and dimensions of career stages, which is critical to the study. Regarding the second concern, the researcher obliged by highlighting the rating scale on each page of the questionnaire.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with three academic leaders on each campus site (Westville, Howard College, Edgewood, Medical School and Pietermaritzburg respectively) with the aim of assisting the researcher to unearth preliminary concerns pertaining to the two key dimensions of the study, that is, career plateaus and career stages. This interaction aided the researcher in gaining a different perspective on the variables. Regarding the interview questions the researcher needed to define terminologies such as "career plateaus", "career stages" and respondents needed elaboration and clarity on the types of career stages and types of career plateaus. This was understandable since the concepts are discipline-and-occupation specific hence they posed as a challenge to respondents across varied colleges in various disciplines. Question 2.5 in particular under the career stages posed as ambiguous and confusing ("Has the re-evaluation of subordinates' careers ever come up for discussion at any career stage). The researcher simplified the question for clarity. This also gave the researcher an indication that adjustments to this question was imperative for the actual study.

In the final study, Simple random sampling was utilised to choose the interviewees. Simple random sampling is the elementary sampling technique assumed in statistical calculations in social research (Babbie, 2014). Simple random sampling involves identifying all components of the population, listing those elements, and randomly selecting from this list. All elements have an equal chance of inclusion, considered fair and allows for generalisation (O Leary, 2014).

#### **4.6.4 Reliability of the Questionnaire**

Reliability, according to Sekaran and Bougie (2010) is a test of how steadily an assessing tool processes what it is expected to measure. In other words, there is consistency in answers by utilising the same instrument more than once (Bernard, 2006). Reliability is another term for consistency or repeatability over time (Greener, 2008). Reliability is concerned with replicability of research outcomes and if they would be recurring or not in an additional study using related approaches (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Other synonymous terms include “trustworthy”, “consistency” “dependability” or “confirmability” (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Many different categories of reliability exist. They are test-retest reliability, equivalent form reliability and internal reliability (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Maree, 2016; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Neuman, 2011 and Welman *et al.*, 2008).

##### **4.6.4.1 Test Retest Reliability**

The test-retest reliability tool is ascertained by directing the measuring tool to the identical respondents more than once. The initial set of scores were then paralleled to the second set by computing the correlation coefficient. Such a coefficient would take on a value close to zero if the instrument has low reliability, and close to one if it has a high reliability. The problem associated with this method is the “memory effect” – if the time lapse between both occasions are short, the respondents may remember their responses on the first occasion and then simply respond in the same way. This would then result in artificially high reliability (Maree, 2016).

##### **4.6.4.2 Equivalent Form Reliability**

Equivalent form (equivalence) reliability is applicable once researchers use several pointers (this is when a construct is tallied with several specific measures (for example, many items in a measuring instrument all assess the identical paradigm). Multiple indicators refer to the use of multiple procedures or several specific measures to provide first-hand evidence of the levels of a variable. Sometimes, it is essential to determine the equality of two tests, for instance, a pretest and posttest. In essence, it would be unsuitable to have one form of a test be simpler than the other because the end product gained based on treatment would be falsely high or low. In this technique of establishing reliability, two varieties of a test are directed to the same

individual and a correlation coefficient is ascertained (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Equivalence reliability can be verified with the split half method (Neuman, 2011).

#### **4.6.4.3 Internal Reliability**

With internal reliability, the principle concern is whether or not the pointers that entail the measure or the index are dependable (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Items representing the same concept must be able to measure the same concept independently to enable respondents to attach the same overall meaning to each item to establish correlation (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). This type of reliability is also called internal consistency. Once numerous aspects are ascertained to assess a particular concept, there must be a high amount of resemblance amid them since they are expected to evaluate one communal construct. An amount of this level of resemblance is a sign of the internal reliability of the tool (Maree, 2016). To establish internal consistency, inter-item consistency reliability is used. Inter-item consistency reliability reflects the dependability of responses to all items in a measuring device. The coefficient that would be utilised to ascertain the internal reliability of the instrument is called Cronbach Alpha coefficient. It is established on inter- correlations. A high internal consistency reflects a high degree of generalisability across the items in the test. For example, if a respondent fares well on a few items in a measurement or test, there is a high possibility the individual will fare the same on the remainder of the items in the measurement or test (Welman *et al.*, 2008). The higher the coefficients, the stronger the measuring tool (Sekaran and Bougie 2010).

Validity is defined and a brief discussion of the different forms of validity follows.

#### **4.6.5 Validity of the Questionnaire**

Validity is a test of how precisely a tool assesses what it is expected to assess (Maree, 2016). Validity pertains to the preciseness of instruments, data and findings in research. Nothing equates to its importance in research (Bernard, 2006). In essence, validity focuses on measuring if the correct idea is measured, and consistency with the strength and steadiness of measure. There are various categories of validity such as face validity, content validity, construct validity and criterion validity (Maree, 2016).

#### **4.6.5.1 Face Validity**

Face validity pertains to that worth of a measurement that allows it to be an adequate measure of some variable. For example, the regularity of presence at religious events is seen as a person's religiosity seems logical without too much of justification (Babbi, 2014). The researcher can see that it is a valid method of researching the 'question' at face value (Greener, 2008). Establishing face validity involves observing operational indicators of a concept and deciding whether or not face value of the indicators make sense (Bernard, 2006).

#### **4.6.5.2 Content Validity**

Content validity is attained when an instrument has relevant content for measuring a complex concept or construct (Bernard, 2006). The content validity of a quantifying tool is the extent to which it affords suitable exposure of the probing questions underpinning the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2008). If the measuring tool comprises a typical sample of the world of subject of concern, then content validity is worthy. To assess the content validity of a tool, one must find consensus on what aspects entail adequate coverage (Cooper and Schindler, 2008). To ensure content validity, the researcher normally presents a provisional description to experts in the arena for commentaries before concluding (Maree, 2016). Face validity is part of content validity. Face validity is diligently linked to content validity and relates to the understanding of the tool and how easy it is to persuade others that content validity applies (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

Content validity was utilised in the study, since content validity ensured a satisfactory and illustrative group of items tapped the variables of interest. Content validity is similar to face validity. Content validity uses a more formal, statistics-based approach.

#### **4.6.5.3 Construct Validity**

Construct validity is a category of measurement validity that utilizes several pointers or indicators and has two subtypes: how sound the pointers of one construct come together or how sound the indicators of other constructs deviate (Neuman, 2011). Construct validity pertains to the amount to which a test measures whatever it is supposed to measure (Bryman and Bell,

2011). This type of validity attests how sound the outcomes acquired from the usage of the measure fit the concepts around which the assessment is considered. This is done via convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is ascertained when the scores attained through both tools evaluating the identical concepts are vastly interrelated. Discriminate validity on the other hand is ascertained when, pinned on theory, both variables are foreseen to be related and the scores attained by assessing them are empirically found to be so (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

#### **4.6.5.4 Criterion Validity**

Criterion validity revolves around the magnitude to which analytic and selection measurement or tests appropriately forecast the pertinent measure. The appropriate criterion pertains to the variable which is to be detected or on which success is prophesied correspondingly (Welman and Kruger, 2001).

Two kinds of criterion validity: predictive validity and concurrent validity. Criterion validity is predictive validity which relates to whether an instrument lets you predict precisely some other aspect one is interested in (Bernard, 2006). Predictive validity deals with the use one might eventually want to make from a particular measure (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Concurrent validity pertains to the worth of a test in carefully linking to additional measures of recognized validity (Kothari, 2004).

#### **4.6.6 Trustworthiness of Data in Qualitative Research**

Reliability and validity are key measures in quantitative studies, however trustworthiness is of paramount prominence in qualitative research. Evaluating trustworthiness is the critical test of your data examination, outcomes and deductions. There are four criteria that should be deliberated by qualitative researchers in the quest of a trustworthy study: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability (Maree, 2016).

Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Maree, 2016), describe conformability as the point of impartiality or the magnitude to which the conclusions of a study are moulded by the participants and not by researcher partiality, inspiration, or, concern. Confirmability concerns and ensures that, while recognising that absolute impartiality is unattainable in social research,

the researcher can be shown that he or she has not knowingly permitted individual standards or theoretic dispositions to influence the research (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

In addition to the four trustworthiness criteria, Guba and Lincoln (1985) cited in Bryman and Bell, (2011: 398-399) suggest the criteria 'authenticity'. The criteria includes fairness, which reflects on whether the research fairly signifies diverse perspectives between affiliates of the social background; ontological fairness, which reflects on whether the research has assisted participants reach an enhanced understanding of their social environment; educative genuineness, if the enquiry has assisted members to value healthier viewpoints of other adherents of their social background; catalytic legitimacy, if the study has been represented as a stimulus to participants to take part in a deed to alter their conditions and premeditated genuineness; if the research has sanctioned members to yield actions needed for furthering endeavours.

## **4.7 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data was analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. Descriptive and inferential statistics was utilised to scrutinize the statistics and discussed in detail below.

### **4.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis**

Descriptive statistics describes numerical data and was discussed at length in the research.

#### **4.7.1.1 Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics is a general category of unpretentious data utilised by scholars to define straightforward configurations in the data set (Neuman, 2011, 386). The intention is to present quantitative descriptions in a convenient and intelligent form. Descriptive statistics provide measures of central tendency, dispersion and distribution form. Such measures vary by data types that is nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio and are standard programmes in statistic programmes (O'Leary, 2014). Numerical data is categorised by the quantity of variables included: univariate (for one variable), bivariate (two variables) or multivariate (three or more variables) (Neuman, 2011). Descriptive statistics are utilised to outline the elementary aspects of a data set and are instrumental in summarising variables. In essence descriptive statistics

provide measures of dispersion, central tendency and distribution shape. These measures were discussed below.

While measures of central tendency are standard and are a highly useful form of data decision and simplification they need to be complemented with information on variability. There are several ways to understand dispersion that are appropriate for different variable types (O’Leary, 2014). Basic questions relating to data concerns central tendency. Measures of central tendency will further assist in understanding the data (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

#### **4.7.1.1.1 Measures of Central Tendency**

Methods of central tendency (or arithmetical means) gives the indication of the point at which items have a potential to congregate. Such a measure is viewed as the most demonstrative for the whole quantity of information (Kothari, 2004). There are three ways to measure central tendency that is, mean; median and mode (O’Leary, 2014).

##### **(a) The Mean**

The mean is the furthestmost conjoint degree of central tendency and might be specified as the worth one gets by apportioning the whole values of numerous specified items in a series by the overall items (Kothari, 2004). The mean is the average score for a group (also called the arithmetic mean). The overall responses for both questionnaires was determined by the mean. The mean is the average, which provides the general picture of the data (Welman *et al.*, 2008). The mean lends itself to interval data (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

##### **(b) The Median**

The median is the principal item in a group or interpretations where they are arranged in upward or downward sequence (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). To find the median, one simply arranges values in ascending or descending order and find the middle value (O’Leary, 2014). The median lends itself to ordinal data (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

##### **(c) The Mode**

The mode of a group of scores is the score value which has the uppermost field of incidence (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Technically, it is not calculated but observed. One locates it by viewing the data and seeing which variable occurs the most (Bernard, 2006). In some instances, a group of observations would not allow itself to a significant illustration either through the

mean or median, but can be described by the maximum repeatedly occurring phenomena. Nominal data lends themselves to description only by the mode as measure of central tendency.

#### **4.7.1.1.2 Measures of Dispersion**

Measures of dispersion comprise the range, the standard deviation, the variance (where the measure of central tendency is the mean) and the interquartile range (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

##### **(a) The Range**

The range pertains to extreme values in a group of observations (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). It consist of largest and smallest scores. The range is the simplest (Neuman, 2011).

##### **(b) Variance**

The variance is the average squared deviation from the mean of the measures in a set of data (Bernard, 2006).

##### **(c) Standard Deviation**

Standard deviation is the most challenging amount of dispersion to work out; it is likewise the utmost wide-ranging and mostly utilised. Standard deviation is defined as a degree of dispersion for one variable that reflects an average remoteness between the scores and the mean. The standard deviation is calculated from the variance (Bernard, 2006). The best known and most frequent measure of dispersion for a sample of interval data is the standard deviation usually depicted by  $s/sd$  (Bernard, 2006). In the study, standard deviation was utilised to analyse the dispersion of the overall responses to the dimensions.

##### **(d) The interquartile range**

The interquartile range is the measure of dispersion for the mean which is made up of fifty percentage of the observations. It is useful when comparisons are needed for several groups (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The interquartile range avoids extreme scores, either high or low scores (Bernard, 2006).

#### **4.7.1.2 Inferential Statistics**

Inferential statistics pertains to making deductions about the population indices on the grounds of the matching indices sought from the samples drawn randomly from the population (Welman and Kruger, 2001). Inferential statistics build on probability theory to examine hypotheses formally, allow inferences from a sample to a population, and to test if descriptive results are possibly due to random factors or to an actual association (Neuman, 2011). Pearson Product Moment Correlation, T-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Multiple Regression Analysis was used to analyse the data and would be discussed below.

##### **4.7.1.2.1 Pearson Product Moment Correlation**

In research, one would like to confirm how one variable is connected to the other variable. In other words, one wants to ascertain the nature, the direction and worth of the bivariate association of the variables utilised in the research (that is the association with career plateaus and career stages) (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). A Pearson correlation matrix provides the information. The Pearson correlation matrix shows the direction, power and importance of the bivariate relationships of all the variables of the research. The connection is ascertained by evaluating the dissimilarities in one variable as another variable also varies (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The Pearson product moment correlation was used in the study to ascertain if career plateaus and career stages are associated with each other.

##### **4.7.1.2.2 T-test**

A t-test establishes whether an observed variance in the means of two groups are significantly big to be ascribed to an alteration in some variable or if it merely could have taken place by chance (Welman and Kruger, 2001; Bernard, 2006). The t-test is suitable to be used when two independent groups need to be equated based on their average score on a quantifiable variable; when the average scores on two quantifiable variables need to be compared in a single sample or when the quantifiable variable is equated with a stated continual value in a single sample (Maree, 2007). In the study hence, the t-test was utilised to ascertain whether the variances in reactions of respondents were attributed to the effect of one of the variables (for example, career plateaus) or if it occurred coincidentally.

#### **4.7.1.2.3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

ANOVA is a method that applies to a set of two or more means (Bernard, 2006). ANOVA is used when there is more than two groups, and the researcher wants to conclude their result on the dependent variable. An interaction result occurs when the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable varies as a function of the effect of the other independent variable (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991). In the study, the analysis of variance was utilised to ascertain statistically significant dissimilarities in the perception of the study dimensions (career plateaus and their sub-dimensions and the career stages and their sub-dimensions) among the participant groups (professors, associate professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, junior lecturers, below junior lecturers).

#### **4.7.1.2.4 Multiple Regression Analysis**

When there are more than two independent variables, the analysis regarding the association is known as the multiple correlation and the equation outlining such a correlation as the multiple regression equation (Kothari, 2004). Correlations are useful in describing the type of relationship that exists between variables, but psychologists frequently want to predict one of those two variables from the other. The processes whereby prediction equations are developed are called regression analysis (Schmitt and Klimoski, 1991). When the independent variables are mutually regressed alongside the dependent variable by justifying the variance, the individual correlations get collapsed into what is called multiple correlations. When additional predictors are jointly regressed against the criterion variable, the investigation is known as multiple regression analysis. When the R square value, the F statistic and its significance levels are acknowledged, the results can be interpreted (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Multiple regression analysis was utilised to ascertain whether the variance in career stages can be expounded by the career plateau status. Multiple regression analysis was utilised to establish which career plateau dimensions are the best predictors of each career stage.

## **4.7.2 Coding of Quantitative Data**

After data is collected through questionnaires there is a need for the data to be coded and captured. A format can be set up prior to capturing the data. Provision needs to be made for outliers, inconsistencies and nil responses (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

### **4.7.2.1 Coding and Data Entry**

Data coding is the initial step which entails allocating a number to responses obtained in order for the responses to be captured on a database. A coding sheet is a good way to document the data, this avoids reverting to the questionnaires hence eliminating confusion, more especially if there are many questions and questionnaires (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

### **4.7.2.2 Coding the Responses**

In the data document, the actual number chosen by the respondent is recorded for example, in item number one, the respondent has chosen number 2 and so on. For demographic variables the researcher has to utilise a coding approach, for example, different numbers denoting different choices. At this stage the researcher should be aware of how non-responses were accommodated and must be applied consistently. Due to the element of human error, there is a need to check responses by utilising the systematic sampling procedure, where every *n*th form coded can be checked for precision. In the event of any discrepancies, there may be a need to check items again (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

## **4.7.3 Qualitative Data Analysis**

Qualitative data analysis was also utilised in the research. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011, 397) cited in Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014) describe qualitative data analysis as “the method of instilling direction, configuration and value to the volume of information”. Information can be extracted from an extensive array of primary and secondary sources, such as people, focus groups, company records, government publications and the Internet. The examination of qualitative data is intended at making interpretations from an overpowering volume of information. There are many ways of analysing qualitative data

and methods are increasing as researchers try to make sense of our complex social and subjective world. When analysing, qualitative researchers frequently use clinical data analysis. This relates to the process of data collection, followed by a second more powerful round of data collection in which hypotheses are tested and adjusted with the process ongoing until a vibrant and thorough comprehensive analysis of data is reached (Yin, 2011).

Researchers utilising the traditional forms of research are believers that rigour or exactness and trustworthiness in directing and reporting is denoted by many indicators which are internal and external validity, dependability and impartiality. Qualitative study possesses its own particular measures that align themselves to the concept of rigour (Mauch and Park, 2003). Ford (1997) cited in Mauch and Park (2003) draws parallel between the two terminologies from the two types of research:

**TABLE 4.6: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH**

QUALITATIVE	QUANTITATIVE
Credibility	External validity
Transferability	Internal validity
Dependability	Reliability
Conformability	Objectivity

Mauch and Park. (2003: 20)

There are many types of qualitative data analysis. The choice would depend largely on the research area, individual choices and the period, paraphernalia and monies on hand to the researcher.

#### **4.7.3.1 Formats for Analysis**

A format is recommended prior to analysis. This is generated from a transcript and answers from field trips and memos which has been compiled by the researcher. The researcher in the study audio recorded the interviews with academic leaders. In addition, to the researcher also took notes during the session.

#### **4.7.3.1.1 Thematic and Content Analysis**

Thematic analysis is highly inductive and themes were removed from the data. In this type of analysis, the information collated and investigation occur at the same time. Background reading contributes to the analysis in as far as providing explanation on emerging themes. Aligned to this method, is comparative analysis. In this technique, information provided individuals are matched and compared until no new issues are identified. Both content analysis and thematic analysis are normally utilised in the identical venture, with the investigator analysing between transcripts, memos, notes and research literature (Yin, 2011). The researcher utilised thematic analysis to analyse the data.

With content analysis, the process is more automated since the investigation is done after the data is received. The most widely used method is to code the content called content analysis. Each transcript is assigned codes (numbers/words) suitable for open-ended questions (Yin, 2011).

#### **4.7.3.1.2 Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis is also referred to as conversational analysis by some researchers. This method aligns itself to aspects of speech and how individuals speak about a topic, their choice of descriptions and how they take turns in conversation and so on. Much of this analysis is reflective and intuitive (Yin, 2011).

Despite the numerous methods of analysis, the process typically includes minimising the quantity of raw information, scrutinizing significance from trivialities, ascertaining important sequences and building an outline for interconnecting the basis of what data reflects (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport, 2011) cited in Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014). The distinguishing feature of content analysis is that it is used to collect textual content. The researcher collects the content of text (words, images, pictures, sculptures, paintings, documents, movies, videos and so on). The verbal responses are transcribed from interviews, conversations, meetings and so on. Transcribing data refers to copying and converting information to a written or visual form in order for it to be analysed in a systematic way. In this instance interviews which were recorded on a digital recorder retyped so that the researcher could analyse the interviews in the form of textual significance through thematic and content

analysis. In the study, transcribing the interviews assisted the researcher to make sense of the information when it was presented in written form.

#### **4.7.3.1.3 Coding and Categorisation of Qualitative Data**

The initial stage in information investigation is the minimisation of information via coding and categorisation. Coding is a logical procedure through which the qualitative information the researcher has collated, are minimised, reorganized and assimilated in theory form. The aim of coding is to aid the researcher to deduce valuable deductions about the information. Codes are labels given to units of texts which were later grouped and turned into categories, as evidenced in the study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2011).

Strauss and Corbin (1990) cited in Bryman and Bell (2011), distinguish between three stages of coding: open coding, axial coding and selective coding. Open-coding is a procedure which breaks down, examines, compares, conceptualises and categorises data. The coding process is descriptive and highlights words, phrases and sentences. Axial coding is a set of processes which puts information back organized in novel means after open coding by assembling acquaintances between groupings. By creating this link of codes to context to consequences to configurations of interactions and to reasons the researcher is able to group all the descriptive concepts into higher order explanatory categories. In selective coding, the manner of selecting the main grouping in a sequence linking it to other groupings, authenticating those associations and populating groupings that require additional enhancement and expansion is essential. The three kinds are dissimilar levels of coding and each communicates to a dissimilar point in the elaboration of groupings (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

In order to identify categories or codes the researcher has to label them. These labels are referred to as indicators. Labelling can be devised from common terms that emanated from the interviews. The researcher may also choose to label his own codes into different dimensions or by the usage of a hierarchical conceptual framework. It is important to label every code, theme or category and apply it to the text consistently. When describing codes, themes and categories ensure there are sufficient categories to accommodate all data, themes and categories should be distinct and there should be specific themes and categories (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout, 2014). When interpreting the analysed data, one will comb for emerging arrays, relations, and clarifications in one's data.

Data instead of theory or framework should drive the coding. In qualitative research, original field-notes would entail precise items such as field actions and environments, objects and specific opinions, explanations, and other views expressed by field interviewees. Linked to these items are aspects such as time of the day, place and people involved. Items which were similar were assigned the same code. Coding helps to sift items into similar and dissimilar groups. Once sorted the features of the group can be examined hence allowing one to gain insight into them (Yin, 2011).

The researcher utilised thematic analysis for interpreting the qualitative data. This is a widely utilised method in qualitative data analysis methods (Bryman and Bell, 2014). The purpose of thematic analysis is to recognize, consider and describe configurations or themes, across a data set (Bryman and Bell, 2014: 305). The meanings of thematic analysis varies with individuals. Some prefer to view the theme as a code, whereas some individuals may view it as built up of codes. Thematic coding is also viewed as conceptual or concept coding (Du-Ploy Cilliers *et al.*, 2014). Through this process, deductive coding was utilised by using a list of established themes the researcher was familiar with. These themes are normally extracted from the literature review (Du-Ploy Cilliers, 2014). The researcher identified, set aside and contextualised key aspects of data that were aligned to the research questions underpinned on the conceptual framework. The researcher paid close attention and was vigilant when using the coding scheme in order to identify new and unexpected codes which was added to the existing coding scheme (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The information received from interviews which were analysed thematically, and with appropriate use of literature to substantiate the findings. The interview data was useful and was integrated in many instances as it was related to significant aspects raised during the interview process. This was indicative of their positive or negative experiences of respondents.

The reliability of a measure was ascertained by testing for reliability and steadiness. Consistency reflects soundness the items assessing concepts relate together as a set, and are positively related to one another. The reliability of the questionnaire was established by using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha, which is utilised for multi-point scaled items. Cronbach's Alpha is calculated in respect of average inter correlations among the items gauging the concepts. The closer the Cronbach's Alpha to 1, the greater the internal consistency reliability. In several aspects Cronbach's Alpha is an adequate test of internal consistency reliability (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Cronbach's Alpha was used to establish internal consistency reliability. This

was done for the overall questionnaire in addition to the dimensions pertaining to each questionnaire.

Qualitative studies embraces the core principles of reliability and validity, but they are applied differently. In qualitative studies, one considers the data sources and employ multiple measurements. It is accepted in qualitative research that various researchers who utilise different or alternative measures may find distinctive results. This can be ascribed to data collection which is seen as a collaborative method in which certain researchers interact in a developing location whose setting commands using a special concoction of measures that cannot be done again. These assorted blend of measures and collaborations with dissimilar investigators are useful since they bring out dissimilar components or magnitudes of the topic at hand (Neuman, 2011).

Qualitative researchers prefer to utilise the term “dependability” as opposed to reliability (Babbie, 2014). In order to ascertain the worth of research in terms of dependability, investigators must implement an “auditing” tactic. This ensures that thorough annals are stored of all stages of the study procedure – problem preparation, choice of respondents, research notes, interview transcripts, data examination and conclusions in an easy to get way. Peers then act as auditors, most likely throughout the duration of the study and undoubtedly at the culmination in order to ascertain if proper procedures were undertaken (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The analysis process should be documented so that another person can see the decisions one made, how they went about the analysis and how one arrived at the interpretations (Maree, 2016). Recordings also assist participants and other investigators occupied in the same environments to assess if reliable conclusions from the data has been drawn (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

#### **4.7.4 Instruments to Measure Validity**

The validity of the questionnaire will be statistically analysed using Factor Analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was used to establish if factor analysis can be performed. Factorial Validity was performed by sending the information for factor analysis and to ascertain if the questionnaires gauges what they are supposed to gauge (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The purpose of factor analysis is to identify which items belong together, by determining their similarity in terms of measuring the same dimension or factor. Since the factor is common to the items measuring it, this technique is

also known as common factor analysis (Maree, 2007). Investigators search for variables that correlate with one other, each group referred to as a factor. Factor analysis was utilised to establish complete arrangements found in correlation coefficients and is particularly valuable when analysing outcomes from surveys (Mauch and Park, 2003).

In qualitative studies, researchers are more focused in attaining authenticity, credibility and transferability. Authenticity means offering a just, authentic, and well-adjusted justification of social life from the standpoint of the people that embrace it every day. The researcher focused on capturing an inside view and providing a thorough explanation of how people researchers study, comprehend events. The qualitative substitutes for validity are ecological validity or natural history methods. Both emphasise highlighting the insider's view to others. Past scholars use in-house and outside disparagements to establish if the proof is actual. Qualitative investigators follow to the central tenets of validity, to be honest (to sidestep false or one-sided versions) and aim to form a constricted *fit* between understandings, thoughts and declarations around the social world and whatever is truly prevailing in its world (Neuman, 2011).

The formation of the trustworthiness of outcomes involves guaranteeing that the investigation is conceded according to the principles of moral standing and yielding research findings to the people who were considered to confirm that the researcher has properly assumed their social world (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Techniques to enhance credibility include prolonging data collection to elicit 'normal' behaviour and a need to also collect data as widely as possible (Massey and Grass, 2003).

Transferability is the capability of the results to be applied to same situations and delivering the same outcomes. This will allow for generalisation within an approach that does not lend itself to generalised findings. It is in other words the degree to which the results and analysis can be applied beyond a specific research project (Du Ploy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout, 2014). To increase transferability qualitative researchers should focus on (a) how typical the participants are to the context being studied, and (b) the context to which the findings apply (Maree, 2016).

#### **4.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Recently academia has encountered numerous incidents such as student unrests, funding issues, academic discontentment in terms of workload, an imbalance between private and working hours, stringent criteria for promotion and an early retirement age. These occurrences have left

many academics with low morale, dissatisfaction, frustration, fatigue and elevated levels of stress which have derailed the realisation and pursuance of academic goals. The study aimed to establish if academics are plateaued structurally in as far as mobility in the institution; the unchangeable content of their work; in terms of academic (job) skills and or personally (where academia governs all aspects of an academic's survival to the marginalization of any other activity). In addition, the investigation intended to measure academics' attitudes deemed necessary to career and vocational adaptability. This would assess planning and foresight about their work and working lives and their willingness to manage with changing work and working circumstances. The rationale of the research aimed to recognize and understand the various encounters endured by academics in the current era thereby building a more favourable environment for the effective functioning and utilisation of academic skill hence avoiding a brain drain of people with scarce academic skills. The study had contextualised and confirmed the plateau phenomena in an academic environment. Joseph (1996) in his study suggested more items for the four-factor plateauism model, which has been realised in this study. Previously, there has been evidence to the sustenance of the existence of distinct measures of plateauism. Moreover, the study aimed to generate a model for the identification and management of the career plateau phenomena in academia which would provide guidance for the management of plateauism in an academic environment, more especially at the institution under study. This identification would enable the University to involve in effective academic vocation preparation and the management of academic careers, academic career programmes and create an enabling and conducive environment for academics. With regard to career stages, the identification of key concerns in the relevant stages would allow the University to address them through infrastructure, relevant resources, training and development and so forth. The strong point of the ACCI can also be validated through the research in that the ACCI deals with career and vocational adaptability, which is reaffirmed by the effect of career plateaus of respondents' in the current study experienced at different stages of their careers. All statements are designed as a statement of concern about one's career. This measure evaluates participants' points of apprehension with Super's four stages of career development. The aim is to assess a person's consciousness and degree of concern with numerous tasks of vocation growth.

#### **4.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The key challenge faced by the researcher was gaining accessibility to the academic leaders and academics at Medical School for the pilot study. The researcher had to communicate with academic leaders despite their hectic schedules, in order to secure an interview and to distribute questionnaires to academics. Staff from Medical School were of the opinion that filling out questionnaires was too time-consuming since they worked on projects. They were also of the opinion they were scientists and found this type of research abstract. On one campus site, the researcher was turned away by academics stating they were extremely saturated with work. Another key drawback of the research was that it was based only at one university. Furthermore, the researcher had initially opted to disseminate questionnaires through the university's intranet, but settled on email dissemination and personally administering them since this seemed the best way to yield higher returns. In addition, during the "fees-must-fall" debacle, the researcher could not gain access to campus sites due to the tenacious situation. This posed problems with data collection and carrying out interviews.

#### **4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Various ethical considerations must be adhered to throughout the study process. The investigator had to ensure no participants were harmed, ascertain if there is an absence of informed consent, if there was an invasion of privacy and whether any dishonesty was involved (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The success of research depends largely on its respondents and therefore special thought needs to be directed to several aspects. Given the range of information that is disclosed in research of this nature, one has to take cognisance of this consideration, submits Dawson (2002).

Informed consent seeks to ensure persons comprehend what participation entails in a research study so they choose from an informed point as to whether they want to participate and is tantamount to respect for individuals during the research (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, and Namey, 2005). Much focus was attributed to, concern about research ethics revolve around various issues of harm, consent, privacy and confidentiality of data (Berg, 2001).

Informed consent aims to notify participants about policies and procedures, risks and gains, the methods used, the treatment of participants who are assigned to groups and measures that would be taken to ensure anonymity and confidentiality (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Details

regarding respondents' role in the research, the protection of their identities and the resolve of the research should be made upfront to all participants, is the view cautioned by Du Plooy-Cilliers, (2014). Other information that should be provided should include the resolve of the research, the funder, who the research team is, how the information will be used, level of participation and so on (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

Another key consideration for participants is the issue of anonymity and confidentiality, which relates to the invasion of privacy (Bryman and Bell, 2014). This refers to the participant's protection of identity. If their contribution in the study contributes to their demise or injury in any way, this would no doubt work against the ethical principle of anonymity and confidentiality. Anonymity relates to being unable to track and link the response of the participant to the identity of a respondent. Confidentiality relates to the researcher committing non-disclosure of a person's identity in the research (Babbie, 2014). Other issues relating to ethics involve the collection and storage of digital data, issues relating to copyright, honesty and trust and conflict of interest issues (Bryman and Bell, 2014). These issues need to be handled carefully in order to guarantee ethical obligations are met. Confidentiality and anonymity also relates to the storage of data, tapes and transcripts and should be labelled in a manner that link the material to a subject (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). The ways in which confidentiality can be violated must be given intense thought before data collection. Detailed strategies must be devised and implemented to guard against violations, suggests Mack *et al.*, (2005).

Other ethical considerations include refraining from plagiarism or laying stake to other claims, fraudulently reporting sources or creating results, submission of questionable data, avoiding transparency, avoid distorting views and the non-disclosure of data (Booth, Colomb and Williams, 2003).

The study has aligned itself to the various ethical considerations above. In addition, the researcher has obtained full ethical clearance and consent from the Research and Ethics Committee in the College of Management Studies and Law at the inception of this study. Hence, the various ethical considerations have been met and satisfied by the relevant stakeholders.

## **4.11 CONCLUSION**

Critical aspects regarding the approach of the study were highlighted and explored comprehensively in this chapter. The aspects covered the purposes of the study, the types of study design, the research philosophy, the study setting, the time horizon, the sampling design, probability and non-probability sampling techniques, the population, the sample of the study and the data collection techniques. The measuring tools (questionnaires and interviews) were debated in depth. The pilot study and the data reduction strategies for both the descriptive and inferential statistics were also discussed within the setting and relevance of the study. Chapter Five focused on the demonstration of results.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE PRIMARY DATA**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter Five presented the outcomes and discussed the results attained from the surveys in this research. The survey was the main instrument that was utilised to collect information and was distributed to academics at the University's 5 campus sites, that is, Westville, Howard College, Medical School, Pietermaritzburg and Edgewood. The information collated from the reactions was analysed with SPSS version 24.0. The outcomes would entail descriptive statistics in the form of graphs, cross tabulations and other figures for the quantitative information that was collated. Inferential techniques included the utilisation of correlations and Chi-Square test values; that are inferred by means of the p-values.

The qualitative information was interpreted by thematic analysis and content analysis.

#### **5.2 THE SAMPLE**

In total, 350 surveys were dispersed and 253 was received which presented a 73% response rate, with the response rate satisfying a minimum of 70%.

#### **5.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

The study tool comprised 164 items, with a level of assessment at a nominal or an ordinal level. The survey was separated into 3 segments which resulted in numerous themes as shown under:

- A Biographical data;
- B Career Plateau; and
- C Career Stages.

Sections B and C were divided further into sub-themes.

## 5.4 RELIABILITY STATISTICS

The two most significant features of accuracy are reliability and validity. Reliability is calculated by taking numerous measurements on the similar subjects. A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is measured as “acceptable”.

The table below reveals the Cronbach’s Alpha score for the entire items that made up the survey.

**TABLE 5.1: CRONBACH ALPHA SCORE**

	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Hierarchical/Structural	2	0.858
<b>Content</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.342</b>
<b>Job skills</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>0.569</b>
Personal	3	0.771
Exploration	8	0.923
Establishment	8	0.887
Maintenance	7	0.914
Disengagement	5	0.800

The reliability scores for all but 2 segments surpassed the recommended Cronbach’s Alpha value. This specifies an extent of adequate, consistent scoring for these units of the study.

The lower scores (0.342) and (0.569) are attributed to the interpretation of the different categories of respondents to the statements in these sections. The low scores could be attributed to a degree of non-acceptance for these aspects of the research.

## 5.5 FACTOR ANALYSIS

### 5.5.1 Why is Factor Analysis Significant?

Factor analysis is a statistical method with the intention of information reduction. A classic use of factor analysis is in survey research, where an investigator aims to signify a number of

questions with a minor number of hypothetical aspects and significant patterns emerging from these data. For instance, as part of a nationwide study on political thoughts, respondents may reply to three distinct questions concerning environmental strategy, projecting concerns at the local, state and national level. Each question individually, would be an insufficient extent of their approach in the direction of the environmental policy, but *jointly* they may afford an improved degree of the attitude in a collective manner. Factor analysis can be utilised to determine if the three methods do, in fact, quantify the equivalent thing. If so, they can then be pooled to generate a new variable, a factor score variable that comprises a score for every respondent on the factor. Factor techniques are relevant to a diversity of circumstances. A researcher may enquire if the talents are necessary to participate in a combined event are as diverse as the ten occurrences, or if a minor amount of vital abilities are desired to be fruitful in a such an event. One need not have confidence that features really occur in order to carry out a factor analysis, but technically, the aspects are generally construed, given names, and spoken of as actual possessions.

The matrix tables are preceded by a summarised table that reveals the outcomes of KMO and Bartlett's Test. The requirement is that Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy should be more than 0.50 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity less than 0.05. In all illustrations, the conditions are fulfilled which permits for the factor analysis process.

Factor analysis was done only for the Likert scale items. Some aspects are divided into finer aspects. This is explained below in the rotated component matrix.

### 5.5.2 KMO and Bartlett's Test

**TABLE 5.2: KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST**

	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Hierarchical/Structural	0.500	203.074	1	0.000
Content	0.500	1.207	1	0.272
Job skills	0.632	91.085	6	0.000
Personal	0.683	200.335	3	0.000
Exploration	0.918	1315.774	28	0.000
Establishment	0.878	1070.496	28	0.000
Maintenance	0.871	1222.423	21	0.000
Disengagement	0.757	409.625	10	0.000

Evidently, all of the conditions are satisfied for factor analysis, that is, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value should be more than 0.500 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity sig. value should be less than 0.05.

### 5.5.3 Rotated Component Matrix

**TABLE 5.3: ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX**

<b>Component Matrix<sup>a</sup></b>	
	Component
Hierarchical/Structural	1
Promotions are limited at the university due to the university's structure	0.936
Promotional opportunities have been limited at the university	0.936
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

All of the Component Matrices have exactly the same loading characteristics. Through mention to the table overhead:

- The principle component analysis was utilised as the extraction method, and the rotation method was Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. This is an orthogonal rotation method that reduces the number of variables that have elevated loadings on each factor. It streamlines the understanding of the dynamics.
- Factor analysis/loading demonstrated inter-correlations among variables.
- Elements of questions that loaded similarly imply measurement along a similar factor. An examination of the content of items loading at or above 0.5 (and using the higher or highest loading in instances where items cross-loaded at greater than this value) effectively measured along the various constituents.

The statements that constituted all of the sections encumbered perfectly alongside a sole constituent. This suggests that the declarations that made up these sections seamlessly assessed what it aimed to assess in the study that was undertaken.

## **5.6. SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA**

This segment sums up the biographical traits of the participants.

The table below exposes the overall gender distribution by age.

**TABLE 5.4: GENDER DISTRIBUTION BY AGE**

		Gender		Total	
		Female	Male		
Age (years)	< 20	Count	0	1	1
		% within Age	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	0.0%	0.8%	0.4%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.4%	0.4%
	20 – 29	Count	19	20	39
		% within Age	48.7%	51.3%	100.0%
		% within Gender	16.4%	15.0%	15.7%
		% of Total	7.6%	8.0%	15.7%
	30 – 39	Count	32	36	68
		% within Age	47.1%	52.9%	100.0%
		% within Gender	27.6%	27.1%	27.3%
		% of Total	12.9%	14.5%	27.3%
	40 – 49	Count	40	51	91
		% within Age	44.0%	56.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	34.5%	38.3%	36.5%
		% of Total	16.1%	20.5%	36.5%
	50 – 59	Count	13	18	31
		% within Age	41.9%	58.1%	100.0%
		% within Gender	11.2%	13.5%	12.4%
		% of Total	5.2%	7.2%	12.4%
60+	Count	12	7	19	
	% within Age	63.2%	36.8%	100.0%	
	% within Gender	10.3%	5.3%	7.6%	
	% of Total	4.8%	2.8%	7.6%	
Total	Count	116	133	249	
	% within Age	46.6%	53.4%	100.0%	
	% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	46.6%	53.4%	100.0%	

Overall, the percentage of men to women is about 1:1 (53.4%: 46.6%).

In terms of the age classification under 20 years, 100% consisted of males. In terms of the category of men, 8% stood under the age of 20 years. This group of men under 20 years formed 4% of the total sample. In terms of the 20 to 29 age group, 51.3% comprised men and 48.7% entailed females. Regarding the classification of men (only), 15.0% stood among the ages of

20 to 29 years and females were 16.4%. This cluster of men amongst the ages of 20 to 29 years was made up of 8% of the entire sample whilst females formed 7.6% of the sample.

In terms of the 30 to 39 age group, 52.9% were men and 47.1% entailed females. Regarding the group of men, 27.1% were among the ages of 30 to 39 years and the females were 27.6%. This group of men amid the ages of 30 to 39 years made up 14.5% of the entire sample whilst 12.9% were females.

Regarding the age grouping of 40 to 49 years, 56.0% were men and women were 44.0%. In terms of men, 38.3% entailed the ages of 40 to 49 years and women were 34.5%. This group of men amongst the ages of 40 to 49 years consisted 20.5% of the entire sample whilst 16.1% were females.

Regarding age group of 50 to 59 years, 58.1% were men and women were 41.9%. Regarding males, 13.5% were among the ages of 50 to 59 years with 11.2% females. This group of men between the ages of 50 to 59 years consisted of 7.2% of the whole sample whilst 5.2% were females.

Within the age category of 60 and over 60 years, 36.8% were male and 63.2% females. Within the category of males (only), 5.3% and 10.3% of females were 60 and over 60 years. This category of males of 60 and over 60 years formed 2.8% of the total sample whilst 4.8% were females.

The above statistics in terms of gender reflect that there were additional male participants in the sample in the following age categories 30-39 (14.5%); 40-49 (20.5%) and 50-59 (7.2%). This also reflects that more male respondents were in their mid-career stages, maintenance and on the border of their late career stages respectively. In the 60 and over 60 age category, (in the late career stage), there were more female respondents (4.8%) as compared to males. This could be attributed to more females nearing retirement age than the male counterparts. This occurrence could be linked to females joining the University at a later age as opposed to men, which could be associated with family responsibilities or a late start in their careers due to discrimination females experienced at the workplace prior to the new political dispensation.

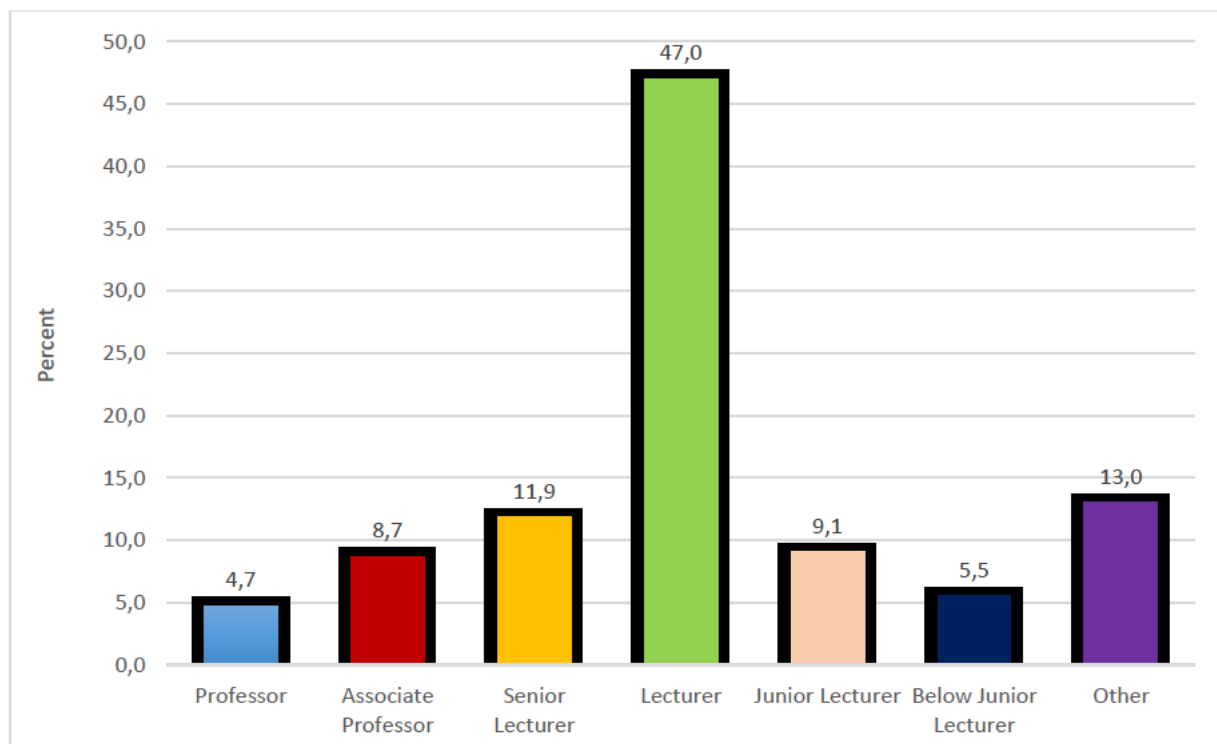
There was higher probability that females be categorized as hierarchical or job content plateauing than males. In this regard, Gallos (1989) identified a higher number of women who anticipated there were less progression chances available to them in contrast to males. This was reiterated by a respondent: "As a female we do feel that there is definitely a ceiling for females

and with one of my friends, we have often discussed how difficult it is for us to progress or to feel that we are being encouraged in that direction. (p12).

Results from the study reflect about 43% of females agreed and strongly agreed that they found their academic jobs challenging, as opposed to approximately 26% males. In addition, many of the responses were gained from the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups regarding their levels of agreement. In this regard, Lemire (1999), is of the opinion the more senior the employee in terms of age, the more likely the possibility of being plateaued which may be circumstantial or hierarchical factors that successfully hinder opportunities for mobility, and could also be indicative by lesser vacancies at upper levels.

The figure below indicates the positions that respondents hold.

**FIGURE 5.1: POSITIONS HELD BY RESPONDENTS**



Approximately half of the respondents were Lecturers (47.0%) with similar levels across the remaining categories ( $p < 0.001$ ).

Other respondents were made up of: 4,7% Professors, 8,7% Associate Professors, 11,9% Senior Lecturers, 9,1% Junior Lecturers, 5,5% Below Junior lecturers and 13% which were constituted as “other”.

The statistics is in keeping with university demographics, with particular reference to lecturers which is the largest complement of 745 academics. In terms of the following, there are 135 Professors; 135 Associate Professors; 208 Senior Lecturers, 745 lecturers, 21 Junior Lecturers, 85 Below Junior Lecturers and 18 constituted under “other” as per illustration (Figure 5.5), which reflects the overall staff profile at the university. Taking into account the highest staff profile, which are lecturers (745), there is a likelihood that some of the lecturers may have reached a plateau.

Subsequent conversations with lecturers in the interviews confirmed this and their responses are as follows: "If I am a lecturer and I enjoy teaching, I could consider that I am actually at my plateau, this is where I want to be" (AL1); "Obviously systematically the lower the levels, the more a plateau can happen, as you have got more people in those levels and fewer positions for them to go up but is systematic because if somebody is motivated and does show that they are worthy of the next stage, then that is not going to be a plateau (AL4).

"Career plateau is I assume, when you have achieved a level that you are not going to pass, you are not going to be able to move on to another level" (AL4); "I suppose when you reach a point and you do not want to go further and cannot go further" (AL16); "Ok I would see plateaus as reaching the top so in a way and then becoming stabilised for a period of time or for some reason where the staff have reached their peak and are not moving or does not want to move " (AL7); "I did not meet the criteria for academic leadership and that is, because the criteria requires you to be a senior lecturer to be an academic leader... However I have a PhD, and it was an alternate criteria where you can serve as an academic leader, however you cannot be appointed as one"....."so even though you have the skills and you have the eagerness to actually participate in the administration of the university, you have everything going for you but you do not have the rank to be appointed as an academic leader" (AL8).

**TABLE 5.5: UNIVERSITY STAFF PROFILE: ACADEMICS**

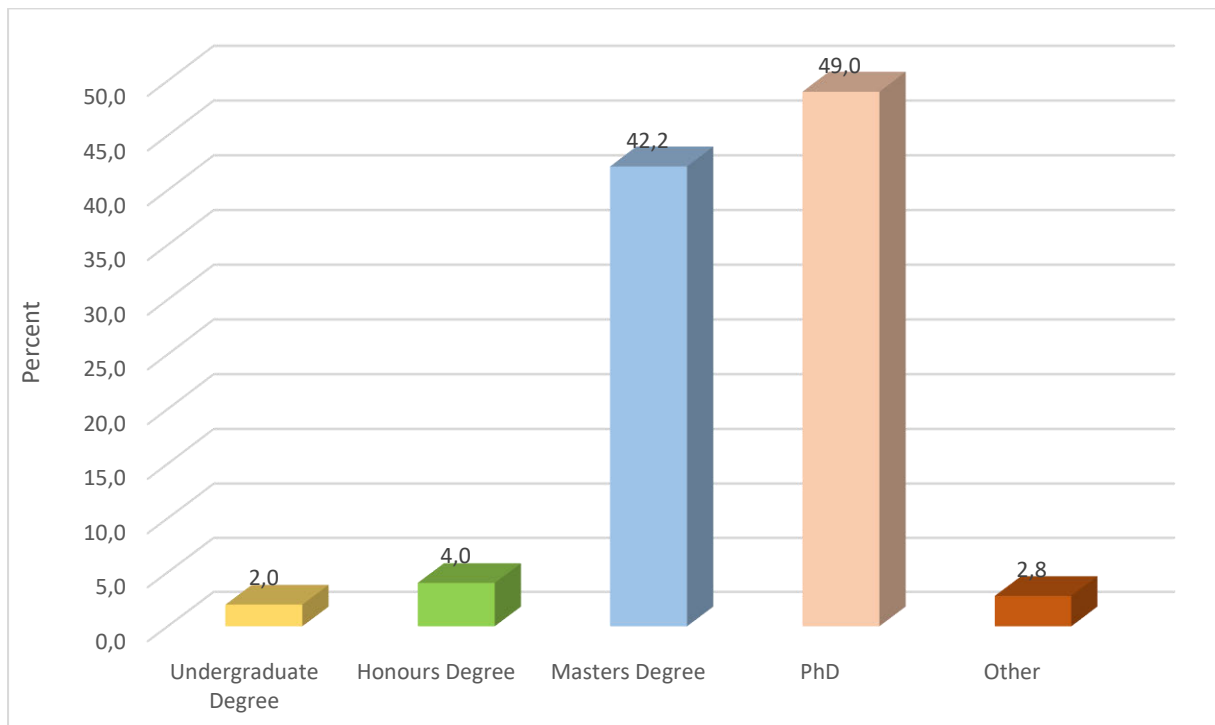
Count of Staff No.	Campus Name					
	Edgewood	Howard College	Medical School	Pietermaritzburg	Westville	Grand Total
Associate Professor	9	40	15	31	40	135
Below Jr. Lecturer	4	8	20	7	46	85
Junior Lecturer		9	8	1	3	21
Lecturer	45	251	91	136	222	745
Other	1	6	4	2	5	18
Professor	6	45	18	39	27	135
Senior Lecturer	14	52	20	51	71	208
Grand Total	79	411	176	267	414	1347

DMI, UKZN: 2016

The University staff profile records the highest level of academics at the lecturer level. It could be that many academics are stagnant at this level, which may be attributed to the career plateau phenomenon.

The figure under specifies the education levels of the participants.

**FIGURE 5.2: EDUCATION LEVELS OF RESPONDENTS**



Almost all of the respondents had a postgraduate qualification. The majority of respondents (91.0%) had a minimum of a Masters Degree. 2.0 of the respondents possessed an undergraduate degree, with 4.0 of the academics possessing a Honours degree, 49% having a PhD and 2.8% that possessed a qualification referred to as “other”.

This is a valuable indicator as it designates that a reasonable amount of the participants have a higher qualification. This indicates that the responses gathered would have been from an informed (learned) source. Educational levels may feature as a key aspect when identifying candidates for stimulating assignments maintains Allen, *et al.*, (1998). Therefore, individuals who do not attain a higher level of education may be disadvantaged when contending for fewer advancement opportunities in an organisation. This concurs with Tremblay and Roger (1993), who explain that experiencing success in the early career stage may significantly highlight the potential of the person and the know-how, which is needed for ultimate promotions in the organisational promotional scheme.

Furthermore, the higher score in relation to PhD qualifications reflects that the University has set a minimum condition for academics regarding the acquisition of a doctorate. This is also in keeping with the Vision of the National Development Plan 2030. The attainment of this qualification could be attributed to individuals wanting to advance their careers. Although this is the case, some respondents indicated the PhD was being “thrust” upon them and they were

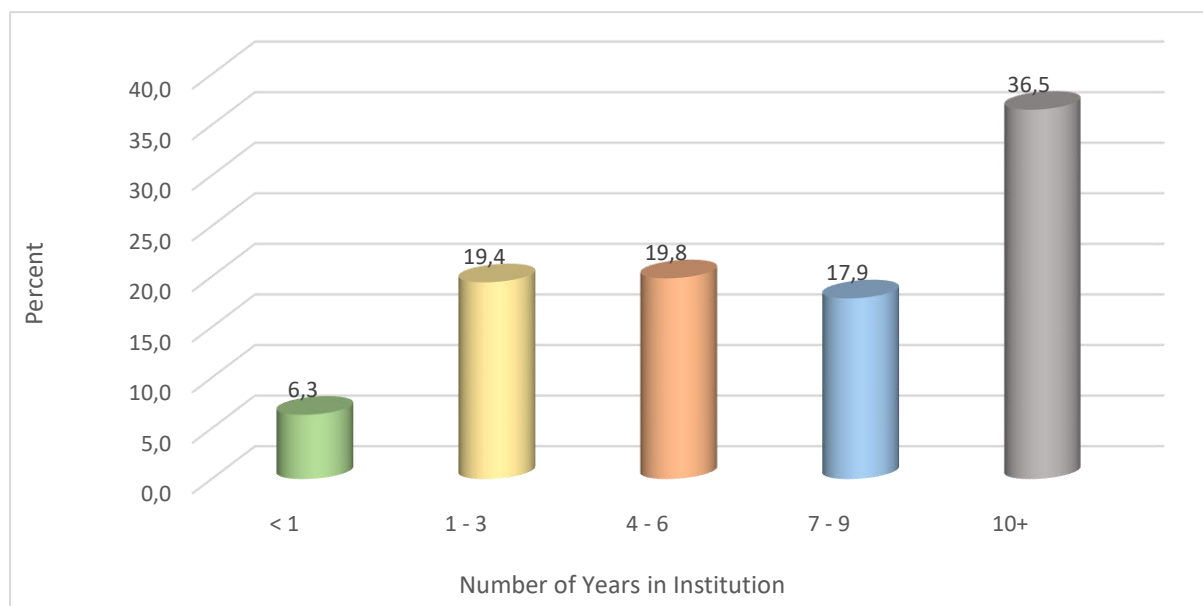
unable to commence with the qualification due to heavy teaching workloads. Respondents also mentioned that they were aware that the PhD was the instrument by which they could attain career progression (and possibly exit the career plateau status they are encountering at their particular career stage).

Alignment to these sentiments from the respondents included: "So one would be where the qualifications sometimes limit people"... "in other words they are expected to have their PhD to become senior lecturers. The person is doing the work, teaching loads and the research to some extent, but does not have a PhD so that is the limitation in that sense" (AL5); "They do not see the fact that I don't have a PhD as a limitation. They feel I can do the job they want me to do. "I personally don't feel that I have plateaued but I know the university looks at me and says you have plateaued from a research perspective because they keep telling me when are you going to do your PhD?"

In addition, the acquisition of the PhD resonates in the results of the hypothesis testing, when examining the relationship between "level of education" and "making specific plans to achieve my current career goals". Results indicate respondents with Masters' degrees particularly, were keen on tailoring plans to attain their current career goals.

The figure below indicates the length of service of the respondents.

**FIGURE 5.3: LENGTH OF SERVICE OF RESPONDENTS**



The figure depicts that approximately three quarters of the participants had been in employment for more than 3 years. This implies that most respondents had been in employment for a while

and this is also a useful fact, as it indicates that responses were received from experienced workers. Regarding the length of service of respondents, 6.3% were working for less than a year; 19.4% were engaged for a period between 1 and 3 years; 19.8% were in employment for 4 to 6 years; 17.9% were employed for 7 to 9 years and 36.5% for a period of 10 years and more. In the hypothesis testing, interestingly, those academics with 10 and more years of tenure related significantly with various dimensions of the study such as finding their academic job challenging, confirming that their academic job remained the same over time, achieving stability in their academic position and getting academic refresher training. Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera (2010) state that the objective dimension of tiered plateauing depends on an employee’s tenure in the present job. Tenure does not directly indicate that one has reached a plateau, but prolonged time in tenure indicates limited upward mobility.

The sample was drawn from various campuses as per the table that follows.

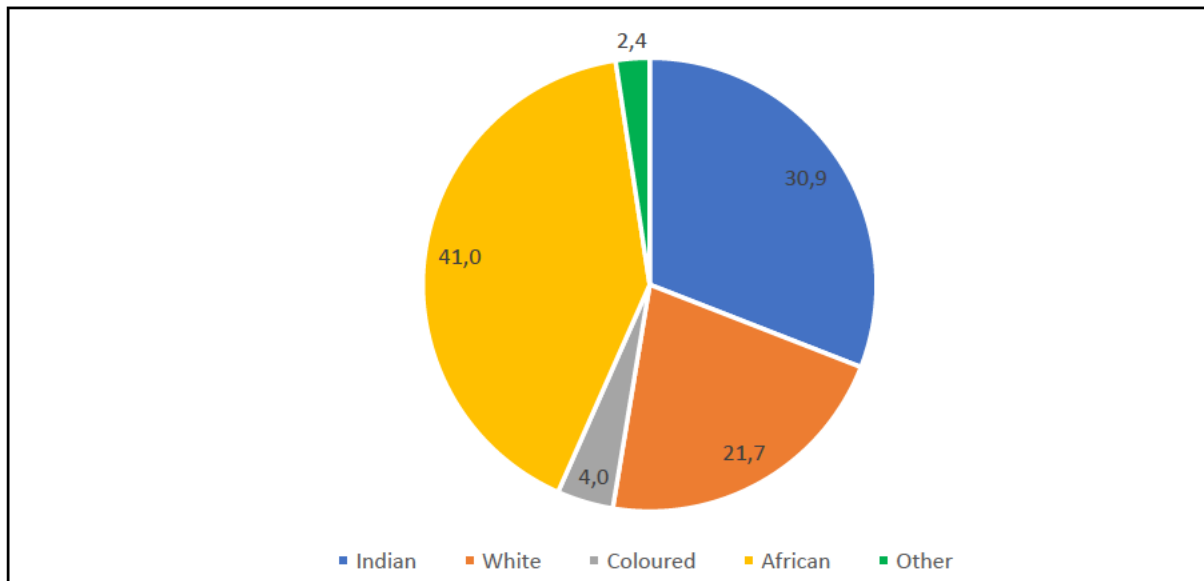
**TABLE 5.6: SAMPLE ACROSS CAMPUS SITES**

	Frequency	Percent
Westville	84	33.3
Howard College	63	25.0
Pietermaritzburg	73	29.0
Edgewood	19	7.5
Medical School	13	5.2
Total	252	100.0

The researcher encountered difficulties securing respondents from both the Edgewood Campus and Medical School respectively. Respondents were not eager to participate due to time pressures and work backlog attributed to the “Feesmustfall” saga experienced in 2016. Furthermore, many academics at the Medical School Campus were unreachable due to their clinical commitments despite the researcher emailing them for completed questionnaires.

The racial structure of the sample is shown below.

**FIGURE 5.4: RACE OF RESPONDENTS**

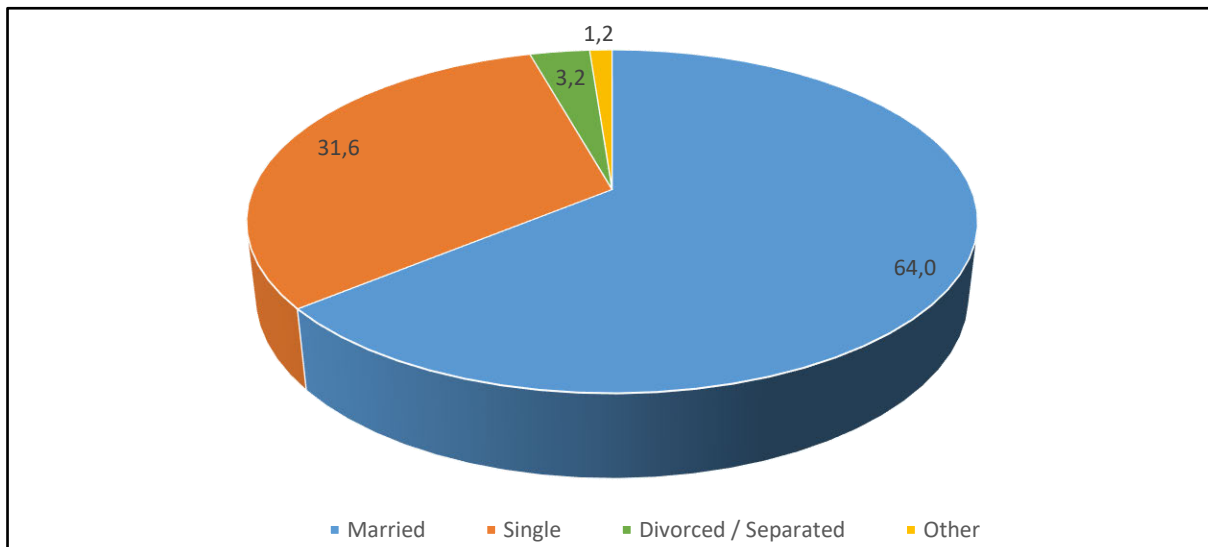


The respondents were made up of 41% of Africans, 4.0% Coloureds, 21.7% Whites, 30.9% Indians and 2.4% described as “other”.

The scores are in keeping with the University’s demographics, with the largest academic complement being Africans, followed by Indians, Whites and Coloureds. Although the racial composition is a significant influential factor in the study, the percentages reveal another significant aspect within the University as an institution of higher learning which has focused on transformation regarding equity. In this regard, this is also in line with the University’s equity plan and compliance with the Employment Equity Act 2014. An excerpt confirming this sentiment came from one respondent: "We will never see a White Dean at this school again.....no White employee here will ever inspire to be a Dean whether they have the right qualifications or not, it might even extend as far as Indians where the university is at the moment unless they review their transformation strategy. The transformation has plateaued many people who have the potential to go further" (AL4). Furthermore, the bulk of the responses emanated from the African race groups in terms of their levels of agreement (agree and strongly agree).

The figure beneath specifies the marital position of the respondents.

**FIGURE 5.5: MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS**



Almost two thirds of the participants were wedded. Most of the participants were married (64.0%). 31.6% were single, with 3.2% being either divorced or separated. 1.2% constituted those categorised as “other”. Mid-career, married respondents in the study indicated they were impacted upon by various responsibilities on the home-front. This most likely could allow such respondents to plateau in their mid-career. A married respondent stated: "Plateauing as you say is also about your personal life. My personal life I would say is probably sitting there in terms of my plateau and in terms of my achievements, with children, with marriage, all of that, so which plateaus do you value more? For me, I would think that my personal life is more valuable to me" (AL8).

## **5.7 SECTION B: ANALYSIS**

The segment that ensues examines the scoring arrangements of the participants per variable per segment. The outcomes are first obtainable using summarised proportions for the variables that entail every segment. Outcomes are further elaborated on with respect to the significance of the declarations. This section deals with the analysing the data that has been generated quantitatively and quantitatively.

### 5.7.1 Hierarchical/Structural

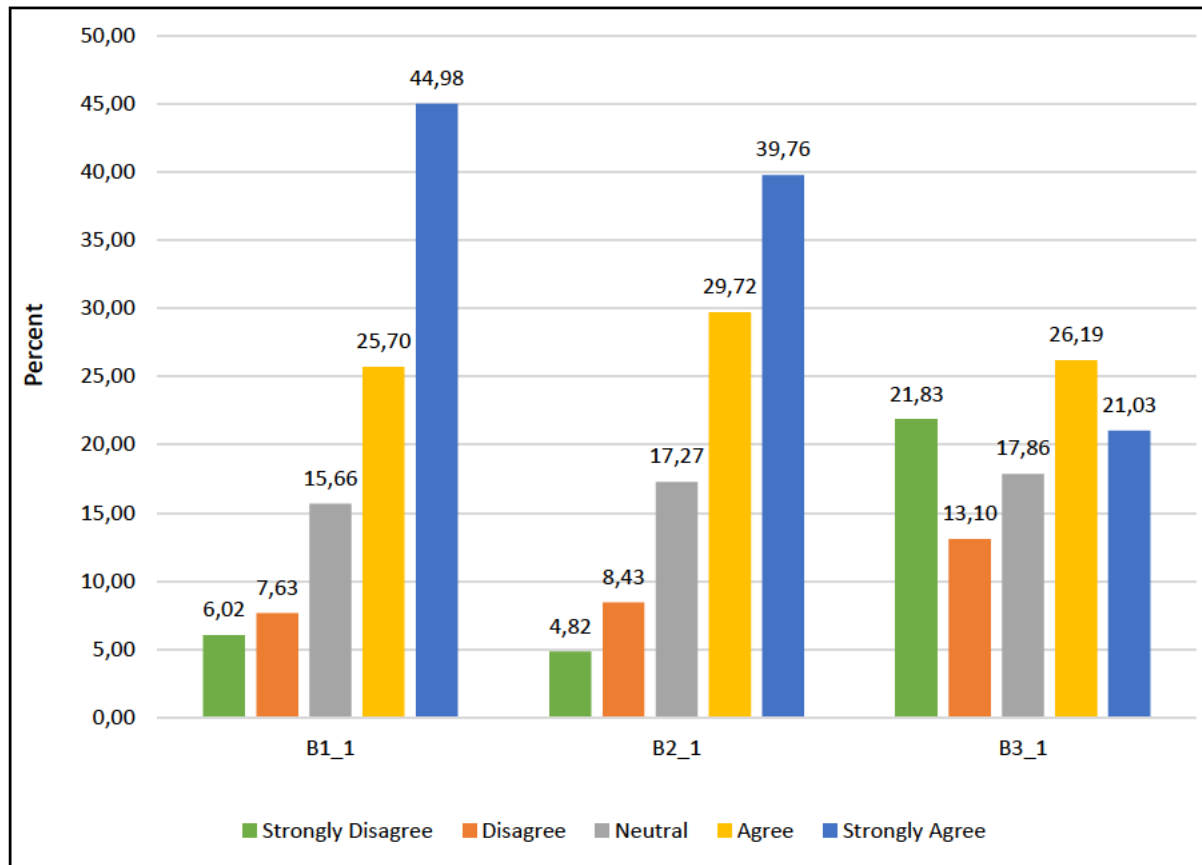
The table below summarises the scoring patterns.

**TABLE 5.7: HIERARCHICAL SCORING PATTERNS**

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
Promotions	B1_1	15	6.0%	19	7.6%	39	15.7%	64	25.7%	112	45.0%	0.000
Promotions	B2_1	12	4.8%	21	8.4%	43	17.3%	74	29.7%	99	39.8%	0.000
I am advan	B3_1	55	21.8%	33	13.1%	45	17.9%	66	26.2%	53	21.0%	0.018

To determine whether the scoring patterns per statement were significantly different per option, a Chi Square test was done. The null hypothesis claims that similar numbers of respondents scored across each option for each statement (one statement at a time). The alternate states that there is a significant difference between the levels of agreement and disagreement. The results are shown in the table. The highlighted sig. values (p-values) are less than 0.05 (the level of significance), which implies that the distributions were not similar. In other words, the differences between the way respondents scored (agree, neutral, disagree) were significant as reflected above.

**FIGURE 5.6: HIERARCHICAL DIMENSIONS**



The ensuing patterns are observed. Some statements show (significantly) higher levels of agreement whilst other levels of agreement are lower (but still greater than levels of disagreement). There are no statements indicating upper levels of disagreement. The significance of the differences is tested and shown in the table.

In this illustration, some individual statements are highlighted and patterns of scoring are discussed by using common groupings.

**For example, B1.1 and B2.1 show similar and higher levels of agreement (70.68), whilst that for B3.1 has a level of agreement of 47%.**

It is noted that the first two statements relate to promotions and most respondents seem to have the same opinions. Firstly, respondents agree, limited promotion is attributed to the university's structures. This means that respondents cannot progress due to stringent promotion criteria at the University. They view these criteria as unreasonable and unattainable. Academic leader 5 (AL5) concurred by stating: "People are leaving, I know about two or three that have already left to become professor there but not here, so that is evident enough to say that criteria is

stringent"; "What we need to do is reorganise that research criteria for promotion"... "We need to urgently address it because we need to find ways of recognising people"... "We cannot retain people, the policies go completely against this university, against retaining staff here and they expect us to carry on producing" (AL16). Furthermore, in terms of academic promotion, participants in the research (Pienaar and Bester, 2007) emphasized the lack of promotion, irregularities and 'dual standards' in applying the advancement conditions inside and amongst departments. "The biggest plateau is shifting from a lecturer to a senior lecturer and that is the biggest problem just one or two staff will strive to the next level because of the research requirement, quite a stringent requirement. Regarding plateaus, I know two or three staff are happy as lecturers, they do not want to become a senior lecturer - "I am just happy teaching I am just happy dabbling my research you know, and I think because the reason is the pressure of work, teaching, community, admin, new curriculum, meetings, examining theses - all other things take focus so there is multi-tasking and the focus on research gives them less time" (AL7).

They were also dissatisfied with the unclear promotion policy guidelines and the over-emphasis accorded to credentials and research outcomes for promotions, whilst other undertakings did not carry the same weighting, argues Pienaar and Bester, (2007). At the institution under study, despite a uniform and normative set of criteria university-wide for all colleges as a performance rubric for measurement of deliverables for promotion, respondents of the study resonated with stringent promotion policy guidelines and greater emphasis on research outputs and inadequate weighting with other key performance areas. An excerpt from the interview contrary to this reflects: "so my sense it is not so much an externally-driven phenomena it is internally- driven. I want to get out of this plateau, I want to go into the next level, I want to focus on my research because research and teaching are the main focus" (AL7). Furthermore, "So you are also being pulled down in some sense by administrative work and you have to do some supervision as well". "It would be fantastic for me to do three or four publications, I mean I would love to do it but my contextual situation is such that there is no synergy between teaching, practice and research are in criminology and so how do you marry all three?" (AL8).

Furthermore, "So many people you know have all that competencies, so many of those people have skilled themselves and who brought in so many different things to the University, and at that time it was acceptable in the University"....."Now in the current structures of the University, it is not acceptable and those people are not as highly recognised as they should

be" (AL1). Furthermore, "Hierarchical promotion is a big issue because I will tell you the promotion system at UKZN stinks, it is the most unfair promotion" (AL16) (serious) "it is a serious problem they must address it. They must stop ignoring it"; "I see there are some people who are mainly interested in teaching because some people were at a college, so then moving towards research was resistance" (AL16); "I do not see myself applying for promotion, I do not agree with the promotion system .

In addition, respondents stated "I would say it is difficult to get promoted because of the PU's which are the problems. It is difficult to get the PU's, also there is this thing with teaching portfolio and some of us are researchers" (AL12); "The problem when it comes to promotions is that you have not done your articles and you have not made sufficient progress in your qualifications" ..." the University wants a good accreditation rating. The difference is they have not given us the additional resources, a lot of staff have left because of general unhappiness and all those conditions I have told you about"...."gone into industry"... "when they left they made it very clear that they left because of no career pathing, no possibility of ever being promoted"(AL13).

"The criteria has become more stringent and people want AU's rather than PU's you know things like that , things start to shift"....."There is lack of recognition of the process for me so people just begin to plateau I mean what is the point of getting a PU when I am not enjoying the process of getting to that level. So the plateauing is like I am happy at teaching I am happy at doing other things, the demands of research is just too much so I rather just plateau and as I said try to find an equilibrium" (AL7).

However, an interviewee presented a differing view: "Somebody told me that and it is also my experience, nobody can really hold you back if you have done everything you had to do and meet the minimum criteria and do a good portfolio. There is no reason looking at demographics and not being promoted. I have not seen that here in academia. You might find different things from staff, but I have not heard of anyone that did a good teaching portfolio who was rejected for promotion" (AL11). Secondly, there is agreement from the respondents that promotions are limited at the university. Choudary *et al.*, (2013) suggests that an employee is adept of advancing to an elevated level, but owing the lesser amount of occupations as one advances upward there may be no jobs obtainable. This statement reflects that participants are aware and have confirmed the possibility of progression/advancement as being difficult to attain at the University. An interviewee confirms by stating "There is a little bit of unhappiness amongst

the staff because in the past before the merger of the universities, some people were given promotions and others were not" (AL11). I have a PhD since 2008 and I feel that the promotion system is not transparent and I will never apply for promotion. I applied once and will never apply again" (AL8); "Reaching a ceiling and no room for progression in terms of academic leaders" (AL12) - "I guess what would have the most effect would be the one where you are plateauing in terms of your career advancement".

There is a 12% differential between agreement and disagreement for B3.1. A lower number of academics are attempting to advance their careers due to the limited promotional opportunities which are attributed to the university structures. In addition, limited opportunities at the university is also instrumental as to why so few academics are advancing to higher levels in their careers at the institution. This, therefore reflects, the stagnation academics are experiencing at the institution, which they express, are institution-led.

Regarding B1.1 and B2.1 respondents showed high levels of agreement that limited promotion is attributed to the university's structures and secondly, there is agreement from the respondents that promotions are limited at the university. This response is backed by Shockley *et al.*, (2015), who specified that promotional opportunities are being eroded due to organisational structures becoming flatter hence resulting in limited upward movement (B1.1). Structural plateauing results when there is a combined effect of the original structure and birth rate variations and seen as out of an employee's hands (Nwovuhoma and Malik, 2016; Tan and Salomane, 1994). Other factors include the reorganisation of organisations, the rationalising of jobs and the abolition of middle management (Cable, 1999). Authors Alivand and Ebrahimpour (2015) views structural plateauing as when an employee reaches the highest level of the organisation due to limitations in the hierarchical organisational structure.

Regarding promotions at the University, the number of promotions are informed by institutional criteria, in this instance a move to flatter structures, thereby restricting upward movement. However lateral movement is made possible but is also linked to research output in conjunction with teaching. Much of the "stringent criteria emanates from the institution's emphasis on research productivity in terms of the productivity units (PUs).

Furthermore, Robyn and Du Preez (2013), concur in their research on the dilemmas facing higher education, where academics are faced with exorbitant workloads and enormous pressures such as "stringent criteria for promotion" *amongst others* (B2.1).

A common notion prevalent in the corporate community of career plateauing is characterised by career non-advancement in any direction and career structure (Sorizehi *et al.*, 2013). An interviewee concurs regarding the above by stating: "It is related to that hierarchical promotion I think, so some of them decline and disengage" (AL16). "Two of them, one because of bitterness.....Lack of promotion and I honestly do feel that she has been unfairly evaluated at college in higher levels, I do believe that she should be promoted. The other person has been on a long-term contract and the contract is coming to an end and there is a necessity for her to be evaluated correctly (AL4).

Khanifer (2006) cited in Sorizehi, Samadhi, Sohrabi and Kamalippor, (2013) states that people sometimes suffer from plateauing by reason of career structure, which is attributed to a low diversity, boring and fatigued structure. Academic organisations are not protected from such scenarios (Khanifer 2006: 103). Similarly at the institution under study, with the rationalisation of academic programmes (which may be attributed to the merger between the Universities of Durban-Westville and Natal), may be one of the key reasons limiting promotional opportunities. Furthermore, an excerpt from the interview resonates with the above: "I think there is much bigger structures that is beyond the discipline, that is, the university has gone through a lot of transformation in terms of the amalgamation of different universities, Durban, Westville and the aftermath of that some years later" (AL15). In addition, academics may be experiencing job content plateauing, whereby they are having to deliver the same content over a period hence not providing the stimulation they desire. An interviewee however, stated otherwise, "I think in academia, you have got academic freedom and if there is job profile plateauing it is because the person in that position is not showing any initiative.....academic freedom is there for me to grow as I want to, so whether it is job content, it is what you make of it" (AL4).

**B3. 1 shows 26.19% of the respondents agreed whereas 21.03% strongly agreed in response to advancing in their academic careers.**

However, Burke (1989) identifies personal plateauing as where the individual has no interest in advancing to a higher job that is obtainable. Concurring interview respondents state:

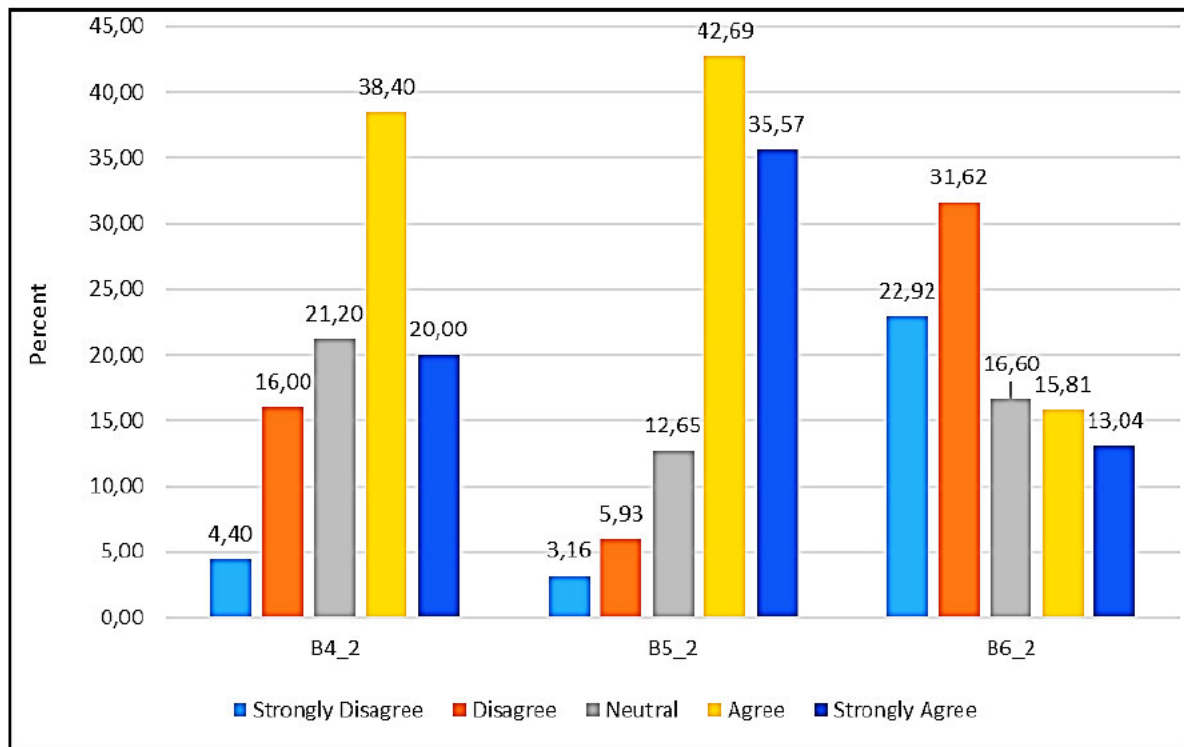
"If you start early in your research career then you are ok, but we started very late. It is difficult therefore to pitch up" (AL5). Contrarily other interviewees stated: "I do not want to seem negative here but the people I am managing now seem to be those who are self- limiting by

their own choice and they will still moan that they are plateaued"....;" they have found themselves in a comfortable niche where they are filling in salaries for a minimum amount of effort and are comfortable with that" (AL4); "Some people are resistant to change, they would rather just stay where they are for however long and every time there is change"... (AL12); "I keep telling them do your teaching portfolio, but they are not doing it. The thing is a fear of doing the portfolio and a fear of being rejected. You see it is a risk when you do your portfolio when you go for promotion because you can get rejected and then you have to deal with the rejection" (AL11) - " (AL1); there are two males, actually, and the one, male actually said to me, ya if I do this teaching portfolio I have got to open myself up and the people are going to look at it, and maybe they will say oh this is so and so. I do not like so and so, I am going to make sure he does not get it because he says you really open yourself up when you do a teaching portfolio" (AL11); "No one, happy with status quo- team orientated environment"(AL19); "So the plateau there is trying to just get the next level which is the minimum level here a PhD, so I can see staff here, saying if I can get my PhD I have reached my plateau" (AL7).

**TABLE 5.8: CONTENT SCORING PATTERNS**

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
I know ever	B4_2	11	4.4%	40	16.0%	53	21.2%	96	38.4%	50	20.0%	0.000
My academ	B5_2	8	3.2%	15	5.9%	32	12.6%	108	42.7%	90	35.6%	0.000
My academ	B6_2	58	22.9%	80	31.6%	42	16.6%	40	15.8%	33	13.0%	0.000

**FIGURE 5.7: CONTENT DIMENSIONS**



**B4.2 shows moderate levels of agreement (58.4%) which reflects not many respondents know everything regarding their academic careers.**

This view is supported by Ettington (1998) whose study saw respondents reporting higher content levels with stimulating work but they did not view themselves as technical or functional experts. Furthermore, excerpts from interviews with Academic Leader 16 (AL16) provided a further outlook on perspectives regarding the above: ".....they are well informed but yet they are so scared to put themselves out in the open because to succeed as a researcher you have got to put yourself out in the open and you have got to go pass that stage where you open yourself up to criticism" .....

**B5.2 shows a high level of agreement (78,26%) therefore confirming that respondents felt their academic job challenging.**

This concurs with Pienaar and Bester's (2013) view, that an academic job is seen as one of the most stressful and demanding careers. A respondent reiterates this sentiment: "the demands here in terms of what people require to get to particular positions are excessive, far too excessive" (AL2). Furthermore, there are an extensive array of roles impacting on the enhancement of academic practice. For example, McKernan (2008,141) stated in a study that

academic curriculum designers are experiencing challenges with regards to workloads and consequently they have no time for research. An interviewee concurs with the workload issue: "You want to do your research, you want to sit and really work with it but then what is at your door? There is students, tests, deadlines, teaching on the front" (AL13). Interviewees in the study concurred with authors through the following statements arising from the qualitative aspects raised in terms of support for staff: "Also you can apply for sabbatical but the conditions are very different, get a full work load and get a sabbatical so it is not really a sabbatical (AL7) (but seen as an obstacle). "We said in turn, since you are doing a PhD in some cases there were sabbatical grants but again it is very difficult because now the sabbatical means you really got to put in your work in advance and then take sabbatical "....."sabbatical now, unlike earlier days requires you to still complete your full teaching load and then take sabbatical so it is not really giving people a break unless of course people buy in leave and so forth" (AL5) ; "Well to be honest I don't feel that I have any support, they have taken away my one admin officer I had, so they actually increased my load of admin and I have to do it myself" (AL9) ; However one respondent stated otherwise: "There is a lot of professionalism"....."there is a lot of flexi-time for staff, weekends and finding spaces where they can maximise their research"... "I think there is a lot of support" (AL7); "One of my colleagues, she, in fact, a couple of them, have children - with the flexitime you know they can say well if they need to pick up kids at a certain time, they can go for them or..." (AL12).

However, a respondent disagreed regarding support stating: "There is no support"...." when you tell people your challenges, they do not recognise it" (AL13); "No proper policies, or support for talent management" (AL19); Not much support, support is not adequate" (AL20).

### **B6,2 has a low level of agreement of (28,85%).**

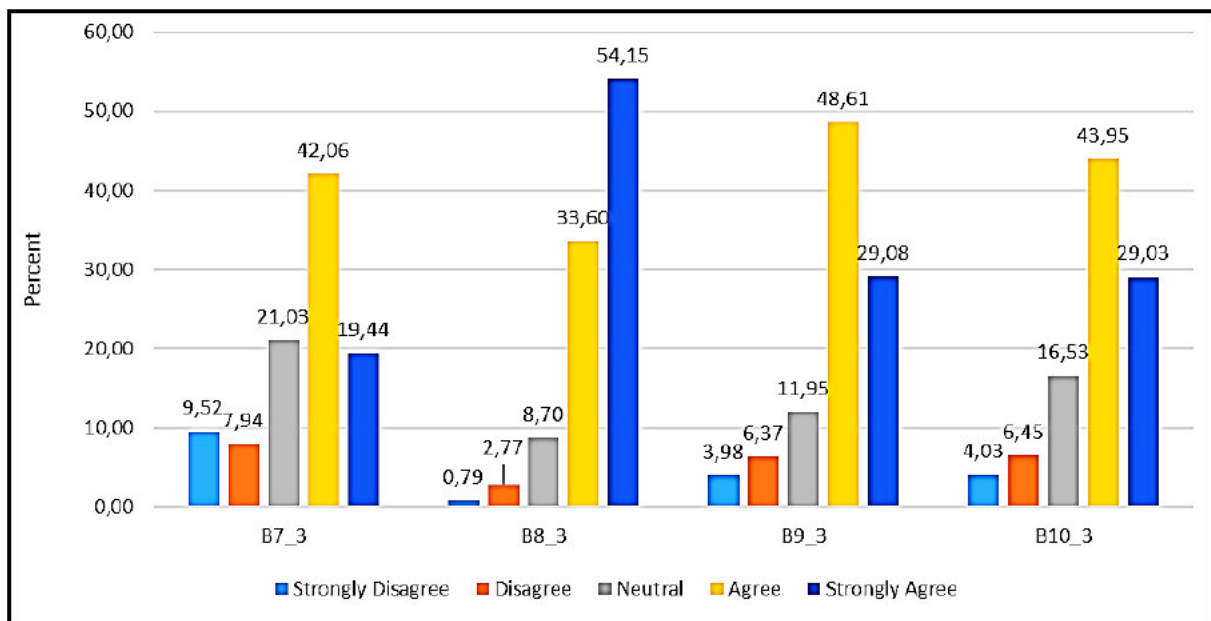
This indicates that academic jobs have changed over time. Lewis and Arnold (2012) concur in their research by stating that vocations have undergone major changes in the last twenty or thirty years. It could be said that academics work on one class for many long years and exactly know each day what to expect from them and there is nothing new for due consideration in education, which is prevalent in all organisations (Khanifer, 2006). However, a respondent stated that the *status quo* was challenged "Last year one of the lecturers brought in Sangomas to teach the students about indigenous knowledge and this lecturer has been doing it for a while, but I mean that module she has been doing, you look at new and creative ways and think" (AL1).

However, some respondents concurred that the academic job has changed over time. In terms of curriculum, where there has been a plateau in terms of content which has been developed, and to re-examine that content, we are specifically busy with that now, with transformation of that curriculum" (AL10). One respondent believed "I think the needs change in respect to field and speciality" (AL17). "I see there are some people who are mainly interested in teaching because some people were at college, so then moving to the research focus they gave a lot of resistance towards moving towards research" (AL16).

**TABLE 5.9: JOB SKILLS SCORING PATTERNS**

		Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
I am techni	B7_3	24	9.5%	20	7.9%	53	21.0%	106	42.1%	49	19.4%	0.000
My job skills	B8_3	2	0.8%	7	2.8%	22	8.7%	85	33.6%	137	54.2%	0.000
I am consta	B9_3	10	4.0%	16	6.4%	30	12.0%	122	48.6%	73	29.1%	0.000
I like the co	B10_3	10	4.0%	16	6.5%	41	16.5%	109	44.0%	72	29.0%	0.000

**FIGURE 5.8: JOB SKILLS DIMENSIONS B7\_3 – B10\_3**



**B7.3 reflects a high level of agreement of 61.5% which indicates respondents are technically competent and possess updated academic skills which they derive from seminars and training.**

This is strengthened by Brodbeck (2012) when the author states that organisations can only stay afloat through dedicated, high calibre staff who to commit who to work smartly. Makki (2015) states that employers are looking for academics with academic and cognitive skills such as absorbing literature, rationalisation, non-traditional thinkers (*thinking-out-of-the-box*), choosing from alternatives and finding solutions, self-esteem, self-restraint, group effort and occupational skills amongst others. In addition, Feldman and Weitz (1988) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009), state that individuals need to be instrumental in sharpening their academic skills.

The Vision 2030 strategic plan which is encapsulated in the National Development Plan (NDP) has two key principles: *Firstly* the abolition of poverty, and *secondly* the advancement of equivalence. In accordance with this plan, tertiary institutions are instrumental in driving these two principles through quality teaching and learning, teaching professionalism, research technology support, education and increased outputs pertaining to research and graduate throughput (Republic of South Africa 2012). Academics are seen as key to driving this process and realising this long-term vision. This cannot be envisaged without well qualified, skilled and committed academic staff. The tertiary education domain is totally reliant on the calibre and commitment of these personnel, concedes Robyn and Preez, (2013).

Burke (1989) identifies personal plateauing as where the organisation determines that a person's inability to perform adequately at a high-ranking position due to particular inadequacies, despite the availability of jobs, is evident. (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2007) concurs that expanding on an array of competencies is in line with the "Protean" career raised in earlier discussion in Chapter Two.

Excerpts from interview transcripts concurs with the above discussion by repondents confirming the following sentiments:

"I think there are colleagues who are really publishing well and you know when you hit the knack of how to do it you can do it, you know and yes they are and they are getting all their points" "it is not so much a problem but it is a reality because what happens is when you are still doing your PhD and you not active in research active in doing what you doing like in terms of the generating data right? I will go with my students. I prefer to send my students for training so they are the ones getting the skills as opposed of me going for the training. You reach a point where you in that particular speciality maybe you are not getting the type of training that you are used to getting in the past so you are plateauing in that sense" (AL12). Furthermore a

respondent stated: "So academically we are very well skilled, we can walk into any university and be well versed there".

The above responses are aligned with the findings of the study whereby respondents communicated their unhappiness with the status quo in terms of promotion. Respondents highlighted the criteria were over-subscribed by the institution when compared to other institutions of higher learning. This has no doubt contributed to employee turnover since other institutions were embracing the very same criteria.

However, some responses from transcripts from the study, do not concur with the above:- "In medical school the fact that you do not have an MBCHB might immediately plateau you" (AL4). "So many people you know got all that competence, so many of those people who have skilled themselves and who have brought in so many different things to the university at that time it was acceptable in the university"....."now in the current structures of the university it is not acceptable and those people are not as highly recognised as they should be" (AL1). Another medical practitioner (AL9) based at the Medical School stated: "Yes in my setup in a surgical setup, I have people who have re-thought what they are doing because of the skill side of it because they find that they are not able to operate properly, they have too many complications" (AL9).

**B8.3 shows a significantly high level of agreement of 87.75%. This high level of agreement reflects that the job skills of academics are transferable to other institutions of higher learning.**

Smaliukiene, Korsakiene and Tvaronaviciene (2014) agrees with the above by stating the Protean career highlights one's competence to take responsibility of one's personal vocation by making decisions in respect of their careers by constantly scanning the environment for better opportunities. Excerpts from the interviews also support the above: "So academically we are very skilled, we can walk into any university and be well versed", "That has happened, we had a few academics that left for UNIZUL and they are trying to get the SAICA program running there and get the university accredited"... " they were very promising academics and some of them we could..." (AL13).

"I have heard someone say that he wants to go to industry, I don't know if it is the pressure, but mostly around all these things with the PU's and you know the moving goal posts all the time and like you know, I am just going to go in industry or something." "On a number of

occasions, I know a lot of academics want to move to a different school where they do not have this SAICA requirement" (AL13).

"Yes, they are financially driven and want to be their own boss and have better perks" (AL20).

However, a participant found the move to another institution as impacting negatively: "So maybe if I want to leave here and go to CT or Stellenbosch, I might need a PhD, I don't know but I might, so that would be limiting for me".

**B9.3 reveals a high level of agreement of 77.69%, indicating respondents were learning new things on their jobs on an on-going basis.**

The above has been supported by numerous authors as outlined below.

Cliff 1998; Sturges, Guest and Mackenzie, 2000 and King, Burke and Pemberton, 2005) cited in Philippou, (2014) concur by stating individuals are investing in attaining skills in order to stay employed in a competitive environment. An excerpt from an interviewee stated "I can see people are bringing in different things and bringing in, for example, the current thinking" (AL1) "So there are various opportunities which are provided but again it is up to the individual to whether they grab the opportunity" (AL10). Numerous initiatives such as "research workshops are provided" (AL19); "There is UEIP (University Induction Programmes), there is UIRP (University Research Programmes), there is PM (Performance Management), there is talent management, there is all of these various programs, but it is up to the individual, the degree to which they actually want to be stimulated by that or motivated (AL8).

Further interventions include: "On a school level, the same on a cluster level, we are trying to offer seminars for those who are trying to pursue a PhD, their needs are very different to those who have got a PhD and are trying to get into the publishing things. Other forms of support include: "It would be the odd little workshop to help you write a paper" (AL9); "Portfolio workshops" (AL18).

"At the university level I think they do have occasionally supervision workshops but more for novice lecturers or new lecturers..."

In addition, the notion of the Protean career compels an employee to obtain requisite competencies, qualifications, and preliminaries in order to adjust in a fast evolving workplace (Block, 2012 cited in Saleem and Amin, 2013) by taking care of their own needs and sharpening their skills, knowledge, abilities and opportunities (Saleem and Amin, 2013). This has been

confirmed by interviewees "At school level we try to have workshops for junior lecturers in clusters" (AL5) and "They talk about writing workshops I am not sure if it is effective in supporting individual staff members to at least support writing skills" (AL7).

There is agreement from Smaliukiene *et al.*, (2014) the Protean career compels individual's ability to adapt and foresee current trends and modify their skills and attitudes in order to adjust to change. However an interviewee stated "Not from an academic perspective, generally because most people can sit down and hit the books and pass the exams if they have to" (AL9). Furthermore, the acquisition of new skills allows employees to be more marketable elsewhere (Ongori and Agolla, 2009). Greenhaus *et al.*, (2007) concurs that expanding on an array of competencies is in line with the "Protean" career. Career alteration anxieties, which include employability-related apprehensions about acclimatizing to varying situations could possibly include vocation modifications and altering one's interests, aptitudes and competencies to fit prospects in the employment environment (Coetzee, 2015). Such an example has been provided by an interviewed participant "In terms of promotion, there are measures that the university puts in place like, for example, the promotion that is coming up now and those that have applied for promotion, they are having workshops and the DVC has been meeting with them. So I mean there are things in place that will assist you if you want to progress, if you want to apply promotion" (AL12). "There are also workshops which the school offered for people who are considering promotions, they know exactly what needs to go into the portfolio and the rest of it" (AL10).

**B10.3 reveals a high level of agreement of 72.98% which reflects respondents are in agreement that they like the contents of their jobs.**

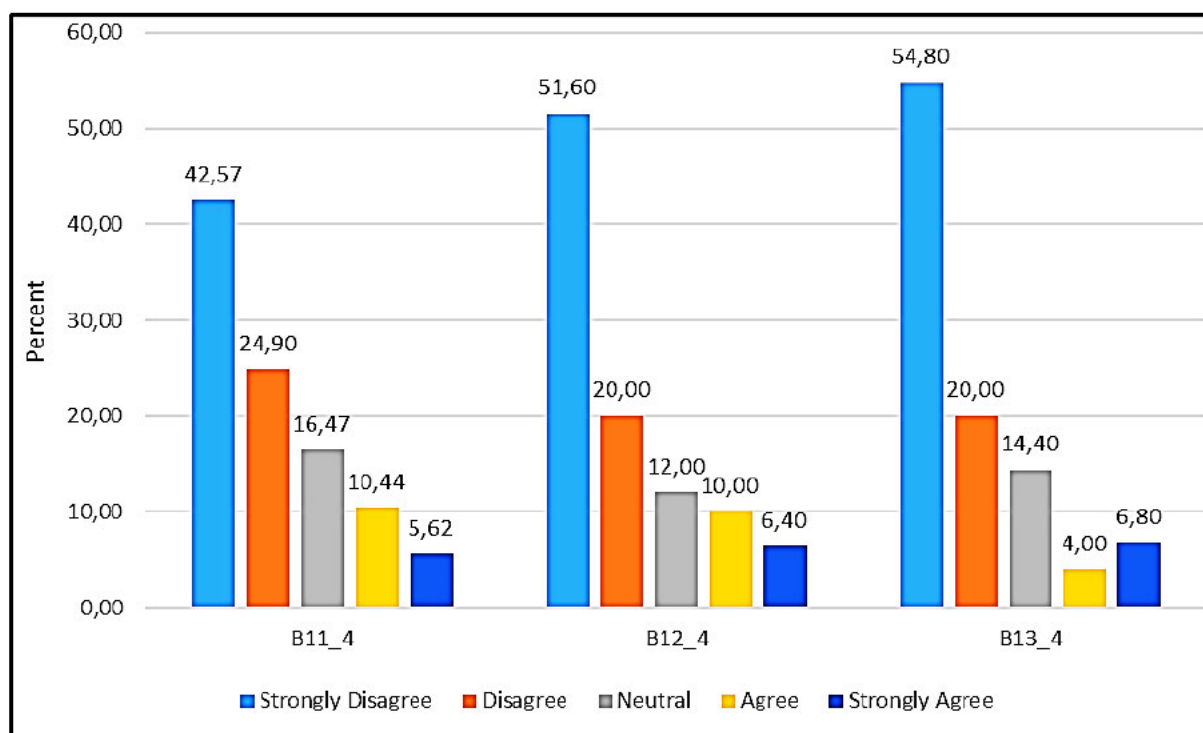
"I just like to teach, there are quite a few people who just say I am comfortable teaching also because background in which staff come from, they come from a teacher education background so that is the other problem"... "I think there are colleagues who are really publishing well and you know when you hit the knack of how to do it you can do it, you know and yes they are and they are getting all their points" are sentiments from a respondent regarding the contents of their job (AL16).

The discussion that follows focuses on dimensions B11\_4 to B13-4.

**TABLE 5.10: PERSONAL SCORING PATTERNS**

Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree		Chi Square
Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
62	24,9%	41	16,5%	26	10,4%	14	5,6%	0,000
50	20,0%	30	12,0%	25	10,0%	16	6,4%	0,000
50	20,0%	36	14,4%	10	4,0%	17	6,8%	0,000

**FIGURE 5.9: PERSONAL DIMENSIONS**



**B11.4 reflects a low level of agreement of 16.06%. This indicates that respondents did not view family considerations as a reason for non-advancement at the university therefore warranting a high level of disagreement of 67.47%.**

Van Der Westhuizen (2016), however, maintains that a discussion of career choice cannot take place without assessing the context of an individual’s preferences, orientations and aspirations, economic circumstances and sociological conditions such as family and education. In addition, Pienaar and Bester (2009) reflects on the dilemmas facing higher education, where academics are faced with exorbitant workloads and enormous pressures to publish, role overload, straddling responsibilities between home and work and the stringent criteria for advancement in careers.

Furthermore, a study of Portuguese academics by Santos, (2016) identified various career barriers amongst others, relating to finding a balance (which included concerns such as competing specialized roles and finding an equilibrium between work and personal life) and barriers pertaining to gender structure including (issues such as unfriendly work-family culture and personal prejudice regarding motherhood and alienation from social networks). Agreement echoed from a respondent concurs: "Amongst woman with small children "personal plateauing is prevalent" (AL11). "I am finding in life in general very few females will go all the way when they have got little kids" (AL11).

"Sometimes it is finding how to, especially when you have children. You are always filled with that guilt, when you need to do something and in fact you actually give up saying fine let me just go and see to this children, or I need to take them out but you are constantly working on that guilty platform" (AL16). "People plateau because they have families, it is their own choice" (AL 11). Furthermore, Canale, Herdklotz and Wild, (2013) in their study of professors in the mid-career stage, highlight the need to weigh the challenges of work and personal life, such as responsibilities on the home-front, child-care and care-giving to elders. Agreeing with challenges faced on the home-front a respondent stated: "There are people that are plateauing because of the life events and they just cannot, they will never be able to progress much because they just seem to delay, and it is due to life events, deaths and that being difficult to handle, that as well" (AL2).

**B12.4 reflects a low level of agreement of 16.40%. This highlighted that respondents desired promotions despite additional responsibilities, therefore warranting a high level of disagreement of 71.60%.**

Contrary to the above, respondents highlighted: "We are women, we also maybe accept it maybe in a sense because being a woman and mothers we realise that we don't have, we are not prepared to put in those extra hours like 8, 9 at night to stay at work you know we have to go home and cook and feed the kids and make sure they have done their homework" (AL12). A respondent stated in agreement: "When you are looking at the medical field again most people only graduate with their Bachelors when they are already in their positions, when they are married with kids or whatever, and then go and do a Masters and do a PhD.

Furthermore, recent studies associated with family situations and vocation advancement, highlights that many employees may reject certain promotional opportunities due to family obligations. A respondent highlighted that: "You cannot have your little kids .....and do your

PhD and .....articles" (AL11). However a respondent stated: "I am lucky that I do not have a family so that does not affect my career at all" (AL9). Some researchers however, consider family size as a positive in career advancement. Further to this, Staines, Fudge and Pottick (1986) have identified a feeble relationship with high salary, the amount of promotions and a full-time working spouse.

Despite the thoughts on steering clear of promotion due to additional commitments, Heslin (2005) cited in Smith-Ruig (2009), individuals still experienced feelings of satisfaction and fruition due to career or life goals being satisfied (that is, needs are fulfilled both at work and personally). A respondent concurred by stating: "Work load would be involved, personal ambition, commitment to the institution, insecurity- perhaps feelings of lack of confidence, perhaps a lack of motivation to grab opportunities and I think people's personal life also affects their professional life. Those are the big factors as well, people are in different places because of age in terms of children in terms of personal study, all of those things there are many factors which contribute to this" (AL10).

**B13.4 shows a low level of agreement of 10.80%. This identifies that respondents were in disagreement (74.8%) in terms of identifying relocation across campus sites as a reason for not advancing at the university.**

As indicated in Greenhaus *et al.*, (2007), Howard and Bray, (1988) conducted an extensive study of managers, and "It was observed that many managers might not strongly desire further advancement because of possible geographic relocation and potential pressure and politics. It is interesting to note that most of these tasks are difficult to accomplish within the perimeter of work hours. Hence, they are often extended into family hours and includes late night work, causing strain to the individual and family relationship. If it could be viewed as strenuous amongst academics in general, it could be more difficult if it would be for women academics in dual earnings who are saddled with more domestic and maternal responsibilities (Akanbi, 2016). A female respondent in agreement with this study stated: "We are women, we also maybe accept it, in a sense because being a woman and mothers realise that we don't have, are not prepared to put in those extra hours like 8, 9 at night to stay at work you know we have to go home and cook and feed the kids and make sure they have done their homework" (AL12); A number of people reject promotional accolades and plateau due to the effect that such an adjustment would make on their partner's vocation highlights Kilpatrick (1982). A respondent agreed that success does come at a price by stating: "Most people who succeed put their work

ahead of them, but my feeling is that it could affect their personal lives and cause problems as well" ..." people only complain about how work is impacting but nobody gives you details because that is a very personal space".

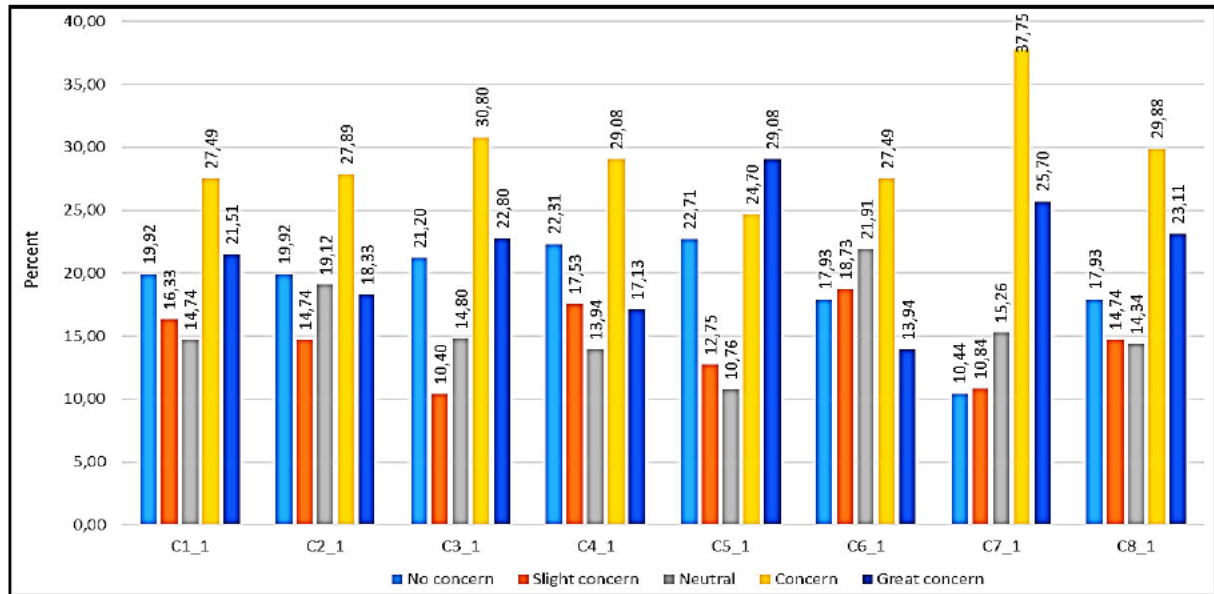
Respondents have reflected other issues may be prevalent and are considered when wanting to relocate. These issues relate to: "Workload would be involved, personal ambition, commitment to the institution, insecurity- perhaps feelings of lack of confidence, perhaps a lack of motivation to grab opportunities and I think people's personal life also affects their professional life. Those are the big factors as well - people are in different places because of age, in terms of children, in terms of personal study, all of those things, there are many factors which contribute to this" (AL10).

The following discussion will pertain to the dimensions relating to career stages.

**TABLE 5.11: EXPLORATORY SCORING PATTERNS**

		No concern		Slight concern		Neutral		Concern		Great concern		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
Finding the	C1_1	50	19.9%	41	16.3%	37	14.7%	69	27.5%	54	21.5%	0.014
Clarifying m	C2_1	50	19.9%	37	14.7%	48	19.1%	70	27.9%	46	18.3%	0.019
Making sur	C3_1	53	21.2%	26	10.4%	37	14.8%	77	30.8%	57	22.8%	0.000
Identifying t	C4_1	56	22.3%	44	17.5%	35	13.9%	73	29.1%	43	17.1%	0.002
Choosing a	C5_1	57	22.7%	32	12.7%	27	10.8%	62	24.7%	73	29.1%	0.000
Choosing t	C6_1	45	17.9%	47	18.7%	55	21.9%	69	27.5%	35	13.9%	0.012
Making spe	C7_1	26	10.4%	27	10.8%	38	15.3%	94	37.8%	64	25.7%	0.000
Settling dov	C8_1	45	17.9%	37	14.7%	36	14.3%	75	29.9%	58	23.1%	0.000

**FIGURE 5.10: EXPLORATORY DIMENSIONS**



Responses relating to dimensions C1\_1 to C8\_1 are explained below.

**C.1.1 reflects a moderate level of concern (49%) from respondents, regarding finding the line of work that best suits them. 19.92% showed no concern whereas 16.33% showed slight concern.**

This view is supported by Saleem and Amin, (2013) who stated in the exploration stage, individuals find the type of job which would benefit and interest them. In the exploratory stage, people gather specific and accurate information about themselves and the world (Baig, 2012). During the exploration phase, that individuals try to identify their interests and capabilities through their classes, hobbies and work experience and gauge how they fit into certain occupations. (Crites, 1976 cited in Themba, 2010). From the academic perspective, when individuals are faced with the challenges of teaching, research, administration, community engagement (the pillars of academia), they start reflecting on the self-concept they formed about the academic occupation during the childhood phase.

**C2.1 highlights a moderate level of concern (46.22%) from respondents regarding clarity of their ideas pertaining to the type of work they enjoy. 14.74% showed slight concern with 19.92% showing no concern.**

This level of concern is supported by Lam *et al.*, (2012) concurring early career is an era through which persons come in the labour market and initially search varied career and work

opportunities with the purpose of attaining a more precise picture of the job at hand. Many respondents in the 40-49 age group showed concern about clarifying their ideas in terms of their work.

**C3.1 shows a moderate level of concern (53.6%) by respondents in terms of ensuring their choice of academic occupation. 10.40% showed slight concern with 21.20% showing no concern.**

Once the individual chooses a specified field, the individual secures him/herself in his/her first choice career (Themba, 2010). The bulk of the respondents showing concern regarding their academic career choice were from the 40-49 age group. Predominantly it seems that the bulk of the “concern” responses were from this age group possibly confirming their commitment in the establishment phase of their careers.

**In C4.1, 46.21% of respondents showed concern about identifying the relevant academic skills required for the job, whereas 17.53% showed slight concern and 22.31% showed no concern about this.**

This concurs with Tremblay and Roger (1993) who explain that experiencing success in the initial career stage may highlight the capability of the person and the know-how which is needed for ultimate promotions in the organisational promotional scheme. Furthermore, in the exploration stage, individuals acquire the relevant education and training (Saleem and Amin, 2013) and the key responsibilities of acquiring an extensive array of skills (Gibson, 2003; Miao, Lund and Evans, 2009 cited in Lam *et al.*, 2012). A respondent interviewed concurred with the above: "Ok, the first is exploration when you come in as a lecturer or staff member...you have to build all your skills" (AL5). The largest “concern and greatest concern” responses emanated from the 40-49 age group once again, thereby confirming their commitment to enhancing their skills than any other age group.

**C5.1 showed a 53.78% level of concern relating to choosing a satisfying academic job, with 12.75% showing slight concern and 22.71% showing no concern.**

Some of the respondents concur with choosing a satisfying academic job: "A few staff I know who are on this level now who said I will do this research because it is required of me because it is a requirement. I will not sort of engage very deeply in research I am more sort of teaching" (AL7) - (obligation to do research). This response is very much in tandem with the thinking of

the age group (30-39) which has contributed the largest responses in terms of “concern and great concern”.

**C6.1 reflects a low level of concern (41.43%) for choosing the most challenging job of interest to them, with 18.73% showing a slight concern and 17.93% of no concern.**

Several aspects have impacted and influenced almost all domains of tertiary domains, inclusive of academic vocations and the fulfilment of academics, argues Jansen, (2004). This is highlighted by the fact that the educational fraternity is viewed as one of the most demanding vocations, is what is put forward by authors Barkhuizen *et al.*, (2004); Bellamy, Morley and Watty, (2003) and Gillespie (2001). Despite the sentiments of the above authors, respondents reflected little concern about choosing the most challenging job. This could be attributed to respondents’ readiness for the profession by attaining a thorough knowledge of the profession and equipping themselves in the exploration stage.

**C7.1 indicates a high level of concern (63.45%) regarding their desire to tailor specific plans in order to achieve their academic career goals, with 10.84% showing slight concern and 10.44% showing no concern.**

Participants highlighted their commitment to devising strategies to get ahead with their academic endeavours and stated: “I think there are colleagues who are really publishing well and you know when you hit the knack of how to do it, you can do it, you know and yes they are, and they are getting all their points” (AL16) and "A few staff I know who are on this level now who said I will do this research because it is required of me because it is a requirement. I will not sort of engage very deeply in research I am more sort of teaching" (AL7) - (obligation to do research).

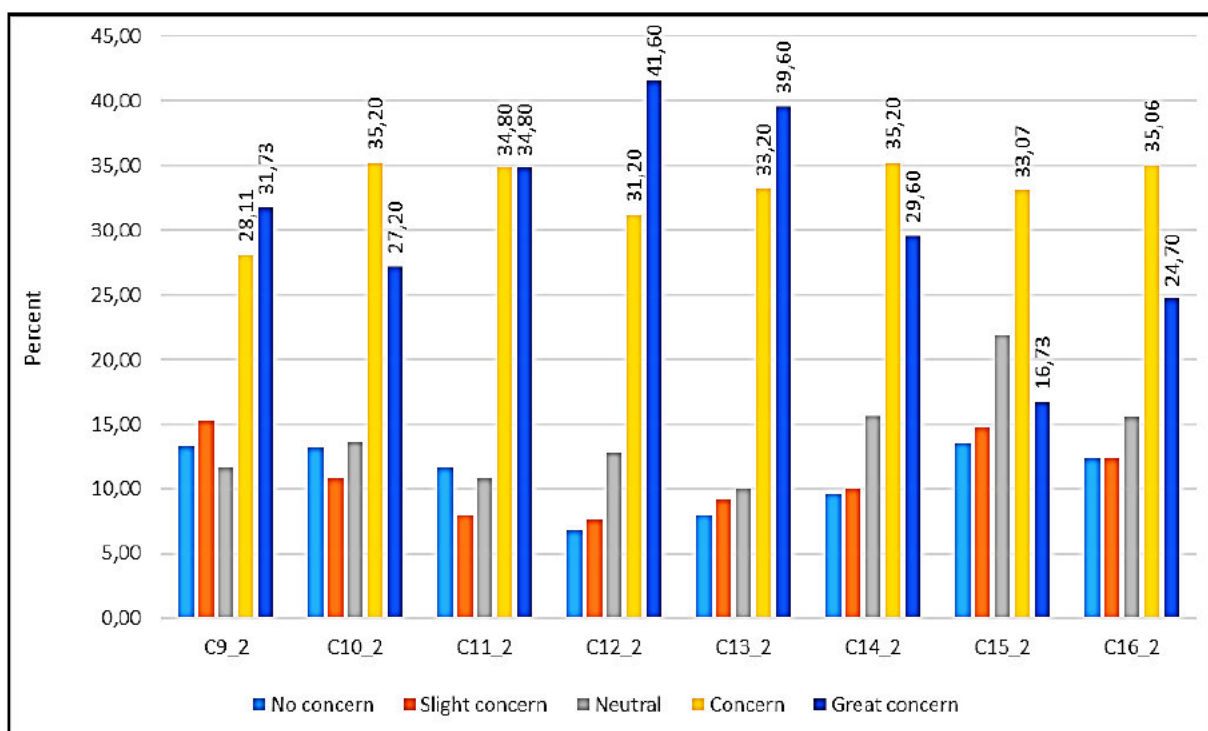
**C8.1 reflects an average level of concern from respondents relating to them settling down in their academic career they could stay with. 14.74% indicated respondents were of slight concern.**

Considering respondents’ settling down in their academic career, it has been noted that respondents in the 40-49 age group were concerned and greatly concerned when compared to all respondents in the study. This again reflects the importance of stability this age group is concerned with at this phase of their careers.

**TABLE 5.12: ESTABLISHMENT SCORING PATTERNS**

		No concern		Slight concern		Neutral		Concern		Great concern		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
Achieving s	C9_2	33	13.3%	38	15.3%	29	11.6%	70	28.1%	79	31.7%	0.000
Doing thing	C10_2	33	13.2%	27	10.8%	34	13.6%	88	35.2%	68	27.2%	0.000
Getting est	C11_2	29	11.6%	20	8.0%	27	10.8%	87	34.8%	87	34.8%	0.000
Improving r	C12_2	17	6.8%	19	7.6%	32	12.8%	78	31.2%	104	41.6%	0.000
Developing	C13_2	20	8.0%	23	9.2%	25	10.0%	83	33.2%	99	39.6%	0.000
Advancing t	C14_2	24	9.6%	25	10.0%	39	15.6%	88	35.2%	74	29.6%	0.000
Maintaining	C15_2	34	13.5%	37	14.7%	55	21.9%	83	33.1%	42	16.7%	0.000
Adapting to	C16_2	31	12.4%	31	12.4%	39	15.5%	88	35.1%	62	24.7%	0.000

**FIGURE 5.11: ESTABLISHMENT DIMENSIONS**



The dimensions C9\_2 to C16-2 are discussed below.

**C9.2 Responses indicated an above average (59.84%) level of concern by respondents in terms of achieving academic stability in their academic occupation.**

This view is characteristic of the establishment phase experienced by employees. The first task in the establishment phase focuses on stabilising one's position in the organisation by aligning oneself to the organisation's requirements and performing job duties aptly (Themba, 2010). Furthermore, Coetzee (2015) recognized three essential dimensions of psychosocial career establishment apprehensions, which share anxieties about conforming to a group, vocation and economic stability and sanctuary, crafting visions for self-expression and individual progress and improvement, and advancing in one's vocation in the present company. The third stage involves stabilising in a preferred occupation, thereby consolidating and improving ones position in that occupation (Themba, 2012).

**C10.2 Respondents indicated a high level of concern (62.40%) regarding doing things to stay in the academic field they have started off in.**

A respondent in the study stated: "These are the ones who work hard, and they are well informed but yet they are so scared to put themselves out in the open because to succeed as a researcher you have got to put yourself out in the open and you have to pass that stage where you open yourself up to criticism".....Mastery of the task requires the achievement of a satisfactory performance level in job assignments and an adaptation to the organisation's culture maintains Koivisto (2010) is paramount. Furthermore, the establishment phase involves stabilisation with the relevant tasks in terms of workplace orientation and effective job performance, the consolidation of positive work attitudes and harmonious co-worker relationships and productive work habits and career advancement (Cook, 2015).

**C11.2 Respondents showed a high level of concern (69.60%) in terms of establishing themselves in their academic profession.**

During the establishment phase, personnel create an abode in the organisation, carry out self-determining contributions, and shoulder more accountability and accomplishment monetarily, thereby contributing to a wanted existence (Saleem and Amin, 2103). Stabilisation relates to relevant tasks in terms of workplace orientation (Cook, 2015).

**C12.2 A high level of concern (72.80%) was reflected by respondents in terms of improving their chances of advancing in their academic careers.**

This concurs with Greenhaus *et al.*, (2007), that advancement is characteristic of the "Protean" career in respect of linking people and work. Furthermore, the establishment phase involves stabilisation and career advancement (Cook, 2015). Responses from interviews concur with the

above:- "From just a medical doctor perspective, you start off as a general practitioner, you become a specialist, you become a senior specialist, chief specialist, so I have gone that route. I am on top of that 1. I cannot go higher" (AL9); "There is a systematic stage you know you will only become a professor once you have achieved certain things" (AL4); "There is also your personal growth how you should not be an HOD when you are in your 20's, you need to have accumulated some experience of people not only your discipline so I think there is a dual problem to career stages" (AL4); "From an academic perspective obviously your careers would be to become a lecturer, senior lecturer, associate professor, professor" (AL9).

**C13.2 Respondents indicated a high level of concern (72.80%) in terms of developing their reputation in their academic line of work.**

This opinion is reinforced by (Cron and Slocum, 1986) who state this occurs through the learning progression, with early career individuals who are in a position to outlining their specialized self-concepts more thoroughly. The 40-49 age group seemed to be the most concerned about developing a reputation in academia. Some excerpts from the interviews concurring with this: "You feel established, then you are also supporting others now...when you have published yourself and others recognised that you have published so that is the middle way and the next level is like professional where you really now become an expert in the field" (AL5).

**C14.2 There was a high level of concern (64.8%) from respondents in terms of them advancing to a more responsible position in academia.**

This view is supported by Themba, (2010) that the establishment phase highlights progression to new levels of responsibility. Furthermore, (Gibson, 2003; Miao, Lund and Evans, 2009 cited in Lam *et al.*, 2012) highlights that one of the key tasks of the employee, is advancing to new levels of responsibility. Excerpts from the interviews concurs and reiterates the above. Contrarily other interviewees stated: "Some people are resistant to change, they would rather just stay where they are for however long and every time there is change"... (AL12).

**C15.2 There was a slightly lower level of concern (49.80%) from respondents in terms of maintaining their academic positions.**

Respondents in the 40-49 age group revealed a slightly lower level of concern with regards to staying in their academic careers. An interviewee stated: "There are different stages and you either move with them or you choose not to. There are some people that are "hell bent" on

getting PU's, so that they can become professors, often to the detriment of teaching at undergrad level. So for them they career staging because they have got a goal in mind and they will do whatever to get there" (AL10).

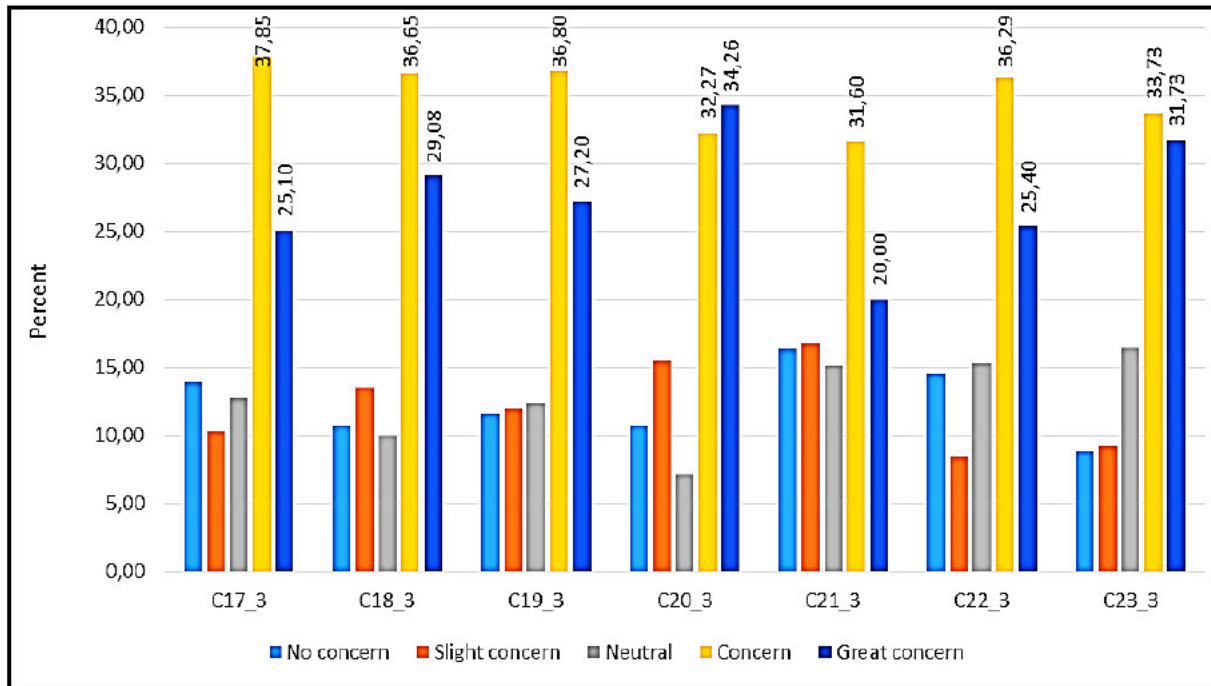
**C16.2 There was an average level of concern (59.76%) from respondents in terms of them adapting to new changes in their positions.**

Coetzee, (2015) concurs with the above by stating vocation adaptation concerns, which include employability-related apprehensions about acclimatizing to fluctuating circumstances might encompass vocation modifications and altering one's interests, aptitudes and competences to align to prospects in the employment market. In the middle adulthood the employee must master the technical components of their jobs. Interviewees have concurred: "In accounting, our focus is more on students and you are creating those chartered accountants so in a lot of times it is teacher focused. We do not get a chance to focus on our research and that brings us down so when it comes to not even looking at promotions but just looking at performing"..." so there is very little time for actual research so when it comes promotions..." "A few staff I know who are on this level now who said I will do this research because it is required of me because it is a requirement. I will not sort of engage very deeply in research I am more sort of teaching" (AL7) - (obligation to do research).

**TABLE 5.13: MAINTENANCE SCORING PATTERNS**

		No concern		Slight concern		Neutral		Concern		Great concern		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
Developing	C17_3	35	13.9%	26	10.4%	32	12.7%	95	37.8%	63	25.1%	0.000
Developing	C18_3	27	10.8%	34	13.5%	25	10.0%	92	36.7%	73	29.1%	0.000
Finding out	C19_3	29	11.6%	30	12.0%	31	12.4%	92	36.8%	68	27.2%	0.000
Keeping up	C20_3	27	10.8%	39	15.5%	18	7.2%	81	32.3%	86	34.3%	0.000
Getting aca	C21_3	41	16.4%	42	16.8%	38	15.2%	79	31.6%	50	20.0%	0.000
Getting to k	C22_3	36	14.5%	21	8.5%	38	15.3%	90	36.3%	63	25.4%	0.000
Developing	C23_3	22	8.8%	23	9.2%	41	16.5%	84	33.7%	79	31.7%	0.000

**FIGURE: 5.12: MAINTENANCE DIMENSIONS**



The dimensions C17\_3 to C23\_3 will be discussed hereunder.

**C17.3 Responses reflect a high level of concern (62.95%) of respondents in terms of developing new skills to cope with changes presented in their academic field.**

This outlook is reinforced by Greenhaus *et al.*, (2007) by stating that employees must expand on an array of competencies which is in line with the “Protean” career. Furthermore, Cook, (2015; Sverko, (2006) cited in Themba, (2007) is of the view that the individual aims to maintain what he/she has attained hence compelling them to update their competencies finding innovative and creative ways of working. Regarding the development of skills, respondents from the interview concurred: "people with academia or staying in academia at any medical school in this country means that you have to be productive” (AL3). The plateauing is like I am happy at teaching I am happy at doing other things, the demands of research is just too much so I rather just plateau and as I said try to find an equilibrium" (AL7).

**C18.3 High levels of concern (65.73%) of respondents indicated their quest to develop new knowledge and skills in order to improve their academic work.**

Saleem and Amin, (2013) further concurs that during the middle adulthood stage, employees are expected to bring their skills up to date. Furthermore, Pienaar and Bester, (2008), further

supports the above by highlighting in the middle adulthood the employee must master the technical components of their jobs. Excerpts from the interviews conducted with academic leaders concur with the above: "When you start publishing, when you feel now you have published two or three articles you begin to gain that confidence, so you reach that next level where you feel confident that you have reached a more confident middle" (AL5); "It is not in the establishment phase because that is where you are still acquiring new skills and getting out there" (AL12). However, contrary to the above, an interviewee stated "I think in the maintenance phase, I would stay there because of the things that folks have to do in order for them...because in the early career folks are much more enthusiastic about what they want to do so folks have, but I think being in a university setting and context and you see nothing happening, folks gets discouraged and I can see that" (AL15).

### **C19.3 Academics showed a high level of concern (64%) regarding new opportunities they faced with new changes in their academic fields.**

This view is supported by Coetzee, (2015) when he states vocation adaptation preoccupations, which comprise employability-related anxieties about adjusting to varying backgrounds, occupation vicissitudes and changing one's interests, capacities and proficiencies to accommodate prospects in the employment environment. This has been reiterated with regard to support provided by the university to academics in this regard: "There is no support, no one supports you further here, so a lecturer you might get support but after that there is no other support so you have to find ways in which you could enrich a publication, so I think the biggest problem is for staff at senior level" (AL5); "So the limitations I think is about publishing itself, it is not easy to get work published, of course there is no support"(AL5) and "I think that is where the plateau thing comes a lot, we really need to have more in terms of sharing good practice of teaching"(AL1).

### **C20.3 Respondents presented a high level of concern (66.53%) about keeping up with new knowledge, equipment and or methods in their academic field.**

Pienaar and Bester, (2008), concurs that in the middle adulthood the employee must master the technical components of their jobs, which is in alignment with the above. A respondent indicated: ".....you have developed yourself either to become an expert or towards a particular profession, a particular field" (AL7) and .....It is a self - taught thing where you are just you know you get hired you have to come up with your course outline. So there is so many learning that has to happen before a person can".

### **C21.3 Respondents showed an average level of concern (51.60%) about getting academic refresher training in order to keep up.**

Numerous responses from the interviews reflected adequate support was provided in respect of the refresher training provided to incumbents. The types of courses include: "there are various courses and even article writing, workshops etc it all pops up in the system. We probably got a list of them"(AL10); "it would be the odd little workshop to help you write a paper" (AL9); "there are also workshops which the school offered for people who are considering promotions, they know exactly what needs to go into the portfolio and the rest of it"(AL10). Respondents reiterated sentiments such as: "There are workshops to supervise" (AL10) and "Portfolio workshops"(AL18).

Lecturers, academics with 10 and more years of service and Africans were predominantly concerned and very concerned regarding refresher courses.

### **C22.3 Responses showed a high (61.69%) level of concern in terms of getting to know important people in their academic field.**

Interestingly, once again the 40-49 age group were the most concerned in terms of getting to know prominent people in academia. This could be warranted due to establishing themselves and acquiring a reputation in this phase of their lives.

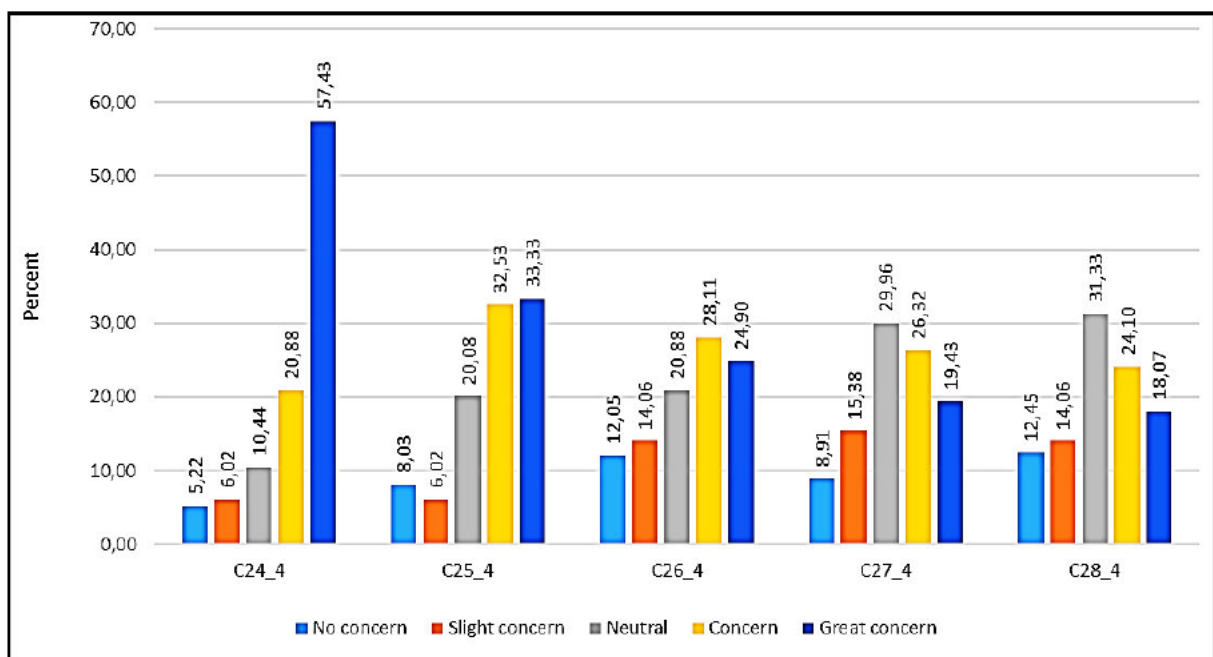
### **C23.3 There was a high level of concern (65.46%) from respondents in terms of developing easier ways of doing their academic work.**

The individual aims to maintain what he/she has attained hence compelling them to update their competencies finding innovative and creative ways of working (Cook, 2015; Sverko, 2006 cited in Themba, 2007). Moreover, concerns from respondents regarding their challenges with research can be highlighted in this regard, due to respondents opting to pursue their teaching responsibilities only. Additional sentiments reflecting easier ways of doing their work relate to flexibility: "You know for me in terms of the university, I think working at this university it is the best place because you get so much of flexibility, you decide what you are going to research, you decide how you teach, in terms of that you cannot get any more freedom" (AL16) "That is probably one reason why I did write in to do a PhD .....".

**TABLE: 5.14: DISENGAGEMENT SCORING PATTERNS**

		No concern		Slight concern		Neutral		Concern		Great concern		Chi Square
		Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	p-value
Having a good	C24_4	13	5.2%	15	6.0%	26	10.4%	52	20.9%	143	57.4%	0.000
Doing things	C25_4	20	8.0%	15	6.0%	50	20.1%	81	32.5%	83	33.3%	0.000
Developing	C26_4	30	12.0%	35	14.1%	52	20.9%	70	28.1%	62	24.9%	0.000
Avoiding activities	C27_4	22	8.9%	38	15.4%	74	30.0%	65	26.3%	48	19.4%	0.000
Cutting down	C28_4	31	12.4%	35	14.1%	78	31.3%	60	24.1%	45	18.1%	0.000

**FIGURE 5.13: DISENGAGEMENT DIMENSIONS**



The dimensions C24\_4 to C28\_4 will be discussed below.

**C24.4 reflects 78.31% of respondents showed a high level of concern of having a good life in retirement with some respondents showing a low concern of 6.02% and 5.22% showing no concern.**

Wrightman, (1994: 73) concurs by stating this is in keeping with the retirement phase and here the person sees his or her life as well spent”. The disengagement stage is characteristic of

deceleration, disengagement and challenges associated with one's forthcoming or actual retirement (Themba *et al.*, 2012).

**C25.4 Respondents showed a high level of concern (65.86%) for doing things they always wanted to do but never had the time to pursue.**

Respondents from a study by (Chattopadhyay and Gupta, 2005) concur with the above by relating to questions that employees explore. They relate to "what have I done with my life? What do I really get from and give my wife/husband, children, friends, community and self? What is it I truly want from myself and others"? Furthermore, Coetzee, (2015) maintains work-life adjustment preoccupations, which focuses on issues such as stabilising, lowering one's amount of work and attaining better coherence amongst one's labour and private life, and might also relate to retracting from remunerated engagement totally.

**C26.4 Respondents reflected an average level of concern (53.01%) with regards to developing more hobbies to supplement their academic work interests.**

Saleem and Amin, (2013) concur with the above, by stating this stage is characteristic of full attention on non-working undertakings like games, pastimes, volunteer activities and so on, however, a respondent stated, "Staff give up hobbies, like sport because of PhD" (AL19).

**C27.4 A below average level of concern (45.75%) was recorded from respondents regarding avoiding academics occupational pressures they formerly handled.**

Research findings indicate that older individuals can and are highly productive long after their retirement from formal work roles. Van der Westhuizen, (2011) further concurs by highlighting that as individuals approach old age, they cut back on work activities and they assume less responsibility with work roles. This a respondent indicated has had a profound effect: "yes, it is a big loss. We lost 4 people. We are struggling....."

**C28.4 Respondents showed a low level of concern (42.17%) about cutting down on their working hours, with 14,06% showing slight concern and 12.45% showing no concern.**

Coetzee, (2015) reinforces the views above by highlighting that work-life adjustment preoccupations, focuses on issues such as stabilising, lowering one's job load and achieving more synchronization between one's labour and private life, and might also relate to retracting from salaried occupation completely. A respondent agreed by stating: "it is related to that hierarchical promotion I think, so some of them decline and disengage" (AL16).

To decide if the scoring patterns per statement were meaningfully dissimilar per option, a Chi-Square test was done. The null hypothesis claims that similar numbers of participants scored across every alternative for each statement (one statement at a time). The alternate highlights there is a noteworthy difference among the levels of agreement and disagreement.

The outcomes are presented in the table.

The emphasized significant values (p-values) are less than 0.05 (the level of significance), it suggests that the distributions were not alike. That is, the differences between the manner participants scored (agree, neutral, disagree) were significant.

## **HYPOTHESIS TESTING**

The customary approach to reporting a result needs a statement of statistical significance. A **p-value** is generated from a **test statistic**. A significant result is specified with " $p < 0.05$ ". These values are highlighted with an \*. A second Chi Square test was undertaken to establish whether there was a statistically significant connection among the variables (rows vs columns). The null hypothesis highlights that there is no relationship between the two. The alternate hypothesis specifies that there is a relationship.

The table sums up the results of the Chi-Square tests in relation to the biographical variables.

**TABLE 5.15: PROMOTIONS BY RACIAL CLASSIFICATION**

Promotions are limited at the university due the university's structure			* Race Cross tabulation					
		Race					Total	
		Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other		
Promotions are limited at the university due the university's structure	Strongly Disagree	Count	4	3	0	6	2	15
		% within Race	5,2%	5,7%	0,0%	6,0%	33,3%	6,1%
		% of Total	1,6%	1,2%	0,0%	2,4%	0,8%	6,1%
	Disagree	Count	3	1	1	9	3	17
		% within Race	3,9%	1,9%	10,0%	9,0%	50,0%	6,9%
		% of Total	1,2%	0,4%	0,4%	3,7%	1,2%	6,9%
	Neutral	Count	7	7	1	24	0	39
		% within Race	9,1%	13,2%	10,0%	24,0%	0,0%	15,9%
		% of Total	2,8%	2,8%	0,4%	9,8%	0,0%	15,9%
	Agree	Count	17	17	4	25	1	64
		% within Race	22,1%	32,1%	40,0%	25,0%	16,7%	26,0%
		% of Total	6,9%	6,9%	1,6%	10,2%	0,4%	26,0%
	Strongly Agree	Count	46	25	4	36	0	111
		% within Race	59,7%	47,2%	40,0%	36,0%	0,0%	45,1%
		% of Total	18,7%	10,2%	1,6%	14,6%	0,0%	45,1%
Total		Count	77	53	10	100	6	246
		% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	31,3%	21,5%	4,1%	40,7%	2,4%	100,0%

For example: The p-value between “Promotions are limited at the university due the university’s structure” and racial classification is  $< 0.001$   $0.000$ . This indicates a significant connection among the highlighted variables. In other words, the race of the participant did feature as noteworthy in as far as how respondents viewed their promotional opportunities. The current University policy aligns itself to the Employment Equity Act, whereby the University attempts to redress the inequities with the University demographics. However, despite Blacks, Indians and Whites academics showing enthusiasm for promotion, this was a bit difficult to attain due to the University structures (hierarchical) and stringent criteria for promotion.

**TABLE 5.16: JOB STATUS AND ADVANCEMENT IN ACADEMIC CAREER**

			I am advancing in my academic career * Job Status Crosstabulation							Total
			Job Status							
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	
I am advancing in my academic career	Strongly Disagree	Count	1	1	8	30	2	9	4	55
		% within Job Status	8.3%	4.5%	26.7%	25.2%	8.7%	64.3%	12.5%	21.8%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	3.2%	11.9%	0.8%	3.6%	1.6%	21.8%
	Disagree	Count	1	4	4	19	2	0	3	33
		% within Job Status	8.3%	18.2%	13.3%	16.0%	8.7%	0.0%	9.4%	13.1%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.6%	1.6%	7.5%	0.8%	0.0%	1.2%	13.1%
	Neutral	Count	3	4	6	22	4	0	6	45
		% within Job Status	25.0%	18.2%	20.0%	18.5%	17.4%	0.0%	18.8%	17.9%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.6%	2.4%	8.7%	1.6%	0.0%	2.4%	17.9%
	Agree	Count	3	8	8	32	7	1	7	66
		% within Job Status	25.0%	36.4%	26.7%	26.9%	30.4%	7.1%	21.9%	26.2%
		% of Total	1.2%	3.2%	3.2%	12.7%	2.8%	0.4%	2.8%	26.2%
Strongly Agree	Count	4	5	4	16	8	4	12	53	
	% within Job Status	33.3%	22.7%	13.3%	13.4%	34.8%	28.6%	37.5%	21.0%	
	% of Total	1.6%	2.0%	1.6%	6.3%	3.2%	1.6%	4.8%	21.0%	
Total	Count	12	22	30	119	23	14	32	252	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.7%	11.9%	47.2%	9.1%	5.6%	12.7%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “I am advancing in my academic career” is < 0,001 0,016. This indicates that there is a noteworthy association among the variables. The job status of respondents therefore featured as significant in terms of respondents advancing their academic careers. Almost half of the participants agreed and strongly agreed that job status was a determinant for advancing their careers. This was dominant at lecturer level (where 12.7% agreed and 6.3% strongly agreed). This level of agreement could be attributed to the bulk of the academics at this level pursuing their PhDs due to pressure from the institution and National imperatives. The PhD is viewed as a key criteria for academics to advance their careers, that is, in terms of promotion.

**TABLE 5.17: RACE CATEGORY AND ADVANCEMENT IN ACADEMIC CAREER**

I am advancing in my academic career * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
I am advancing in my academic career	Strongly Disagree	Count	28	15	2	10	0	55
		% within Race	36,4%	27,8%	20,0%	9,9%	0,0%	22,2%
		% of Total	11,3%	6,0%	0,8%	4,0%	0,0%	22,2%
	Disagree	Count	9	13	0	9	1	32
		% within Race	11,7%	24,1%	0,0%	8,9%	16,7%	12,9%
		% of Total	3,6%	5,2%	0,0%	3,6%	0,4%	12,9%
	Neutral	Count	18	7	3	15	0	43
		% within Race	23,4%	13,0%	30,0%	14,9%	0,0%	17,3%
		% of Total	7,3%	2,8%	1,2%	6,0%	0,0%	17,3%
	Agree	Count	14	11	5	36	0	66
		% within Race	18,2%	20,4%	50,0%	35,6%	0,0%	26,6%
		% of Total	5,6%	4,4%	2,0%	14,5%	0,0%	26,6%
	Strongly Agree	Count	8	8	0	31	5	52
		% within Race	10,4%	14,8%	0,0%	30,7%	83,3%	21,0%
		% of Total	3,2%	3,2%	0,0%	12,5%	2,0%	21,0%
Total		Count	77	54	10	101	6	248
		% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	31,0%	21,8%	4,0%	40,7%	2,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Race” and “I am advancing my academic career” is  $< 0,001$  0.000. This reflects that there is a substantial affiliation amongst the above variables. The race of the participants did feature as significant in terms of how participants viewed their advancement in terms of academia. The study reflects almost 26,6% of the respondents (14,5% Africans and 5,6% Indians) agreed about advancing in their careers. 21% of the respondents strongly agreed with 12,5% of the responses coming from the African race group. This reflects that Africans and Indians strongly agreed about advancing their academic careers.

**TABLE 5.18: TENURE AND CHALLENGING ACADEMIC JOB**

My academic job is challenging			* Number of Years in Institution					
			Cross tabulation					
			Number of Years in Institution					
			< 1	1 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10+	Total
My academic job is challenging	Strongly Disagree	Count	2	2	0	0	4	8
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	4,1%	0,0%	0,0%	4,3%	3,2%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,8%	0,0%	0,0%	1,6%	3,2%
	Disagree	Count	0	7	1	4	3	15
		% within Number of Years in Institution	0,0%	14,3%	2,0%	8,9%	3,3%	6,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,8%	0,4%	1,6%	1,2%	6,0%
	Neutral	Count	3	3	5	4	17	32
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	6,1%	10,0%	8,9%	18,5%	12,7%
		% of Total	1,2%	1,2%	2,0%	1,6%	6,7%	12,7%
	Agree	Count	8	26	19	22	32	107
		% within Number of Years in Institution	50,0%	53,1%	38,0%	48,9%	34,8%	42,5%
		% of Total	3,2%	10,3%	7,5%	8,7%	12,7%	42,5%
	Strongly Agree	Count	3	11	25	15	36	90
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	22,4%	50,0%	33,3%	39,1%	35,7%
		% of Total	1,2%	4,4%	9,9%	6,0%	14,3%	35,7%
Total		Count	16	49	50	45	92	252
		% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	6,3%	19,4%	19,8%	17,9%	36,5%	100,0%

The p-value between “Tenure” and “My academic job is challenging” is < 0,001 0,006. This specifies that there is an important correlation amongst the variables. Tenure of the respondent therefore did feature as significant in terms of how respondents viewed finding their academic jobs challenging. A sum of 42.5% of the respondents agreed (the highest scores being 10.3% with 1-3 years and 12.7% that have been with the institution for 10 years and above) that their academic job is challenging. A further 35.7% strongly agreed (9.9% with 4-6 years of service and 14.3% with 10 and more years of service at the institution). It was evident that their academic career was a challenging one.

**TABLE 5.19: GENDER AND CHALLENGING ACADEMIC JOB**

My academic job is challenging * Gender Cross tabulation					
			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
My academic job is challenging	Strongly Disagree	Count	5	2	7
		% within Gender	4,3%	1,5%	2,8%
		% of Total	2,0%	0,8%	2,8%
	Disagree	Count	1	13	14
		% within Gender	0,9%	9,8%	5,6%
		% of Total	0,4%	5,2%	5,6%
	Neutral	Count	14	18	32
		% within Gender	12,1%	13,5%	12,9%
		% of Total	5,6%	7,2%	12,9%
	Agree	Count	50	57	107
		% within Gender	43,1%	42,9%	43,0%
		% of Total	20,1%	22,9%	43,0%
	Strongly Agree	Count	46	43	89
		% within Gender	39,7%	32,3%	35,7%
		% of Total	18,5%	17,3%	35,7%
Total		Count	116	133	249
		% within Gender	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	46,6%	53,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Gender” and “My academic job is challenging” is  $< 0,001$  0.021. This reflects that there is a significant connection between the above variables. The gender of the participants was significantly instrumental in terms of how respondents viewed their academic jobs as challenging. The scores revealed that 20.1% of females and 22.9% of males agreed that their academic jobs are challenging whereas 35.7% (18.5% females and 17.3% of males) strongly agreed. These responses could possibly be attributed to the complexity and demands the academic job poses to them.

**TABLE 5.20: AGE AND SAME ACADEMIC JOB**

My academic job has remained the same over time * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20-29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
My academic job has remained the same over time	Strongly Disagree	Count	0	3	17	20	7	11	58
		% within Age	0,0%	7,5%	24,6%	22,0%	22,6%	52,4%	22,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,2%	6,7%	7,9%	2,8%	4,3%	22,9%
	Disagree	Count	1	15	20	31	9	4	80
		% within Age	100,0%	37,5%	29,0%	34,1%	29,0%	19,0%	31,6%
		% of Total	0,4%	5,9%	7,9%	12,3%	3,6%	1,6%	31,6%
	Neutral	Count	0	12	9	15	5	1	42
		% within Age	0,0%	30,0%	13,0%	16,5%	16,1%	4,8%	16,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,7%	3,6%	5,9%	2,0%	0,4%	16,6%
	Agree	Count	0	4	17	13	3	3	40
		% within Age	0,0%	10,0%	24,6%	14,3%	9,7%	14,3%	15,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	6,7%	5,1%	1,2%	1,2%	15,8%
	Strongly Agree	Count	0	6	6	12	7	2	33
		% within Age	0,0%	15,0%	8,7%	13,2%	22,6%	9,5%	13,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,4%	2,4%	4,7%	2,8%	0,8%	13,0%
Total		Count	1	40	69	91	31	21	253
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,8%	27,3%	36,0%	12,3%	8,3%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “My academic job has remained the same over time” is < 0,001 0,049. This indicates that there is a strong link between the variables. The age of participants was therefore influential in as far as how respondents viewed finding their academic jobs as remaining the same over time. A score of 22.9% strongly disagreed (the highest responses coming from the 40-49 group and 30-39 group respectively) that their academic jobs have remained the same over time. Furthermore, 31.6% disagreed (with the highest responses emanating from the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups respectively) regarding changes in their academic jobs. This indicates academic jobs have undergone changes over time as reflected by almost half of the respondents in the above age categories. A key consideration by the university would be to take into account why respondents perceive their jobs to have changed over time.

**TABLE 5.21: JOB STATUS AND SAME ACADEMIC JOB**

My academic job has remained the same over time * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	Total
My academic job has remained the same over time	Strongly Disagree	Count	4	5	13	29	0	1	6	58
		% within Job Status	33.3%	22.7%	43.3%	24.4%	0.0%	7.1%	18.2%	22.9%
		% of Total	1.6%	2.0%	5.1%	11.5%	0.0%	0.4%	2.4%	22.9%
	Disagree	Count	2	9	7	40	11	4	7	80
		% within Job Status	16.7%	40.9%	23.3%	33.6%	47.8%	28.6%	21.2%	31.6%
		% of Total	0.8%	3.6%	2.8%	15.8%	4.3%	1.6%	2.8%	31.6%
	Neutral	Count	1	2	5	21	4	1	8	42
		% within Job Status	8.3%	9.1%	16.7%	17.6%	17.4%	7.1%	24.2%	16.6%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.8%	2.0%	8.3%	1.6%	0.4%	3.2%	16.6%
	Agree	Count	3	3	5	15	7	3	4	40
		% within Job Status	25.0%	13.6%	16.7%	12.6%	30.4%	21.4%	12.1%	15.8%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.2%	2.0%	5.9%	2.8%	1.2%	1.6%	15.8%
	Strongly Agree	Count	2	3	0	14	1	5	8	33
		% within Job Status	16.7%	13.6%	0.0%	11.8%	4.3%	35.7%	24.2%	13.0%
		% of Total	0.8%	1.2%	0.0%	5.5%	0.4%	2.0%	3.2%	13.0%
Total	Count	12	22	30	119	23	14	33	253	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.7%	8.7%	11.9%	47.0%	9.1%	5.5%	13.0%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “My academic job has remained the same over time” is  $< 0,001$  0.016. This reflects a strong correlation amongst the above variables. The status level of the participants did play a significant part in as far as how respondents viewed their academic jobs as being the same over time. The scores revealed that 22.9% strongly disagreed (the highest responses coming from lecturers (11.5%) that their academic jobs have remained the same over time. However, 31.6% disagreed (with the highest responses emanating from the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups respectively) regarding changes in their academic jobs. This indicates academic jobs have undergone changes over time as reflected by almost half of the respondents in the above age categories. A key consideration by the university would be to take into account why respondents perceive their jobs to have changed over time.

**TABLE 5.22: TENURE AND SAME ACADEMIC JOB**

My academic job has remained the same over time * Number of Years in Institution								
Cross tabulation								
			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 - 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10+	
My academic job has remained the same over time	Strongly Disagree	Count	3	7	11	7	30	58
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	14,3%	22,0%	15,6%	32,6%	23,0%
		% of Total	1,2%	2,8%	4,4%	2,8%	11,9%	23,0%
	Disagree	Count	4	22	20	12	22	80
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	44,9%	40,0%	26,7%	23,9%	31,7%
		% of Total	1,6%	8,7%	7,9%	4,8%	8,7%	31,7%
	Neutral	Count	9	12	8	7	5	41
		% within Number of Years in Institution	56,3%	24,5%	16,0%	15,6%	5,4%	16,3%
		% of Total	3,6%	4,8%	3,2%	2,8%	2,0%	16,3%
	Agree	Count	0	4	6	12	18	40
		% within Number of Years in Institution	0,0%	8,2%	12,0%	26,7%	19,6%	15,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	2,4%	4,8%	7,1%	15,9%
	Strongly Agree	Count	0	4	5	7	17	33
		% within Number of Years in Institution	0,0%	8,2%	10,0%	15,6%	18,5%	13,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	2,0%	2,8%	6,7%	13,1%
Total	Count	16	49	50	45	92	252	
	% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	6,3%	19,4%	19,8%	17,9%	36,5%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Tenure” and “My academic job has remained the same over time” is < 0,001 0.000. This indicates that there is a noteworthy connection between the variables. The tenure of the participants therefore did portray a significant part regarding how respondents viewed finding their academic jobs as remaining the same over time. At least 23% of the respondents strongly disagreed that their academic job has remained the same over time, with the highest level of disagreement (11.9%), coming from respondents who have been in the institution for 10 and more years. However, 31.7% disagreed with the maximum level of disagreement coming from respondents who were in the institution between 1 and 3 years. Respondents’ level of disagreement could be attributed to that academic jobs have changed significantly over the years. This could also have repercussions for the institution in terms of established workloads and overload.

**TABLE 5.23: RACE AND SAME ACADEMIC JOB**

My academic job has remained the same over time * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
My academic job has remained the same over time	Strongly Disagree	Count	15	21	3	14	4	57
		% within Race	19,5%	38,9%	30,0%	13,7%	66,7%	22,9%
		% of Total	6,0%	8,4%	1,2%	5,6%	1,6%	22,9%
	Disagree	Count	26	10	3	39	0	78
		% within Race	33,8%	18,5%	30,0%	38,2%	0,0%	31,3%
		% of Total	10,4%	4,0%	1,2%	15,7%	0,0%	31,3%
	Neutral	Count	15	6	0	20	0	41
		% within Race	19,5%	11,1%	0,0%	19,6%	0,0%	16,5%
		% of Total	6,0%	2,4%	0,0%	8,0%	0,0%	16,5%
	Agree	Count	12	12	3	12	1	40
		% within Race	15,6%	22,2%	30,0%	11,8%	16,7%	16,1%
		% of Total	4,8%	4,8%	1,2%	4,8%	0,4%	16,1%
	Strongly Agree	Count	9	5	1	17	1	33
		% within Race	11,7%	9,3%	10,0%	16,7%	16,7%	13,3%
		% of Total	3,6%	2,0%	0,4%	6,8%	0,4%	13,3%
Total		Count	77	54	10	102	6	249
		% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	30,9%	21,7%	4,0%	41,0%	2,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Race” and “My academic job has remained the same over time” is < 0,001 0.010. This indicates that there is a substantial affiliation among the variables. The race of the participants therefore did portray a significant part in as far as respondents finding their academic jobs as remaining the same over time. Nearly 50% of the participants strongly disagreed and disagreed. The findings revealed that 22.9% strongly disagreed that their academic jobs have remained the same with the highest respondents being Whites (8.4%) and Indians (6.0%) respectively. On the other hand, 31.3% of academics disagreed with the statement (15,7% Africans and 10.4% Indians).

**TABLE 5.24: MARITAL STATUS AND LEARNING NEW THINGS**

			Marital Status				Total
			Married	Single	Divorced / Separated	Other	
I am constantly learning new things on my job	Strongly Disagree	Count	5	4	1	0	10
		% within Marital Status	3,1%	5,1%	12,5%	0,0%	4,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	1,6%	0,4%	0,0%	4,0%
	Disagree	Count	14	1	0	1	16
		% within Marital Status	8,6%	1,3%	0,0%	33,3%	6,4%
		% of Total	5,6%	0,4%	0,0%	0,4%	6,4%
	Neutral	Count	13	15	2	0	30
		% within Marital Status	8,0%	19,2%	25,0%	0,0%	12,0%
		% of Total	5,2%	6,0%	0,8%	0,0%	12,0%
	Agree	Count	83	34	5	0	122
		% within Marital Status	51,2%	43,6%	62,5%	0,0%	48,6%
		% of Total	33,1%	13,5%	2,0%	0,0%	48,6%
	Strongly Agree	Count	47	24	0	2	73
		% within Marital Status	29,0%	30,8%	0,0%	66,7%	29,1%
		% of Total	18,7%	9,6%	0,0%	0,8%	29,1%
Total		Count	162	78	8	3	251
		% within Marital Status	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	64,5%	31,1%	3,2%	1,2%	100,0%

The p-value between “Marital status” and “I am constantly learning new things on my job” is  $< 0,001$  0,021. This shows that there is an important affiliation between the variables. The wedded position of the participants therefore did undertake a noteworthy portfolio in regarding respondents constantly learning new things on their jobs. Almost 80% of the sample agreed and strongly agreed that they are learning new things on the jobs. The highest levels of agreement came from married respondents (33.1% who agreed and 18.7% who strongly agreed). This reflects that the married respondents were updating themselves in new areas and in the acquisition of new skills. This is in keeping with the need for academics to skill themselves in respect of skills for journal article writing, for example. Furthermore, the married respondents could very well be in their mid-career stage, and the emphasis on the PhD must be a compelling reason to constantly learn new things on the job.

**TABLE 5.25: JOB STATUS AND CONTENTS OF MY JOB**

I like the contents of my job * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							Total
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	
I like the contents of my job	Strongly Disagree	Count	0	0	4	2	0	3	1	10
		% within Job Status	0.0%	0.0%	13.8%	1.7%	0.0%	21.4%	3.0%	4.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	0.8%	0.0%	1.2%	0.4%	4.0%
	Disagree	Count	0	1	2	8	1	2	2	16
		% within Job Status	0.0%	4.5%	6.9%	6.8%	4.8%	14.3%	6.1%	6.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.4%	0.8%	3.2%	0.4%	0.8%	0.8%	6.5%
	Neutral	Count	3	1	6	23	1	1	6	41
		% within Job Status	25.0%	4.5%	20.7%	19.7%	4.8%	7.1%	18.2%	16.5%
		% of Total	1.2%	0.4%	2.4%	9.3%	0.4%	0.4%	2.4%	16.5%
	Agree	Count	4	11	12	49	14	3	16	109
		% within Job Status	33.3%	50.0%	41.4%	41.9%	66.7%	21.4%	48.5%	44.0%
		% of Total	1.6%	4.4%	4.8%	19.8%	5.6%	1.2%	6.5%	44.0%
	Strongly Agree	Count	5	9	5	35	5	5	8	72
		% within Job Status	41.7%	40.9%	17.2%	29.9%	23.8%	35.7%	24.2%	29.0%
		% of Total	2.0%	3.6%	2.0%	14.1%	2.0%	2.0%	3.2%	29.0%
Total	Count	12	22	29	117	21	14	33	248	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.9%	11.7%	47.2%	8.5%	5.6%	13.3%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “I like the contents of my job” is < 0,001 0,032. This reflects an important association between the variables. The job status of the participants therefore featured significantly in as far as respondents’ liking the contents of their jobs. About 70% of respondents agreed and strongly agreed in the various designations indicated they like the contents of their jobs. A further 44.0% agreed with the highest responses coming from lecturers (19.8%) and 29.0% strongly agreed with the highest responses (14.1%) coming from lecturers. It seemed that lecturers were the most accepting and in tune with the contents of their jobs as opposed to any other designation group. This could be due to the familiarity of the content or due to their levels of expertise, which allowed them to relate to and identify with the content of their jobs.

**TABLE 5.26: RACE AND CONTENTS OF JOB**

I like the contents of my job * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
I like the contents of my job	Strongly Disagree	Count	3	0	0	7	0	10
		% within Race	4,0%	0,0%	0,0%	6,9%	0,0%	4,1%
		% of Total	1,2%	0,0%	0,0%	2,9%	0,0%	4,1%
	Disagree	Count	8	1	3	4	0	16
		% within Race	10,7%	1,9%	30,0%	4,0%	0,0%	6,5%
		% of Total	3,3%	0,4%	1,2%	1,6%	0,0%	6,5%
	Neutral	Count	11	15	2	12	1	41
		% within Race	14,7%	28,3%	20,0%	11,9%	16,7%	16,7%
		% of Total	4,5%	6,1%	0,8%	4,9%	0,4%	16,7%
	Agree	Count	34	27	2	42	2	107
		% within Race	45,3%	50,9%	20,0%	41,6%	33,3%	43,7%
		% of Total	13,9%	11,0%	0,8%	17,1%	0,8%	43,7%
	Strongly Agree	Count	19	10	3	36	3	71
		% within Race	25,3%	18,9%	30,0%	35,6%	50,0%	29,0%
		% of Total	7,8%	4,1%	1,2%	14,7%	1,2%	29,0%
Total		Count	75	53	10	101	6	245
		% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	30,6%	21,6%	4,1%	41,2%	2,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “race” and “I like the contents of my job” is  $< 0,001$  0,013. This indicates that there is a substantial connection among the variables. The race of participants therefore featured significantly in as far as respondents’ liking the contents of their jobs. About 70% of the respondents from different racial groups agreed (43.7%) and 29.0% strongly agreed that they like the contents of their jobs. For those that agreed (17.1%) came from the African group followed by 13.9% from Indians. For those that strongly agreed, the highest responses emanated from Africans (14.7%) followed by Indians (7.8%). This highlighted that Africans and Indians were the most in tune with the contents of their jobs as opposed to any other group. This possibly reflects, in terms of job content plateauing, that respondents, are not experiencing plateauing.

**TABLE 5.27: CAMPUS SITE AND RELOCATION TO ANOTHER UKZN CAMPUS SITE**

I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site *								
Campus Site Crosstabulation								
			Campus Site					Total
			Westville	Howard College	Pietermaritzburg	Edgewood	Medical School	
I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site	Strongly Disagree	Count	47	44	32	8	5	136
		% within Campus Site	56.6%	69.8%	44.4%	44.4%	38.5%	54.6%
		% of Total	18.9%	17.7%	12.9%	3.2%	2.0%	54.6%
	Disagree	Count	22	9	11	5	3	50
		% within Campus Site	26.5%	14.3%	15.3%	27.8%	23.1%	20.1%
		% of Total	8.8%	3.6%	4.4%	2.0%	1.2%	20.1%
	Neutral	Count	11	7	12	3	3	36
		% within Campus Site	13.3%	11.1%	16.7%	16.7%	23.1%	14.5%
		% of Total	4.4%	2.8%	4.8%	1.2%	1.2%	14.5%
	Agree	Count	3	1	4	1	1	10
		% within Campus Site	3.6%	1.6%	5.6%	5.6%	7.7%	4.0%
		% of Total	1.2%	0.4%	1.6%	0.4%	0.4%	4.0%
	Strongly Agree	Count	0	2	13	1	1	17
		% within Campus Site	0.0%	3.2%	18.1%	5.6%	7.7%	6.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.8%	5.2%	0.4%	0.4%	6.8%
Total	Count	83	63	72	18	13	249	
	% within Campus Site	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	33.3%	25.3%	28.9%	7.2%	5.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “campus site” and “I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site” is  $< 0,001$  0,007. This shows an important relationship amongst the variables. Relocation to another campus site was not a determinant for the non-advancement of respondents. About 75% of the participants strongly disagreed (54.6%) and 20.1% disagreed that relocation was a reason for not advancing themselves at the university. Participants did not view moving to another campus site as a reason for not advancing. They were willing and eager to relocate. If there was a high level of agreement,

then, this could be attributed respondents' concern regarding work-life balance issues for example, which could contribute to personal plateauing.

**TABLE 5.28: RACE AND RELOCATION TO ANOTHER CAMPUS SITE**

I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site *								
Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site	Strongly Disagree	Count	42	28	5	58	3	136
		% within Race	54,5%	51,9%	50,0%	58,0%	50,0%	55,1%
		% of Total	17,0%	11,3%	2,0%	23,5%	1,2%	55,1%
	Disagree	Count	19	11	2	17	0	49
		% within Race	24,7%	20,4%	20,0%	17,0%	0,0%	19,8%
		% of Total	7,7%	4,5%	0,8%	6,9%	0,0%	19,8%
	Neutral	Count	9	6	2	19	0	36
		% within Race	11,7%	11,1%	20,0%	19,0%	0,0%	14,6%
		% of Total	3,6%	2,4%	0,8%	7,7%	0,0%	14,6%
	Agree	Count	4	3	0	3	0	10
		% within Race	5,2%	5,6%	0,0%	3,0%	0,0%	4,0%
		% of Total	1,6%	1,2%	0,0%	1,2%	0,0%	4,0%
	Strongly Agree	Count	3	6	1	3	3	16
		% within Race	3,9%	11,1%	10,0%	3,0%	50,0%	6,5%
		% of Total	1,2%	2,4%	0,4%	1,2%	1,2%	6,5%
<b>Total</b>		Count	77	54	10	100	6	247
		% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	31,2%	21,9%	4,0%	40,5%	2,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “race” and “I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site” is  $< 0,001$  0,019. This indicates that there is a substantial link between the variables. The race of participants therefore was significantly vital regarding respondents' belief that relocation was not a reason for non-advancement in their careers. About 70% of the respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed with the issue of relocation being the reason for non-advancement. A further 55.1% strongly disagreed with the highest responses coming from the African race group (23.5%) and Indian group (17.0%). A score of 19.8% disagreed with the highest levels of disagreement coming from Indians (7.7%) and Africans (6.9%). This reflects these race groups were the least affected by the notion of relocation to an alternate campus site as a reason for not advancing at the institution.

**TABLE 5.29: JOB STATUS AND RELOCATION TO ANOTHER CAMPUS SITE**

I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							Total
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	
I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site	Strongly Disagree	Count	6	14	19	56	16	11	15	137
		% within Job Status	50.0%	63.6%	63.3%	47.9%	72.7%	78.6%	45.5%	54.8%
		% of Total	2.4%	5.6%	7.6%	22.4%	6.4%	4.4%	6.0%	54.8%
	Disagree	Count	2	3	7	29	5	1	3	50
		% within Job Status	16.7%	13.6%	23.3%	24.8%	22.7%	7.1%	9.1%	20.0%
		% of Total	0.8%	1.2%	2.8%	11.6%	2.0%	0.4%	1.2%	20.0%
	Neutral	Count	1	3	4	19	1	2	6	36
		% within Job Status	8.3%	13.6%	13.3%	16.2%	4.5%	14.3%	18.2%	14.4%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.2%	1.6%	7.6%	0.4%	0.8%	2.4%	14.4%
	Agree	Count	0	1	0	4	0	0	5	10
		% within Job Status	0.0%	4.5%	0.0%	3.4%	0.0%	0.0%	15.2%	4.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	4.0%
	Strongly Agree	Count	3	1	0	9	0	0	4	17
		% within Job Status	25.0%	4.5%	0.0%	7.7%	0.0%	0.0%	12.1%	6.8%
		% of Total	1.2%	0.4%	0.0%	3.6%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	6.8%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	22	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	8.8%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site” is < 0,001 0,033. This indicates a vital link with the variables. The “job status” of participants undertook a significant portfolio in terms of not using relocation as a justifiable reason for not advancing at the university. Almost 75% of the respondents from the different race groups strongly disagreed and disagreed that they opted not to advance at the institution due to having to move to another campus site. 22.4% of lecturers strongly disagreed and 11.6% disagreed. This reflects that lecturers particularly did not view relocation as a reason for not advancing. However, authors Ference *et al.*, (1977) cited in Godschalk and Fender (2015) stated that some individuals explicitly demonstrate their unwillingness to be promoted further, due to personal reasons such as family responsibilities, wellbeing, avoiding relocation or satisfaction with one’s own job, to control their vocational course and avoiding more accountabilities.

**TABLE 5.30: AGE AND TYPE OF WORK I ENJOY**

Clarifying my ideas about the type of work I would really enjoy * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 - 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 – 59		60+
Clarifying my ideas about the type of work I would really enjoy	No concern	Count	0	1	14	18	9	8	50
		% within Age	0,0%	2,5%	20,6%	20,0%	29,0%	38,1%	19,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	5,6%	7,2%	3,6%	3,2%	19,9%
	Slight concern	Count	0	5	10	14	4	4	37
		% within Age	0,0%	12,5%	14,7%	15,6%	12,9%	19,0%	14,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	4,0%	5,6%	1,6%	1,6%	14,7%
	Neutral	Count	1	12	14	15	4	2	48
		% within Age	100,0%	30,0%	20,6%	16,7%	12,9%	9,5%	19,1%
		% of Total	0,4%	4,8%	5,6%	6,0%	1,6%	0,8%	19,1%
	Concern	Count	0	9	16	31	7	7	70
		% within Age	0,0%	22,5%	23,5%	34,4%	22,6%	33,3%	27,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	3,6%	6,4%	12,4%	2,8%	2,8%	27,9%
	Great concern	Count	0	13	14	12	7	0	46
		% within Age	0,0%	32,5%	20,6%	13,3%	22,6%	0,0%	18,3%
		% of Total	0,0%	5,2%	5,6%	4,8%	2,8%	0,0%	18,3%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Clarifying my ideas about the type of work I would really do” is < 0,001 0,035. This indicates a noteworthy affiliation among the variables. The age of the participants significantly influenced participants’ clarity about their ideas regarding the type of work they are involved in.

**TABLE 5.31: AGE AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE**

Making sure of my academic occupational choice * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Making sure of my academic occupational choice	No concern	Count	0	1	16	20	7	9	53
		% within Age	0,0%	2,5%	23,9%	22,2%	22,6%	42,9%	21,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	6,4%	8,0%	2,8%	3,6%	21,2%
	Slight concern	Count	0	3	8	10	3	2	26
		% within Age	0,0%	7,5%	11,9%	11,1%	9,7%	9,5%	10,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,2%	3,2%	4,0%	1,2%	0,8%	10,4%
	Neutral	Count	1	8	9	14	2	3	37
		% within Age	100,0%	20,0%	13,4%	15,6%	6,5%	14,3%	14,8%
		% of Total	0,4%	3,2%	3,6%	5,6%	0,8%	1,2%	14,8%
	Concern	Count	0	10	20	33	8	6	77
		% within Age	0,0%	25,0%	29,9%	36,7%	25,8%	28,6%	30,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,0%	8,0%	13,2%	3,2%	2,4%	30,8%
	Great concern	Count	0	18	14	13	11	1	57
		% within Age	0,0%	45,0%	20,9%	14,4%	35,5%	4,8%	22,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,2%	5,6%	5,2%	4,4%	0,4%	22,8%
Total		Count	1	40	67	90	31	21	250
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	16,0%	26,8%	36,0%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Making sure of my academic occupational choice” is < 0,001 0,007. This shows an important association among the variables. The age of the participants therefore significantly influenced respondents’ occupational academic career choice.

**TABLE 5.32: JOB STATUS AND OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE**

Making sure of my academic occupational choice * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Making sure of my academic occupational choice	No concern	Count	5	11	8	23	3	0	3	53
		% within Job Status	41.7%	50.0%	26.7%	19.7%	13.0%	0.0%	9.1%	21.2%
		% of Total	2.0%	4.4%	3.2%	9.2%	1.2%	0.0%	1.2%	21.2%
	Slight concern	Count	3	1	4	13	2	1	2	26
		% within Job Status	25.0%	4.5%	13.3%	11.1%	8.7%	7.7%	6.1%	10.4%
		% of Total	1.2%	0.4%	1.6%	5.2%	0.8%	0.4%	0.8%	10.4%
	Neutral	Count	1	3	4	12	3	4	10	37
		% within Job Status	8.3%	13.6%	13.3%	10.3%	13.0%	30.8%	30.3%	14.8%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.2%	1.6%	4.8%	1.2%	1.6%	4.0%	14.8%
	Concern	Count	3	3	11	41	7	4	8	77
		% within Job Status	25.0%	13.6%	36.7%	35.0%	30.4%	30.8%	24.2%	30.8%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.2%	4.4%	16.4%	2.8%	1.6%	3.2%	30.8%
	Great concern	Count	0	4	3	28	8	4	10	57
		% within Job Status	0.0%	18.2%	10.0%	23.9%	34.8%	30.8%	30.3%	22.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	1.2%	11.2%	3.2%	1.6%	4.0%	22.8%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	23	13	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	9.2%	5.2%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Making sure of my academic occupational choice” is < 0,001 0,011. This indicates a noteworthy connection among the variables. The job status of the participants played a pivotal influence in ensuring respondents’ occupational academic career choice.

**TABLE 5.33: AGE AND SKILLS REQUIRED**

Identifying the skills required for this academic job that interests me * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 – 49	50 - 59	60+	
Identifying the skills required for this academic job that interests me	No concern	Count	0	1	17	15	11	12	56
		% within Age	0,0%	2,5%	25,0%	16,7%	35,5%	57,1%	22,3%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	6,8%	6,0%	4,4%	4,8%	22,3%
	Slight concern	Count	0	7	15	17	5	0	44
		% within Age	0,0%	17,5%	22,1%	18,9%	16,1%	0,0%	17,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,8%	6,0%	6,8%	2,0%	0,0%	17,5%
	Neutral	Count	1	4	7	15	7	1	35
		% within Age	100,0%	10,0%	10,3%	16,7%	22,6%	4,8%	13,9%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	2,8%	6,0%	2,8%	0,4%	13,9%
	Concern	Count	0	17	18	26	4	8	73
		% within Age	0,0%	42,5%	26,5%	28,9%	12,9%	38,1%	29,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	6,8%	7,2%	10,4%	1,6%	3,2%	29,1%
	Great concern	Count	0	11	11	17	4	0	43
		% within Age	0,0%	27,5%	16,2%	18,9%	12,9%	0,0%	17,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,4%	4,4%	6,8%	1,6%	0,0%	17,1%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Identifying the skills required for this academic job that interests me” is < 0,001 0,000. This reflects an important association amongst the variables. The age of the participants therefore did play a significant part regarding respondents’ identifying the necessary academic skills required for the job they were interested in.

**TABLE 5.34: AGE AND CAREER SATISFACTION**

Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me	No concern	Count	0	0	20	15	13	9	57
		% within Age	0,0%	0,0%	29,4%	16,7%	41,9%	42,9%	22,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	8,0%	6,0%	5,2%	3,6%	22,7%
	Slight concern	Count	0	5	9	13	3	2	32
		% within Age	0,0%	12,5%	13,2%	14,4%	9,7%	9,5%	12,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	3,6%	5,2%	1,2%	0,8%	12,7%
	Neutral	Count	0	5	5	13	3	1	27
		% within Age	0,0%	12,5%	7,4%	14,4%	9,7%	4,8%	10,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%	5,2%	1,2%	0,4%	10,8%
	Concern	Count	0	11	9	32	5	5	62
		% within Age	0,0%	27,5%	13,2%	35,6%	16,1%	23,8%	24,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,4%	3,6%	12,7%	2,0%	2,0%	24,7%
	Great concern	Count	1	19	25	17	7	4	73
		% within Age	100,0%	47,5%	36,8%	18,9%	22,6%	19,0%	29,1%
		% of Total	0,4%	7,6%	10,0%	6,8%	2,8%	1,6%	29,1%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me” is < 0,001 0,001. This indicates a positive connection with the variables. The age of academics significantly influenced respondents’ satisfying academic job choice.

**TABLE 5.35: JOB STATUS AND CHOICE OF A SATISFYING ACADEMIC JOB**

Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me	No concern	Count	7	9	8	24	3	2	4	57
		% within Job Status	58.3%	40.9%	26.7%	20.5%	13.0%	14.3%	12.1%	22.7%
		% of Total	2.8%	3.6%	3.2%	9.6%	1.2%	0.8%	1.6%	22.7%
	Slight concern	Count	0	3	2	19	3	2	3	32
		% within Job Status	0.0%	13.6%	6.7%	16.2%	13.0%	14.3%	9.1%	12.7%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.2%	0.8%	7.6%	1.2%	0.8%	1.2%	12.7%
	Neutral	Count	1	2	4	13	1	2	4	27
		% within Job Status	8.3%	9.1%	13.3%	11.1%	4.3%	14.3%	12.1%	10.8%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.8%	1.6%	5.2%	0.4%	0.8%	1.6%	10.8%
	Concern	Count	3	5	8	34	4	0	8	62
		% within Job Status	25.0%	22.7%	26.7%	29.1%	17.4%	0.0%	24.2%	24.7%
		% of Total	1.2%	2.0%	3.2%	13.5%	1.6%	0.0%	3.2%	24.7%
	Great concern	Count	1	3	8	27	12	8	14	73
		% within Job Status	8.3%	13.6%	26.7%	23.1%	52.2%	57.1%	42.4%	29.1%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.2%	3.2%	10.8%	4.8%	3.2%	5.6%	29.1%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	23	14	33	251	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.6%	9.2%	5.6%	13.1%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me” is < 0,001 0,029. This indicates an important connection with the variables. Academics’ job status significantly accounted for respondents’ choosing a satisfying academic job. A score of 24.7% showed concern (with lecturers showing the highest level of concern) while 29.1% showed great concern (with 10.8% of lecturers showing the highest level of great concern). Hence lecturers were concerned and extremely concerned about their choice of a satisfying job as opposed to academics at the other levels. This reflects the choice of an academic job due to career aspirations within the profession. This however is in direct contrast with some of the interviews conducted, where discontent has been expressed regarding challenges such as work overload.

**TABLE 5.36: AGE AND CHALLENGING JOB INTEREST**

Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me	No concern	Count	0	1	16	12	9	7	45
		% within Age	0,0%	2,5%	23,5%	13,3%	29,0%	33,3%	17,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	6,4%	4,8%	3,6%	2,8%	17,9%
	Slight concern	Count	0	5	14	15	8	5	47
		% within Age	0,0%	12,5%	20,6%	16,7%	25,8%	23,8%	18,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	5,6%	6,0%	3,2%	2,0%	18,7%
	Neutral	Count	1	8	18	22	2	4	55
		% within Age	100,0%	20,0%	26,5%	24,4%	6,5%	19,0%	21,9%
		% of Total	0,4%	3,2%	7,2%	8,8%	0,8%	1,6%	21,9%
	Concern	Count	0	19	15	25	6	4	69
		% within Age	0,0%	47,5%	22,1%	27,8%	19,4%	19,0%	27,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,6%	6,0%	10,0%	2,4%	1,6%	27,5%
	Great concern	Count	0	7	5	16	6	1	35
		% within Age	0,0%	17,5%	7,4%	17,8%	19,4%	4,8%	13,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,8%	2,0%	6,4%	2,4%	0,4%	13,9%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me” is < 0,001 0,016. This shows a link with the variables. Participants’ age significantly accounted in their choosing the most challenging job of interest to them. A score of 27.5% of the respondents the 40-49 age group reflected concern (10.0%), while 21.9% were neutral with 8.8% of the similar age category neutral. This reflects the age category who are in their mid-career are wanting to select the most challenging job of interest to them. This could be attributed to their wanting to build in more challenge in their jobs, at this phase of their careers. The challenge in the job perhaps is of no interest to the 8.8% respondents that were neutral in their choice. However, 18.7% showed slight concern and the same age group had these concerns.

**TABLE 5.37: MARITAL STATUS AND CHOICE OF CHALLENGING JOB**

Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me * Marital Status Cross tabulation							
			Marital Status				Total
			Married	Single	Divorced / Separated	Other	
Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me	No concern	Count	33	11	1	0	45
		% within Marital Status	20,5%	13,9%	12,5%	0,0%	17,9%
		% of Total	13,1%	4,4%	0,4%	0,0%	17,9%
	Slight concern	Count	33	13	1	0	47
		% within Marital Status	20,5%	16,5%	12,5%	0,0%	18,7%
		% of Total	13,1%	5,2%	0,4%	0,0%	18,7%
	Neutral	Count	33	15	4	3	55
		% within Marital Status	20,5%	19,0%	50,0%	100,0%	21,9%
		% of Total	13,1%	6,0%	1,6%	1,2%	21,9%
	Concern	Count	37	30	2	0	69
		% within Marital Status	23,0%	38,0%	25,0%	0,0%	27,5%
		% of Total	14,7%	12,0%	0,8%	0,0%	27,5%
	Great concern	Count	25	10	0	0	35
		% within Marital Status	15,5%	12,7%	0,0%	0,0%	13,9%
		% of Total	10,0%	4,0%	0,0%	0,0%	13,9%
Total		Count	161	79	8	3	251
		% within Marital Status	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	64,1%	31,5%	3,2%	1,2%	100,0%

The p-value between “Marital Status” and “Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me” is  $< 0,001$   $0,038$ . This indicates a positive link with the variables. The marital status of the participants significantly influenced respondents choosing the most challenging job of interest to them. The findings revealed that 27.5% showed concern, with married respondents having the highest level of concern (14.7%). However, 13.9% showed great concern with 10.0% of married respondents showing the highest level of great concern. This indicated married respondents were more eager to take on a challenging job as opposed to any other group.

**TABLE 5.38: TENURE AND MOST CHALLENGING JOB**

Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me * Number of Years in Institution Cross tabulation								
			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 – 3	4 – 6	7 - 9	10+	
Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me	No concern	Count	4	6	4	10	21	45
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	12,2%	8,2%	22,7%	22,8%	18,0%
		% of Total	1,6%	2,4%	1,6%	4,0%	8,4%	18,0%
	Slight concern	Count	2	5	16	6	18	47
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	10,2%	32,7%	13,6%	19,6%	18,8%
		% of Total	0,8%	2,0%	6,4%	2,4%	7,2%	18,8%
	Neutral	Count	5	8	13	12	17	55
		% within Number of Years in Institution	31,3%	16,3%	26,5%	27,3%	18,5%	22,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	3,2%	5,2%	4,8%	6,8%	22,0%
	Concern	Count	4	24	12	9	20	69
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	49,0%	24,5%	20,5%	21,7%	27,6%
		% of Total	1,6%	9,6%	4,8%	3,6%	8,0%	27,6%
	Great concern	Count	1	6	4	7	16	34
		% within Number of Years in Institution	6,3%	12,2%	8,2%	15,9%	17,4%	13,6%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,4%	1,6%	2,8%	6,4%	13,6%
Total		Count	16	49	49	44	92	250
		% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	6,4%	19,6%	19,6%	17,6%	36,8%	100,0%

The p-value between “Tenure” and “Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me” is  $< 0,001$   $0,020$ . This reflects a substantial affiliation with the variables. The tenure of the participants therefore significantly influenced respondents’ choosing the most challenging job of interest to them. About 60 % of respondents in various tenure periods showed levels of concern regard choosing the most challenging job of interest to them. 18.8% of respondents showed slight concern with the highest responses coming from those in the 10 and more years of tenure group. A finding of 27.6% highlighted concern with the highest responses (9.6%) from those with 1-3 years of service. 13.6% showed great concern from those with 10 and more years of service (6.4%). The bulk of the respondents were from the 10 and more years of service. This could be due to the respondents opting for more challenge in their jobs in the phase they find themselves in. Smith-Ruig’s study (2006) concurred with this, where participants in their maintenance phase of their careers were striving for greater flexibility, more control over their jobs and the need for more fulfilment and stimulating work.

**TABLE 5.39: LINKING AGE AND ACHIEVEMENT OF ACADEMIC GOALS**

Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 – 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59		60+
Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals	No concern	Count	0	0	7	11	2	6	26
		% within Age	0,0%	0,0%	10,3%	12,2%	6,7%	28,6%	10,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	2,8%	4,4%	0,8%	2,4%	10,4%
	Slight concern	Count	0	5	7	8	3	4	27
		% within Age	0,0%	12,8%	10,3%	8,9%	10,0%	19,0%	10,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	2,8%	3,2%	1,2%	1,6%	10,8%
	Neutral	Count	1	6	9	9	8	5	38
		% within Age	100,0%	15,4%	13,2%	10,0%	26,7%	23,8%	15,3%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,4%	3,6%	3,6%	3,2%	2,0%	15,3%
	Concern	Count	0	9	28	41	11	5	94
		% within Age	0,0%	23,1%	41,2%	45,6%	36,7%	23,8%	37,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	3,6%	11,2%	16,5%	4,4%	2,0%	37,8%
	Great concern	Count	0	19	17	21	6	1	64
		% within Age	0,0%	48,7%	25,0%	23,3%	20,0%	4,8%	25,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,6%	6,8%	8,4%	2,4%	0,4%	25,7%
Total	Count	1	39	68	90	30	21	249	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,7%	27,3%	36,1%	12,0%	8,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals” is < 0,001 0,003. This indicates a vital association with the variables. Participants’ age significantly influenced respondents making specific plans in order to attain their current academic vocation objectives. About 60% of the respondents showed concern (37.8%) and great concern (25.7%) in terms of making specific plans to achieve their current academic goals. The highest responses of concern (16.5%) came from the 40-49 age group with the highest response of great concern coming from the same age group (8.4%), followed by 7.6% in the 20-29 age group. The bulk of the respondents were from the 40-49 years age category indicating those in their mid-life/maintenance stages were the most eager to ensure tailored plans to achieve their current academic career objectives, thereby reaching their career aspirations.

**TABLE 5.40: QUALIFICATIONS AND ACHIEVEMENT OF ACADEMIC GOALS**

Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals * Your Highest Level of Education Cross tabulation								
			Your Highest Level of Education					Total
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	
Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals	No concern	Count	0	0	5	21	0	26
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	0,0%	4,8%	17,6%	0,0%	10,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%	8,5%	0,0%	10,6%
	Slight concern	Count	1	1	11	11	3	27
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	10,0%	10,5%	9,2%	42,9%	11,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,4%	4,5%	4,5%	1,2%	11,0%
	Neutral	Count	2	1	12	23	0	38
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	10,0%	11,4%	19,3%	0,0%	15,4%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,4%	4,9%	9,3%	0,0%	15,4%
	Concern	Count	1	5	44	40	2	92
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	50,0%	41,9%	33,6%	28,6%	37,4%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,0%	17,9%	16,3%	0,8%	37,4%
	Great concern	Count	1	3	33	24	2	63
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	30,0%	31,4%	20,2%	28,6%	25,6%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,2%	13,4%	9,8%	0,8%	25,6%
Total	Count	5	10	105	119	7	246	
	% within Your Highest Level of Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	2,0%	4,1%	42,7%	48,4%	2,8%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Level of Education” and “Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals” is  $< 0,001$  0,024. This indicates an important link with the variables. The level of education of academics therefore influenced respondents making specific plans in order to attain their current academic career goals. A score of 37.4% of the respondents showed concern, which the highest responses coming from those with Masters degrees (17.9%) and 16.3% with those with PhDs. However, 25.6% of the participants showed great concern, with

those having Masters qualification as having the highest responses (13.4%). It can be concluded then, that respondents with higher qualifications (Masters and PhDs) were more driven in terms of taking the initiative to attain their career goals as opposed to respondents with other levels of qualifications. Those pursuing PhDs bears direct relevance to the aspect of “credentialing” as a key performance area in the performance management process, whereby academics are aspiring to higher levels in order to attain their academic endeavours. Those with Masters’ qualifications perhaps are aiming to reach the PhD level, thereby trying to reach their career pinnacle as envisaged by the institution and the National Development Plan, 2030.

**TABLE 5.41: JOB STATUS AND ACHIEVEMENT OF ACADEMIC CAREER GOALS**

Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals	No concern	Count	4	5	5	8	1	0	3	26
		% within Job Status	33.3%	22.7%	17.2%	6.8%	4.5%	0.0%	9.1%	10.4%
		% of Total	1.6%	2.0%	2.0%	3.2%	0.4%	0.0%	1.2%	10.4%
	Slight concern	Count	3	3	3	10	2	2	4	27
		% within Job Status	25.0%	13.6%	10.3%	8.5%	9.1%	14.3%	12.1%	10.8%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%	4.0%	0.8%	0.8%	1.6%	10.8%
	Neutral	Count	1	5	5	17	2	1	7	38
		% within Job Status	8.3%	22.7%	17.2%	14.5%	9.1%	7.1%	21.2%	15.3%
		% of Total	0.4%	2.0%	2.0%	6.8%	0.8%	0.4%	2.8%	15.3%
	Concern	Count	4	4	8	56	8	3	11	94
		% within Job Status	33.3%	18.2%	27.6%	47.9%	36.4%	21.4%	33.3%	37.8%
		% of Total	1.6%	1.6%	3.2%	22.5%	3.2%	1.2%	4.4%	37.8%
	Great concern	Count	0	5	8	26	9	8	8	64
		% within Job Status	0.0%	22.7%	27.6%	22.2%	40.9%	57.1%	24.2%	25.7%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.0%	3.2%	10.4%	3.6%	3.2%	3.2%	25.7%
Total	Count	12	22	29	117	22	14	33	249	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	11.6%	47.0%	8.8%	5.6%	13.3%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals” is  $< 0,001$  0,026. This indicates a valuable link with the variables. Respondents’ job status did influence respondents’ making specific plans in order to attain their current academic career goals. A score of 37.8% of academics showed concern, with the highest responses coming from Lecturers (22.5%). However, 25.7% of the respondents showed great concern regarding their plans to attain their academic goals. A smaller score of 10.4% of Lecturers showed great concern. This reflects lecturers are the most concerned about tailoring plans to achieve their career goals. This could be attributed to their desire to get ahead in their careers in terms of promotion.

**TABLE 5.42: AGE AND SETTLING DOWN IN ACADEMIA**

Settling down in a job (academia) I can stay with * Age Crosstabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Settling down in a job (academia) I can stay with	No concern	Count	0	2	13	10	9	11	45
		% within Age	0.0%	5.0%	19.1%	11.1%	29.0%	52.4%	17.9%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.8%	5.2%	4.0%	3.6%	4.4%	17.9%
	Slight concern	Count	0	6	9	14	5	3	37
		% within Age	0.0%	15.0%	13.2%	15.6%	16.1%	14.3%	14.7%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.4%	3.6%	5.6%	2.0%	1.2%	14.7%
	Neutral	Count	1	4	9	14	4	4	36
		% within Age	100.0%	10.0%	13.2%	15.6%	12.9%	19.0%	14.3%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.6%	3.6%	5.6%	1.6%	1.6%	14.3%
	Concern	Count	0	12	22	33	6	2	75
		% within Age	0.0%	30.0%	32.4%	36.7%	19.4%	9.5%	29.9%
		% of Total	0.0%	4.8%	8.8%	13.1%	2.4%	0.8%	29.9%
	Great concern	Count	0	16	15	19	7	1	58
		% within Age	0.0%	40.0%	22.1%	21.1%	22.6%	4.8%	23.1%
		% of Total	0.0%	6.4%	6.0%	7.6%	2.8%	0.4%	23.1%
Total	Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251	
	% within Age	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	0.4%	15.9%	27.1%	35.9%	12.4%	8.4%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Settling down in a job (academia) that I can stay with” is  $< 0,001$  0,002. This indicates an important bond between the variables. The age of academics therefore significantly influenced respondents settling down and staying in their academic job. A score of 29.9% of respondents showed concern, with 13.1% being in the 40-49 age category. However, 23.1% of the participants showed great concern regarding settling down in an

academic job that they wished to stay with. The bulk of the responses once again came from the same age group as those that were concerned. This reflects that the middle-aged academics were more committed to an academic job that they wanted to stick with as opposed to any other age group. What seems to be of interest is that respondents in the 40-49 age group were most concerned about several aspects pertaining to their work life as opposed to any other age group. This also could be attributed to the phase they find themselves in mid-life perhaps which is indicative of them wanting stability in their careers.

**TABLE 5.43: AGE AND STABILITY IN ACADEMIC OCCUPATION**

Achieving stability in my academic occupation * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Achieving stability in my academic occupation	No concern	Count	1	1	7	6	7	11	33
		% within Age	100,0%	2,6%	10,3%	6,7%	22,6%	55,0%	13,3%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,4%	2,8%	2,4%	2,8%	4,4%	13,3%
	Slight concern	Count	0	6	12	17	3	0	38
		% within Age	0,0%	15,4%	17,6%	18,9%	9,7%	0,0%	15,3%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,4%	4,8%	6,8%	1,2%	0,0%	15,3%
	Neutral	Count	0	3	7	11	3	5	29
		% within Age	0,0%	7,7%	10,3%	12,2%	9,7%	25,0%	11,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,2%	2,8%	4,4%	1,2%	2,0%	11,6%
	Concern	Count	0	11	22	24	9	4	70
		% within Age	0,0%	28,2%	32,4%	26,7%	29,0%	20,0%	28,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,4%	8,8%	9,6%	3,6%	1,6%	28,1%
	Great concern	Count	0	18	20	32	9	0	79
		% within Age	0,0%	46,2%	29,4%	35,6%	29,0%	0,0%	31,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,2%	8,0%	12,9%	3,6%	0,0%	31,7%
Total		Count	1	39	68	90	31	20	249
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,7%	27,3%	36,1%	12,4%	8,0%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Achieving stability in my academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,000. This is a valid association between the variables. Respondents’ age therefore played a significant part in respondents stabilising in their academic careers. Whilst 28.1% of the respondents showed concern about achieving stability in their academic occupation, the highest level of concern was from the 40-49 age group. 31.7% of the respondents showed great concern, with 12,9% of the respondents being from the 40-49 group. Respondents from the same age group showed concern about attaining stability in their professions.

**TABLE 5.44: JOB STATUS AND ACHIEVING STABILITY**

Achieving stability in my academic occupation * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	Total
Achieving stability in my academic occupation	No concern	Count	2	11	3	11	2	0	4	33
		% within Job Status	18.2%	50.0%	10.0%	9.4%	9.1%	0.0%	12.1%	13.3%
		% of Total	0.8%	4.4%	1.2%	4.4%	0.8%	0.0%	1.6%	13.3%
	Slight concern	Count	1	1	9	20	2	3	2	38
		% within Job Status	9.1%	4.5%	30.0%	17.1%	9.1%	21.4%	6.1%	15.3%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	3.6%	8.0%	0.8%	1.2%	0.8%	15.3%
	Neutral	Count	3	3	3	12	2	1	5	29
		% within Job Status	27.3%	13.6%	10.0%	10.3%	9.1%	7.1%	15.2%	11.6%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%	4.8%	0.8%	0.4%	2.0%	11.6%
	Concern	Count	3	0	6	41	7	3	10	70
		% within Job Status	27.3%	0.0%	20.0%	35.0%	31.8%	21.4%	30.3%	28.1%
		% of Total	1.2%	0.0%	2.4%	16.5%	2.8%	1.2%	4.0%	28.1%
	Great concern	Count	2	7	9	33	9	7	12	79
		% within Job Status	18.2%	31.8%	30.0%	28.2%	40.9%	50.0%	36.4%	31.7%
		% of Total	0.8%	2.8%	3.6%	13.3%	3.6%	2.8%	4.8%	31.7%
Total	Count	11	22	30	117	22	14	33	249	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.4%	8.8%	12.0%	47.0%	8.8%	5.6%	13.3%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Achieving stability in my academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,001. This indicates a noteworthy link amongst the variables. Respondents’ job status therefore played an important part in as far as respondents attaining stability in their academic careers. About 60% of the respondents showed concern and great concern in terms of achieving stability in their academic occupation. A scoring of 28.1% showed concern, with the highest responses coming from lecturers. Furthermore, 31.7% showed great concern, with 13.3% responses emanating from lecturers as well. This indicates that lecturers are concerned about achieving stability in their academic occupations as opposed to any other group. This also is aligned with the age category 40-49, which categorises the lecturer position in most cases. Again respondents in this age group were eager to achieve stability, which is characteristic of this phase of an individual’s career.

**TABLE 5.45: TENURE AND ACHIEVING STABILITY**

Achieving stability in my academic occupation * Number of Years in Institution Cross tabulation								
			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 – 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10+	
Achieving stability in my academic occupation	No concern	Count	3	3	0	4	23	33
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	6,1%	0,0%	9,1%	25,3%	13,3%
		% of Total	1,2%	1,2%	0,0%	1,6%	9,2%	13,3%
	Slight concern	Count	4	8	13	4	9	38
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	16,3%	26,5%	9,1%	9,9%	15,3%
		% of Total	1,6%	3,2%	5,2%	1,6%	3,6%	15,3%
	Neutral	Count	2	5	3	6	13	29
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	10,2%	6,1%	13,6%	14,3%	11,6%
		% of Total	0,8%	2,0%	1,2%	2,4%	5,2%	11,6%
	Concern	Count	4	15	17	15	19	70
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	30,6%	34,7%	34,1%	20,9%	28,1%
		% of Total	1,6%	6,0%	6,8%	6,0%	7,6%	28,1%
	Great concern	Count	3	18	16	15	27	79
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	36,7%	32,7%	34,1%	29,7%	31,7%
		% of Total	1,2%	7,2%	6,4%	6,0%	10,8%	31,7%
Total		Count	16	49	49	44	91	249
		% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	6,4%	19,7%	19,7%	17,7%	36,5%	100,0%

The p-value between “Tenure” and “Achieving stability in my academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,006. This indicates a noteworthy connection with the variables. Respondents’ tenure therefore significantly influence respondents attaining stability in their academic careers. A score of 28.1% of the respondents showed concern regarding attaining stability in their occupation, with 7.6% of respondents in the 10 and more years category as having the highest responses. However 31.7% reflected great concern, with the same category showing the highest responses (10.8%). This reflects that those with the highest tenure were concerned and very concerned about achieving stability in academia. This can be attributed to these respondents being more anchored in their professions, as is expected at this phase of their careers than the others.

**TABLE 5.46: EDUCATION AND ACHIEVING STABILITY**

Achieving stability in my academic occupation * Your Highest Level of Education Cross tabulation								
			Your Highest Level of Education					Total
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	
Achieving stability in my academic occupation	No concern	Count	2	0	5	26	0	33
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	0,0%	4,8%	21,8%	0,0%	13,4%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,0%	2,0%	10,6%	0,0%	13,4%
	Slight concern	Count	1	0	17	16	3	37
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	0,0%	16,2%	13,4%	42,9%	15,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,0%	6,9%	6,5%	1,2%	15,0%
	Neutral	Count	0	2	12	14	0	28
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	20,0%	11,4%	11,8%	0,0%	11,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	4,9%	5,7%	0,0%	11,4%
	Concern	Count	1	4	37	26	2	70
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	40,0%	35,2%	21,8%	28,6%	28,5%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	15,0%	10,6%	0,8%	28,5%
	Great concern	Count	1	4	34	37	2	78
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	40,0%	32,4%	31,1%	28,6%	31,7%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	13,8%	15,0%	0,8%	31,7%
Total		Count	5	10	105	119	7	246
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	4,1%	42,7%	48,4%	2,8%	100,0%

The p-value between “Education” and “Achieving stability in my academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,023. This indicates an important link with the variables. Respondents’ level of education therefore did significantly influence respondents achieving stability in their academic occupation. Whilst 28.5% of the respondents showed concern, 31.7% showed great concern (15% of the highest responses came from lecturers). This reflects academics possibly with Masters and PhDs were keen on achieving academic stability. Again the emphasis on the common age group (40-45 years) are been highlighted by their preference to stabilise themselves in their academic careers.

**TABLE 5.47: AGE AND DOING THINGS TO STAY IN ACADEMIA**

Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59		60+
Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started	No concern	Count	0	1	11	8	7	6	33
		% within Age	0,0%	2,6%	16,2%	8,9%	22,6%	28,6%	13,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	4,4%	3,2%	2,8%	2,4%	13,2%
	Slight concern	Count	0	5	5	12	2	3	27
		% within Age	0,0%	12,8%	7,4%	13,3%	6,5%	14,3%	10,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	2,0%	4,8%	0,8%	1,2%	10,8%
	Neutral	Count	1	8	13	7	5	0	34
		% within Age	100,0%	20,5%	19,1%	7,8%	16,1%	0,0%	13,6%
		% of Total	0,4%	3,2%	5,2%	2,8%	2,0%	0,0%	13,6%
	Concern	Count	0	11	16	38	11	12	88
		% within Age	0,0%	28,2%	23,5%	42,2%	35,5%	57,1%	35,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,4%	6,4%	15,2%	4,4%	4,8%	35,2%
	Great concern	Count	0	14	23	25	6	0	68
		% within Age	0,0%	35,9%	33,8%	27,8%	19,4%	0,0%	27,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	5,6%	9,2%	10,0%	2,4%	0,0%	27,2%
Total		Count	1	39	68	90	31	21	250
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,6%	27,2%	36,0%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started” is < 0,001 0,002. This indicates a noteworthy link with the variables. The age of the participants played a significant influence in respondents doing things to stay within the academic field since inception. The score of 35.2% of the respondents in the (with 15.2% in the 40 -49 year age group) were concerned about doing things to aid them to stay in the academic field they started off in, whereas, 27.2% (of which 10.0% were in the same age group) were greatly concerned. The dominance of the 40-49 age group once again has indicated that respondents in their mid-life were the most concerned of all the respondents in terms of carrying out activities to help them stay in their field of interest. These respondents wanted more anchor in terms of their careers.

**TABLE 5.48: JOB STATUS AND DOING THINGS TO STAY IN ACADEMIA**

Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							Total
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	
Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started	No concern	Count	2	11	7	11	2	0	0	33
		% within Job Status	16.7%	50.0%	23.3%	9.4%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%	13.2%
		% of Total	0.8%	4.4%	2.8%	4.4%	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	13.2%
	Slight concern	Count	1	1	4	15	3	2	1	27
		% within Job Status	8.3%	4.5%	13.3%	12.8%	13.6%	14.3%	3.0%	10.8%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	1.6%	6.0%	1.2%	0.8%	0.4%	10.8%
	Neutral	Count	2	3	3	14	0	3	9	34
		% within Job Status	16.7%	13.6%	10.0%	12.0%	0.0%	21.4%	27.3%	13.6%
		% of Total	0.8%	1.2%	1.2%	5.6%	0.0%	1.2%	3.6%	13.6%
	Concern	Count	6	3	8	47	7	2	15	88
		% within Job Status	50.0%	13.6%	26.7%	40.2%	31.8%	14.3%	45.5%	35.2%
		% of Total	2.4%	1.2%	3.2%	18.8%	2.8%	0.8%	6.0%	35.2%
	Great concern	Count	1	4	8	30	10	7	8	68
		% within Job Status	8.3%	18.2%	26.7%	25.6%	45.5%	50.0%	24.2%	27.2%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.6%	3.2%	12.0%	4.0%	2.8%	3.2%	27.2%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	22	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	8.8%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started” is < 0,001 0,000. This indicates an important link amongst the variables. Academics’ job status therefore did influence respondents doing things to enable them to stay within the academic field since inception. Over 60% of respondents showed concern and great concern in terms of doing things to stay in their academic field, which they started off in. Interestingly, the responses came from the 30-39 age group.

**TABLE 5.49: EDUCATION AND DOING THINGS TO STAY IN ACADEMIA**

Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started * Your Highest Level of Education Cross tabulation								
			Your Highest Level of Education					Total
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	
Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started	No concern	Count	0	0	7	26	0	33
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	0,0%	6,7%	21,7%	0,0%	13,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	2,8%	10,5%	0,0%	13,4%
	Slight concern	Count	2	0	14	8	3	27
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	0,0%	13,3%	6,7%	42,9%	10,9%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,0%	5,7%	3,2%	1,2%	10,9%
	Neutral	Count	1	2	14	17	0	34
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	20,0%	13,3%	14,2%	0,0%	13,8%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,8%	5,7%	6,9%	0,0%	13,8%
	Concern	Count	1	4	38	39	3	85
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	40,0%	36,2%	32,5%	42,9%	34,4%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	15,4%	15,8%	1,2%	34,4%
	Great concern	Count	1	4	32	30	1	68
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	40,0%	30,5%	25,0%	14,3%	27,5%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	13,0%	12,1%	0,4%	27,5%
Total		Count	5	10	105	120	7	247
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	4,0%	42,5%	48,6%	2,8%	100,0%

The p-value between “Education” and “Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started” is < 0,001 0,015. This reflects a link between the variables. Participants’ education levels therefore did played a significant part in respondents doing things to stay within the academic field since inception. Interestingly, those with PhDs were the largest contributors of responses that were concerned and very concerned. This indicates that those that achieved their PhDs were striving to stay carry out activities with their educational sphere in order to stay in the academic field.

**TABLE 5.50: AGE AND GETTING ESTABLISHED**

Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation	No concern	Count	0	0	11	8	3	7	29
		% within Age	0,0%	0,0%	16,2%	8,9%	9,7%	33,3%	11,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	4,4%	3,2%	1,2%	2,8%	11,6%
	Slight concern	Count	0	2	4	7	6	1	20
		% within Age	0,0%	5,1%	5,9%	7,8%	19,4%	4,8%	8,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	1,6%	2,8%	2,4%	0,4%	8,0%
	Neutral	Count	1	3	8	7	4	4	27
		% within Age	100,0%	7,7%	11,8%	7,8%	12,9%	19,0%	10,8%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,2%	3,2%	2,8%	1,6%	1,6%	10,8%
	Concern	Count	0	11	24	36	9	7	87
		% within Age	0,0%	28,2%	35,3%	40,0%	29,0%	33,3%	34,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,4%	9,6%	14,4%	3,6%	2,8%	34,8%
	Great concern	Count	0	23	21	32	9	2	87
		% within Age	0,0%	59,0%	30,9%	35,6%	29,0%	9,5%	34,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	9,2%	8,4%	12,8%	3,6%	0,8%	34,8%
Total	Count	1	39	68	90	31	21	250	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,6%	27,2%	36,0%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Getting established in my academic work, profession/occupation” is < 0,001 0,001. This shows a substantial affiliation amongst the variables. The age level of participants therefore did significantly influence respondents getting established in their academic work/profession/occupation. Close onto 70% of respondents were concerned and greatly concerned about getting themselves established in their academic work and profession. Those in the age category of 40-49 contributed to the highest responses. Their commitment to their academic endeavours are once again re-affirmed.

**TABLE 5.51: JOB STATUS AND GETTING ESTABLISHED**

Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							Total
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	
Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation	No concern	Count	3	7	6	11	1	0	1	29
		% within Job Status	25.0%	31.8%	20.0%	9.4%	4.5%	0.0%	3.0%	11.6%
		% of Total	1.2%	2.8%	2.4%	4.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.4%	11.6%
	Slight concern	Count	2	2	5	8	1	1	1	20
		% within Job Status	16.7%	9.1%	16.7%	6.8%	4.5%	7.1%	3.0%	8.0%
		% of Total	0.8%	0.8%	2.0%	3.2%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	8.0%
	Neutral	Count	0	4	6	9	1	2	5	27
		% within Job Status	0.0%	18.2%	20.0%	7.7%	4.5%	14.3%	15.2%	10.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	2.4%	3.6%	0.4%	0.8%	2.0%	10.8%
	Concern	Count	4	2	7	51	8	2	13	87
		% within Job Status	33.3%	9.1%	23.3%	43.6%	36.4%	14.3%	39.4%	34.8%
		% of Total	1.6%	0.8%	2.8%	20.4%	3.2%	0.8%	5.2%	34.8%
	Great concern	Count	3	7	6	38	11	9	13	87
		% within Job Status	25.0%	31.8%	20.0%	32.5%	50.0%	64.3%	39.4%	34.8%
		% of Total	1.2%	2.8%	2.4%	15.2%	4.4%	3.6%	5.2%	34.8%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	22	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	8.8%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Getting established in my academic work, profession/occupation” is < 0,001 0,003. This reflects a vital link with the variables. Respondents’ job status therefore did play a significant role in getting respondents established in their academic work/profession/occupation. 20, 4% of lecturers were concerned about getting established in their academic work and profession with 15.2% very concerned. Respondents with this job status, are normally anchored at this phase of their careers and may have even completed their PhD and were aspiring to higher levels.

**TABLE 5.52: TENURE AND GETTING ESTABLISHED**

Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation * Number of Years in Institution								
Cross tabulation								
			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10+	
Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation	No concern	Count	3	3	2	6	15	29
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	6,1%	4,1%	13,6%	16,3%	11,6%
		% of Total	1,2%	1,2%	0,8%	2,4%	6,0%	11,6%
	Slight concern	Count	0	4	4	1	11	20
		% within Number of Years in Institution	0,0%	8,2%	8,2%	2,3%	12,0%	8,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	1,6%	0,4%	4,4%	8,0%
	Neutral	Count	4	5	4	1	13	27
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	10,2%	8,2%	2,3%	14,1%	10,8%
		% of Total	1,6%	2,0%	1,6%	0,4%	5,2%	10,8%
	Concern	Count	2	15	21	24	25	87
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	30,6%	42,9%	54,5%	27,2%	34,8%
		% of Total	0,8%	6,0%	8,4%	9,6%	10,0%	34,8%
	Great concern	Count	7	22	18	12	28	87
		% within Number of Years in Institution	43,8%	44,9%	36,7%	27,3%	30,4%	34,8%
		% of Total	2,8%	8,8%	7,2%	4,8%	11,2%	34,8%
Total	Count	16	49	49	44	92	250	
	% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	6,4%	19,6%	19,6%	17,6%	36,8%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Tenure” and “Getting established in my academic work, profession/occupation” is < 0,001 0,012. This indicates a link amongst the variables. The number of years the participants spent at the institution therefore did play a significant role in getting respondents established in their academic work/profession/occupation. The bulk of concerned and very concerned responses came from 10 and more years at the institution. These academics were set on establishing themselves after being in the institution for so many years.

**TABLE 5.53: EDUCATION AND GETTING ESTABLISHED**

Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation * Your Highest Level of Education								
			Your Highest Level of Education					
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	Total
Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation	No concern	Count	0	0	7	22	0	29
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	0,0%	6,7%	18,3%	0,0%	11,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	2,8%	8,9%	0,0%	11,7%
	Slight concern	Count	0	1	7	9	3	20
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	10,0%	6,7%	7,5%	42,9%	8,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	2,8%	3,6%	1,2%	8,1%
	Neutral	Count	2	1	11	12	0	26
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	10,0%	10,5%	10,0%	0,0%	10,5%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,4%	4,5%	4,9%	0,0%	10,5%
	Concern	Count	2	2	41	40	2	87
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	20,0%	39,0%	33,3%	28,6%	35,2%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,8%	16,6%	16,2%	0,8%	35,2%
	Great concern	Count	1	6	39	37	2	85
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	60,0%	37,1%	30,8%	28,6%	34,4%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,4%	15,8%	15,0%	0,8%	34,4%
Total		Count	5	10	105	120	7	247
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	4,0%	42,5%	48,6%	2,8%	100,0%

The p-value between “Education” and “Getting established in my academic work, profession/occupation” is  $< 0,001$  0,019. This indicates a substantial connection among the variables. Respondents’ education level therefore played a significant part in getting respondents established in their academic work/profession/occupation. Academics with a Masters’ qualification were the most concerned about establishing themselves in their academic work and profession. This reflected the PhD “pressure” could be a reason for this as well.

**TABLE 5.54: AGE AND CHANCES OF ADVANCEMENT**

Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation * Age Cross tabulation			Age						
			< 20	20 - 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	Total
Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation	No concern	Count	0	1	5	5	2	4	17
		% within Age	0,0%	2,6%	7,4%	5,6%	6,5%	19,0%	6,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	2,0%	2,0%	0,8%	1,6%	6,8%
	Slight concern	Count	0	1	7	5	4	2	19
		% within Age	0,0%	2,6%	10,3%	5,6%	12,9%	9,5%	7,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	2,8%	2,0%	1,6%	0,8%	7,6%
	Neutral	Count	1	6	10	10	3	2	32
		% within Age	100,0%	15,4%	14,7%	11,1%	9,7%	9,5%	12,8%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,4%	4,0%	4,0%	1,2%	0,8%	12,8%
	Concern	Count	0	6	19	39	7	7	78
		% within Age	0,0%	15,4%	27,9%	43,3%	22,6%	33,3%	31,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,4%	7,6%	15,6%	2,8%	2,8%	31,2%
	Great concern	Count	0	25	27	31	15	6	104
		% within Age	0,0%	64,1%	39,7%	34,4%	48,4%	28,6%	41,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	10,0%	10,8%	12,4%	6,0%	2,4%	41,6%
Total		Count	1	39	68	90	31	21	250
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,6%	27,2%	36,0%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,035. This indicates an important link with the variables. The age level of academics significantly influenced respondents’ improving their chances of advancing themselves in the current academic occupation. Respondents across different age groups expressed concern and great concern (about 72%) for improving their chances of advancement in their current academic occupation hence they were committed to advancing themselves at the institution. This resonates with findings that employees wanted to advance at the institution. This was also evident in the interviews conducted.

**TABLE 5.55: JOB STATUS AND CHANCES OF ADVANCEMENT**

Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation	No concern	Count	4	4	3	5	1	0	0	17
		% within Job Status	33.3%	18.2%	10.0%	4.3%	4.5%	0.0%	0.0%	6.8%
		% of Total	1.6%	1.6%	1.2%	2.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	6.8%
	Slight concern	Count	2	3	5	5	1	2	1	19
		% within Job Status	16.7%	13.6%	16.7%	4.3%	4.5%	14.3%	3.0%	7.6%
		% of Total	0.8%	1.2%	2.0%	2.0%	0.4%	0.8%	0.4%	7.6%
	Neutral	Count	0	4	4	13	2	1	8	32
		% within Job Status	0.0%	18.2%	13.3%	11.1%	9.1%	7.1%	24.2%	12.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	1.6%	5.2%	0.8%	0.4%	3.2%	12.8%
	Concern	Count	5	7	8	45	5	1	7	78
		% within Job Status	41.7%	31.8%	26.7%	38.5%	22.7%	7.1%	21.2%	31.2%
		% of Total	2.0%	2.8%	3.2%	18.0%	2.0%	0.4%	2.8%	31.2%
	Great concern	Count	1	4	10	49	13	10	17	104
		% within Job Status	8.3%	18.2%	33.3%	41.9%	59.1%	71.4%	51.5%	41.6%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.6%	4.0%	19.6%	5.2%	4.0%	6.8%	41.6%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	22	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	8.8%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,000. This indicates that there is a link among the variables. The job status of participants influenced respondents improving their chances of advancing in the current academic occupation. 31.2% of the respondents showed concern and 41.6% were very concerned. The highest responses came from those with a lecturer designation. This reflects that individuals with this designation wanted to aspire to higher levels at the University.

**TABLE 5.56: EDUCATION AND CHANCES OF ADVANCEMENT**

Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation * Your Highest Level of Education Cross tabulation								
			Your Highest Level of Education					Total
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	
Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation	No concern	Count	0	0	6	11	0	17
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	0,0%	5,7%	9,2%	0,0%	6,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	2,4%	4,5%	0,0%	6,9%
	Slight concern	Count	0	0	5	11	3	19
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	0,0%	4,8%	9,2%	42,9%	7,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,0%	2,0%	4,5%	1,2%	7,7%
	Neutral	Count	3	1	13	13	1	31
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	60,0%	10,0%	12,4%	10,8%	14,3%	12,6%
		% of Total	1,2%	0,4%	5,3%	5,3%	0,4%	12,6%
	Concern	Count	0	1	42	35	0	78
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	10,0%	40,0%	29,2%	0,0%	31,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	17,0%	14,2%	0,0%	31,6%
	Great concern	Count	2	8	39	50	3	102
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	80,0%	37,1%	41,7%	42,9%	41,3%
		% of Total	0,8%	3,2%	15,8%	20,2%	1,2%	41,3%
Total		Count	5	10	105	120	7	247
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	4,0%	42,5%	48,6%	2,8%	100,0%

The p-value between “Education” and “Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,002. This reveals a substantial correlation among the variables. The level of education of participants therefore played a significant influence in respondents’ improving their chances of advancing themselves in the current academic occupation. Close to 73% of the respondents showed concern and great concern about improving their chances of advancement in their academic vocation. It can be seen, that academics across various educational levels were determined to progress at the institution.

**TABLE 5.57: AGE AND REPUTATION**

Developing a reputation in my academic line of work * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 – 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59		60+
Developing a reputation in my academic line of work	No concern	Count	0	1	4	6	4	5	20
		% within Age	0,0%	2,6%	5,9%	6,7%	12,9%	23,8%	8,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	1,6%	2,4%	1,6%	2,0%	8,0%
	Slight concern	Count	1	3	8	5	3	3	23
		% within Age	100,0%	7,7%	11,8%	5,6%	9,7%	14,3%	9,2%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,2%	3,2%	2,0%	1,2%	1,2%	9,2%
	Neutral	Count	0	4	10	6	4	1	25
		% within Age	0,0%	10,3%	14,7%	6,7%	12,9%	4,8%	10,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	4,0%	2,4%	1,6%	0,4%	10,0%
	Concern	Count	0	5	19	43	11	5	83
		% within Age	0,0%	12,8%	27,9%	47,8%	35,5%	23,8%	33,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	7,6%	17,2%	4,4%	2,0%	33,2%
	Great concern	Count	0	26	27	30	9	7	99
		% within Age	0,0%	66,7%	39,7%	33,3%	29,0%	33,3%	39,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	10,4%	10,8%	12,0%	3,6%	2,8%	39,6%
Total	Count	1	39	68	90	31	21	250	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,6%	27,2%	36,0%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Developing a reputation in my academic line of work” is < 0,001 0,001. This indicates a link with the variables. Respondents’ age played a significant influence in respondents developing their reputation in academia. Close to 73% of the participants, with those predominately in the 40-49 age group were concerned and very concerned about developing a reputation in their academic line of work. This age features in the mid-life of respondents and this is viewed as the critical time when employees establish themselves in their respective fields. This period is viewed as the “peak” of a person’s vocation and establishing reputation, credibility in the respective domain is of utmost importance.

**TABLE 5.58: JOB STATUS AND DEVELOPING AN ACADEMIC REPUTATION**

Developing a reputation in my academic line of work * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Developing a reputation in my academic line of work	No concern	Count	4	4	5	7	0	0	0	20
		% within Job Status	33.3%	18.2%	16.7%	6.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	8.0%
		% of Total	1.6%	1.6%	2.0%	2.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	8.0%
	Slight concern	Count	0	7	3	8	3	1	1	23
		% within Job Status	0.0%	31.8%	10.0%	6.8%	13.6%	7.1%	3.0%	9.2%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.8%	1.2%	3.2%	1.2%	0.4%	0.4%	9.2%
	Neutral	Count	0	0	5	5	3	3	9	25
		% within Job Status	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%	4.3%	13.6%	21.4%	27.3%	10.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	2.0%	1.2%	1.2%	3.6%	10.0%
	Concern	Count	4	5	8	52	8	1	5	83
		% within Job Status	33.3%	22.7%	26.7%	44.4%	36.4%	7.1%	15.2%	33.2%
		% of Total	1.6%	2.0%	3.2%	20.8%	3.2%	0.4%	2.0%	33.2%
	Great concern	Count	4	6	9	45	8	9	18	99
		% within Job Status	33.3%	27.3%	30.0%	38.5%	36.4%	64.3%	54.5%	39.6%
		% of Total	1.6%	2.4%	3.6%	18.0%	3.2%	3.6%	7.2%	39.6%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	22	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	8.8%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Developing a reputation in my academic line of work” is  $< 0,001$  0,000. This indicates a noteworthy affiliation amongst the variables. The job status of academics therefore played a significant influence in developing the respondents’ reputation in academia. Approximately 70% of the respondents showed concern and great concern in terms of increasing a standing in their academic line of work. From the responses, feedback from lecturers were the highest. This reflects academics at this level viewed it as important to develop a reputation in academia. This perhaps could be the point at which academics start building a reputation in their respective fields.

**TABLE 5.59: TENURE AND REPUTATION**

Developing a reputation in my academic line of work * Number of Years in Institution Cross tabulation			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 - 3	4 – 6	7 - 9	10+	
Developing a reputation in my academic line of work	No concern	Count	2	3	1	1	13	20
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	6,1%	2,0%	2,3%	14,1%	8,0%
		% of Total	0,8%	1,2%	0,4%	0,4%	5,2%	8,0%
	Slight concern	Count	2	5	7	0	9	23
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	10,2%	14,3%	0,0%	9,8%	9,2%
		% of Total	0,8%	2,0%	2,8%	0,0%	3,6%	9,2%
	Neutral	Count	2	3	2	5	13	25
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	6,1%	4,1%	11,4%	14,1%	10,0%
		% of Total	0,8%	1,2%	0,8%	2,0%	5,2%	10,0%
	Concern	Count	2	14	20	19	28	83
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	28,6%	40,8%	43,2%	30,4%	33,2%
		% of Total	0,8%	5,6%	8,0%	7,6%	11,2%	33,2%
	Great concern	Count	8	24	19	19	29	99
		% within Number of Years in Institution	50,0%	49,0%	38,8%	43,2%	31,5%	39,6%
		% of Total	3,2%	9,6%	7,6%	7,6%	11,6%	39,6%
Total		Count	16	49	49	44	92	250
		% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	6,4%	19,6%	19,6%	17,6%	36,8%	100,0%

The p-value between “Tenure” and “Developing a reputation in my academic line of work” is  $< 0,001$  0,044. This indicates a link with the variables. The respondents’ level of tenure therefore played a significant part in developing the respondents’ reputation in academia. “Concerned” and “very concerned” statements about developing a reputation in academia was recorded at 70%. Responses were attained from different levels of tenure at the institution. This indicated establishing credibility and reputation was key, irrespective of how long academics were at the institution.

**TABLE 5.60: EDUCATION AND ACADEMIC REPUTATION**

Developing a reputation in my academic line of work * Your Highest Level of Education								
			Your Highest Level of Education					
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	Total
Developing a reputation in my academic line of work	No concern	Count	0	0	6	14	0	20
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0.0%	0.0%	5.7%	11.7%	0.0%	8.1%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	2.4%	5.7%	0.0%	8.1%
	Slight concern	Count	2	0	7	11	3	23
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40.0%	0.0%	6.7%	9.2%	42.9%	9.3%
		% of Total	0.8%	0.0%	2.8%	4.5%	1.2%	9.3%
	Neutral	Count	1	1	13	8	1	24
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20.0%	10.0%	12.4%	6.7%	14.3%	9.7%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	5.3%	3.2%	0.4%	9.7%
	Concern	Count	1	3	38	37	3	82
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20.0%	30.0%	36.2%	30.8%	42.9%	33.2%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.2%	15.4%	15.0%	1.2%	33.2%
	Great concern	Count	1	6	41	50	0	98
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20.0%	60.0%	39.0%	41.7%	0.0%	39.7%
		% of Total	0.4%	2.4%	16.6%	20.2%	0.0%	39.7%
Total	Count	5	10	105	120	7	247	
	% within Your Highest Level of Education	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	2.0%	4.0%	42.5%	48.6%	2.8%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Education” and “Developing a reputation in my academic line of work” is  $< 0,001$   $0,035$ . This indicates an important link among the variables. The respondents’ education level therefore played a significant part in developing the reputation of the respondents in academia. Approximately 70% of the respondents reflected high levels of concern regarding developing an academic reputation. The highest responses emanated from Masters and PhD respondents. Hence the level of education was a contributing factor in academics developing a reputation in their work ambit.

**TABLE 5.61: AGE AND ADVANCEMENT**

Advancing to a more responsible position in academia * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 - 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59		60+
Advancing to a more responsible position in academia	No concern	Count	0	1	6	7	2	8	24
		% within Age	0,0%	2,6%	8,8%	7,8%	6,5%	38,1%	9,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	2,4%	2,8%	0,8%	3,2%	9,6%
	Slight concern	Count	1	4	6	10	3	1	25
		% within Age	100,0%	10,3%	8,8%	11,1%	9,7%	4,8%	10,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	2,4%	4,0%	1,2%	0,4%	10,0%
	Neutral	Count	0	6	11	13	7	2	39
		% within Age	0,0%	15,4%	16,2%	14,4%	22,6%	9,5%	15,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,4%	4,4%	5,2%	2,8%	0,8%	15,6%
	Concern	Count	0	8	24	38	12	6	88
		% within Age	0,0%	20,5%	35,3%	42,2%	38,7%	28,6%	35,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	3,2%	9,6%	15,2%	4,8%	2,4%	35,2%
	Great concern	Count	0	20	21	22	7	4	74
		% within Age	0,0%	51,3%	30,9%	24,4%	22,6%	19,0%	29,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	8,0%	8,4%	8,8%	2,8%	1,6%	29,6%
Total		Count	1	39	68	90	31	21	250
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,6%	27,2%	36,0%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Advancing to a more responsible position in academia” is  $< 0,001$   $0,001$ . This indicates an important connection amongst the variables. The respondents’ level of age therefore played a significant part in advancing respondents to a more responsible position in academia. About 65% of participants showed concern and great concern regarding advancing to a more responsible academic position. The 40-49 age group showed high levels of concern which reflects their zest to advancing themselves. This concurs with other biographical variables and the desire for advancement.

**TABLE 5.62: JOB STATUS AND RESPONSIBLE POSITION**

Advancing to a more responsible position in academia * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	Total
Advancing to a more responsible position in academia	No concern	Count	5	5	5	5	1	0	3	24
		% within Job Status	41.7%	22.7%	16.7%	4.3%	4.5%	0.0%	9.1%	9.6%
		% of Total	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	0.4%	0.0%	1.2%	9.6%
	Slight concern	Count	0	2	5	14	2	1	1	25
		% within Job Status	0.0%	9.1%	16.7%	12.0%	9.1%	7.1%	3.0%	10.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.8%	2.0%	5.6%	0.8%	0.4%	0.4%	10.0%
	Neutral	Count	2	2	5	16	2	3	9	39
		% within Job Status	16.7%	9.1%	16.7%	13.7%	9.1%	21.4%	27.3%	15.6%
		% of Total	0.8%	0.8%	2.0%	6.4%	0.8%	1.2%	3.6%	15.6%
	Concern	Count	5	7	8	48	8	3	9	88
		% within Job Status	41.7%	31.8%	26.7%	41.0%	36.4%	21.4%	27.3%	35.2%
		% of Total	2.0%	2.8%	3.2%	19.2%	3.2%	1.2%	3.6%	35.2%
Great concern	Count	0	6	7	34	9	7	11	74	
	% within Job Status	0.0%	27.3%	23.3%	29.1%	40.9%	50.0%	33.3%	29.6%	
	% of Total	0.0%	2.4%	2.8%	13.6%	3.6%	2.8%	4.4%	29.6%	
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	22	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.8%	8.8%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Advancing to a more responsible position in academia” is  $< 0,001$   $0,009$ . This indicates an association with the variables. The job status of academics therefore played a significant part in advancing respondents to a more responsible position in academia. Close to 65% of the respondents were concerned and very concerned about advancing to an advanced position. Lecturers showed the greatest level of concern thereby confirming academics at this level to get ahead in their academic endeavours.

**TABLE 5.63: RACE AND RESPONSIBLE POSITION**

Advancing to a more responsible position in academia * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
Advancing to a more responsible position in academia	No concern	Count	5	5	1	7	3	21
		% within Race	6,5%	9,3%	10,0%	7,0%	50,0%	8,5%
		% of Total	2,0%	2,0%	0,4%	2,8%	1,2%	8,5%
	Slight concern	Count	5	10	0	10	0	25
		% within Race	6,5%	18,5%	0,0%	10,0%	0,0%	10,1%
		% of Total	2,0%	4,0%	0,0%	4,0%	0,0%	10,1%
	Neutral	Count	10	8	3	16	2	39
		% within Race	13,0%	14,8%	30,0%	16,0%	33,3%	15,8%
		% of Total	4,0%	3,2%	1,2%	6,5%	0,8%	15,8%
	Concern	Count	27	24	3	33	1	88
		% within Race	35,1%	44,4%	30,0%	33,0%	16,7%	35,6%
		% of Total	10,9%	9,7%	1,2%	13,4%	0,4%	35,6%
	Great concern	Count	30	7	3	34	0	74
		% within Race	39,0%	13,0%	30,0%	34,0%	0,0%	30,0%
		% of Total	12,1%	2,8%	1,2%	13,8%	0,0%	30,0%
Total	Count	77	54	10	100	6	247	
	% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	31,2%	21,9%	4,0%	40,5%	2,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Race” and “Advancing to a more responsible position in academia” is < 0,001 0,006. This indicates a substantial affiliation amongst the variables. The race of academics therefore played a significant part in advancing respondents to a more responsible position in academia. There were levels of concern (35.6%) and great concern (30.0%) from respondents in terms of advancing their careers to a higher level. In both categories Africans showed the highest responses. This could be due to the equity strategies resident at the university and the relevant equity legislation prevailing in the country. Further to this, it is in keeping with the university’s stance to fast-track people from the designated groups in order to redress imbalances in equity profiling at the university as a national imperative.

**TABLE 5.64: AGE AND MAINTAINING OCCUPATIONAL POSITION**

Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved	No concern	Count	0	4	13	6	8	3	34
		% within Age	0,0%	10,0%	19,1%	6,7%	25,8%	14,3%	13,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	5,2%	2,4%	3,2%	1,2%	13,5%
	Slight concern	Count	1	6	8	13	5	4	37
		% within Age	100,0%	15,0%	11,8%	14,4%	16,1%	19,0%	14,7%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,4%	3,2%	5,2%	2,0%	1,6%	14,7%
	Neutral	Count	0	12	15	20	1	7	55
		% within Age	0,0%	30,0%	22,1%	22,2%	3,2%	33,3%	21,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,8%	6,0%	8,0%	0,4%	2,8%	21,9%
	Concern	Count	0	8	20	41	9	5	83
		% within Age	0,0%	20,0%	29,4%	45,6%	29,0%	23,8%	33,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	3,2%	8,0%	16,3%	3,6%	2,0%	33,1%
	Great concern	Count	0	10	12	10	8	2	42
		% within Age	0,0%	25,0%	17,6%	11,1%	25,8%	9,5%	16,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	4,0%	4,8%	4,0%	3,2%	0,8%	16,7%
Total	Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved” is  $< 0,001$  0,019. This reflects a noteworthy association amongst the variables. Respondents’ age therefore played a significant part in respondents’ maintaining their achieved occupational positions in academia. About 50% of the respondents showed concern and great concern for maintaining the academic position they have. This score of 16.3% of the participants in the 40-49 age category showed the most concern. This reflects that this age group saw the importance of maintaining/stabilising at this stage in their occupational position.

**TABLE 5.65: JOB STATUS AND MAINTAINING OCCUPATIONAL POSITION**

Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved	No concern	Count	2	4	7	11	6	4	0	34
		% within Job Status	16.7%	18.2%	23.3%	9.4%	26.1%	28.6%	0.0%	13.5%
		% of Total	0.8%	1.6%	2.8%	4.4%	2.4%	1.6%	0.0%	13.5%
	Slight concern	Count	2	7	1	20	2	3	2	37
		% within Job Status	16.7%	31.8%	3.3%	17.1%	8.7%	21.4%	6.1%	14.7%
		% of Total	0.8%	2.8%	0.4%	8.0%	0.8%	1.2%	0.8%	14.7%
	Neutral	Count	3	5	5	21	3	3	15	55
		% within Job Status	25.0%	22.7%	16.7%	17.9%	13.0%	21.4%	45.5%	21.9%
		% of Total	1.2%	2.0%	2.0%	8.4%	1.2%	1.2%	6.0%	21.9%
	Concern	Count	3	4	12	44	6	3	11	83
		% within Job Status	25.0%	18.2%	40.0%	37.6%	26.1%	21.4%	33.3%	33.1%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.6%	4.8%	17.5%	2.4%	1.2%	4.4%	33.1%
	Great concern	Count	2	2	5	21	6	1	5	42
		% within Job Status	16.7%	9.1%	16.7%	17.9%	26.1%	7.1%	15.2%	16.7%
		% of Total	0.8%	0.8%	2.0%	8.4%	2.4%	0.4%	2.0%	16.7%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	23	14	33	251	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.6%	9.2%	5.6%	13.1%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved” is  $< 0,001$  0,018. This indicates a noteworthy affiliation amongst the variables. The participants’ job status therefore played a significant part in respondents’ maintaining their achieved occupational positions in academia. The highest responses in terms of concern filtered from Lecturers (17.5%) and the overall level of concern was 33.1%.

**TABLE 5.66: AGE AND ADAPTING TO CHANGES**

Adapting to changes introduced since I got established in my academic occupation * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Adapting to changes introduced since I got established in my academic occupation	No concern	Count	0	2	10	8	7	4	31
		% within Age	0,0%	5,0%	14,7%	8,9%	22,6%	19,0%	12,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	4,0%	3,2%	2,8%	1,6%	12,4%
	Slight concern	Count	0	4	6	10	5	6	31
		% within Age	0,0%	10,0%	8,8%	11,1%	16,1%	28,6%	12,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	2,4%	4,0%	2,0%	2,4%	12,4%
	Neutral	Count	1	12	8	13	3	2	39
		% within Age	100,0%	30,0%	11,8%	14,4%	9,7%	9,5%	15,5%
		% of Total	0,4%	4,8%	3,2%	5,2%	1,2%	0,8 %	15,5%
	Concern	Count	0	7	28	40	9	4	88
		% within Age	0,0%	17,5%	41,2%	44,4%	29,0%	19,0%	35,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,8%	11,2%	15,9%	3,6%	1,6%	35,1%
	Great concern	Count	0	15	16	19	7	5	62
		% within Age	0,0%	37,5%	23,5%	21,1%	22,6%	23,8%	24,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	6,0%	6,4%	7,6%	2,8%	2,0%	24,7%
Total	Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Adapting to changes introduced since I got established in my academic occupation” is < 0,001 0,014. This indicates a link with the variables. Respondents’ age therefore played a significant part in respondents’ adapting to changes since the inception of establishing themselves in their academic careers. More than half of the respondents showed concern and great concern regarding adapting to changes since establishing themselves in academia. The highest responses came from the 40-49 age group. This reflects the proactive stance of individuals from this age group to adjust themselves to changes they were confronted with, since their establishment in academia. This has been reaffirmed by interviewees that they were willing to adjust to changes by attending up-to-date training to upskill themselves and to keep abreast of changes and challenges they were confronted with.

**TABLE 5.67: AGE AND DEVELOPING NEW SKILLS**

Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field	No concern	Count	0	3	6	8	8	10	35
		% within Age	0,0%	7,5%	8,8%	8,9%	25,8%	47,6%	13,9%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,2%	2,4%	3,2%	3,2%	4,0%	13,9%
	Slight concern	Count	0	2	11	9	3	1	26
		% within Age	0,0%	5,0%	16,2%	10,0%	9,7%	4,8%	10,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	4,4%	3,6%	1,2%	0,4%	10,4%
	Neutral	Count	1	8	8	9	4	2	32
		% within Age	100,0%	20,0%	11,8%	10,0%	12,9%	9,5%	12,7%
		% of Total	0,4%	3,2%	3,2%	3,6%	1,6%	0,8%	12,7%
	Concern	Count	0	9	26	44	10	6	95
		% within Age	0,0%	22,5%	38,2%	48,9%	32,3%	28,6%	37,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	3,6%	10,4%	17,5%	4,0%	2,4%	37,8%
	Great concern	Count	0	18	17	20	6	2	63
		% within Age	0,0%	45,0%	25,0%	22,2%	19,4%	9,5%	25,1%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,2%	6,8%	8,0%	2,4%	0,8%	25,1%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	15,9%	27,1%	35,9%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field” is  $< 0,001$   $0,000$ . This indicates a link between the variables. Respondents’ age therefore played a significant part in respondents acquiring fresh skills in order to deal with changes in their academic careers. About 60% of the respondents reflected concern (37.8%) and great concern (25.1%), from the 40-49 age group predominantly. This shows academics in the establishment phase were keen on equipping themselves with new skills in order to adjust to changes in an academic environment. A key consideration in this regard would be proficient publishing skills that an academic needs to aspire to a key component in academia. The emphasis on new skills resonates with responses from interviews where interviewees confirmed their attendance at such initiatives undertaken by the institution in order to become proficient.

**TABLE 5.68: JOB STATUS AND DEVELOPING NEW SKILLS**

Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status						Total	
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer		Other
Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field	No concern	Count	6	7	5	10	3	1	3	35
		% within Job Status	50.0%	31.8%	16.7%	8.5%	13.0%	7.1%	9.1%	13.9%
		% of Total	2.4%	2.8%	2.0%	4.0%	1.2%	0.4%	1.2%	13.9%
	Slight concern	Count	0	4	3	15	2	2	0	26
		% within Job Status	0.0%	18.2%	10.0%	12.8%	8.7%	14.3%	0.0%	10.4%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	1.2%	6.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%	10.4%
	Neutral	Count	1	0	6	14	1	2	8	32
		% within Job Status	8.3%	0.0%	20.0%	12.0%	4.3%	14.3%	24.2%	12.7%
		% of Total	0.4%	0.0%	2.4%	5.6%	0.4%	0.8%	3.2%	12.7%
	Concern	Count	5	7	9	49	6	4	15	95
		% within Job Status	41.7%	31.8%	30.0%	41.9%	26.1%	28.6%	45.5%	37.8%
		% of Total	2.0%	2.8%	3.6%	19.5%	2.4%	1.6%	6.0%	37.8%
	Great concern	Count	0	4	7	29	11	5	7	63
		% within Job Status	0.0%	18.2%	23.3%	24.8%	47.8%	35.7%	21.2%	25.1%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	2.8%	11.6%	4.4%	2.0%	2.8%	25.1%
Total	Count	12	22	30	117	23	14	33	251	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.6%	9.2%	5.6%	13.1%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field” is  $< 0,001$   $0,003$ . This indicates a noteworthy connection among the variables. The job status of academics therefore played a significant part in respondents instilling new skills in order to handle changes in their academic careers. Approximately 60% of academics in the study reflected concern (37.8%) and great concern (25.1%). The highest responses in both categories came from lecturers. This reflects lecturers saw the need for developing their skills in order to manage changes in their academic domain.

**TABLE 5.69: TENURE AND DEVELOPING NEW SKILLS**

Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field * Number of Years in Institution								
Cross tabulation								
			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10+	
Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field	No concern	Count	5	6	0	3	21	35
		% within Number of Years in Institution	31,3%	12,2%	0,0%	6,8%	22,8%	14,0%
		% of Total	2,0%	2,4%	0,0%	1,2%	8,4%	14,0%
	Slight concern	Count	1	4	8	5	8	26
		% within Number of Years in Institution	6,3%	8,2%	16,3%	11,4%	8,7%	10,4%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,6%	3,2%	2,0%	3,2%	10,4%
	Neutral	Count	2	5	8	7	10	32
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	10,2%	16,3%	15,9%	10,9%	12,8%
		% of Total	0,8%	2,0%	3,2%	2,8%	4,0%	12,8%
	Concern	Count	2	19	23	18	33	95
		% within Number of Years in Institution	12,5%	38,8%	46,9%	40,9%	35,9%	38,0%
		% of Total	0,8%	7,6%	9,2%	7,2%	13,2%	38,0%
	Great concern	Count	6	15	10	11	20	62
		% within Number of Years in Institution	37,5%	30,6%	20,4%	25,0%	21,7%	24,8%
		% of Total	2,4%	6,0%	4,0%	4,4%	8,0%	24,8%
Total	Count	16	49	49	44	92	250	
	% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	6,4%	19,6%	19,6%	17,6%	36,8%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Tenure” and “Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field” is < 0,001 0,038. This reflects a noteworthy affiliation among the variables. The tenure of academics therefore played a significant part in respondents acquiring new skills in order to adjust to changes in their academic careers. Those with 10 and more years of service, showed the most concern (13.2%) and great concern (8%), with an overall level of concern of about 60%.

**TABLE 5.70: GENDER AND DEVELOPING NEW SKILLS**

Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field * Gender Cross tabulation					
			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field	No concern	Count	19	14	33
		% within Gender	16,5%	10,6%	13,4%
		% of Total	7,7%	5,7%	13,4%
	Slight concern	Count	7	18	25
		% within Gender	6,1%	13,6%	10,1%
		% of Total	2,8%	7,3%	10,1%
	Neutral	Count	11	21	32
		% within Gender	9,6%	15,9%	13,0%
		% of Total	4,5%	8,5%	13,0%
	Concern	Count	52	43	95
		% within Gender	45,2%	32,6%	38,5%
		% of Total	21,1%	17,4%	38,5%
	Great concern	Count	26	36	62
		% within Gender	22,6%	27,3%	25,1%
		% of Total	10,5%	14,6%	25,1%
Total		Count	115	132	247
		% within Gender	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	46,6%	53,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Gender” and “Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field” is  $< 0,001$  0,039. This indicates a key association with the variables. The gender of participants therefore played a significant part in respondents acquiring innovative skills in order to handle changes in their academic careers. About 65% of respondents showed concern (21.1% of females) and great concern (14.6% of males). The results indicate that females were more concerned in developing their skills as opposed to men. This resonates with responses from the interviews where females stated they found that they were not given the same platform for opportunities and development as men and therefore had to work twice as hard to succeed. This is contrary to the current policy of escalating women to higher echelons in the structures at the University. The University’s firm resolve acknowledges their commitment to populate structures with women which is evident in high profile positions. UKZN boasts the first black woman with a PhD in Town Planning and the first female Engineering Dean. The University also boasts seven women who are part of the South African Research Chair Initiative (SARChI) and has awarded funding to over 54% of the female student body population, with 72.67% being undergraduate students. It is young women students that dominate our graduations with over 60% representation. The number of women at professor

level increased from 23.32% in 2016 to 24.34% in 2017 and female associate professors rose from 34.04% in 2016 to 38.62% in 2017. Considerable progress has been made in advancing women; including foreign nationals. Currently, women make up 55.02% of employees at UKZN. Of note is that the proportion of African females at top and senior management increased from 27.27% in 2016 to 40.35% as at recent 2017 data (Vice Chancellor’s Communique: 8 August 2017).

**TABLE 5.71: AGE AND DEVELOPING NEW KNOWLEDGE AND/OR SKILLS**

Developing new knowledge and/or skills to help me improve in my academic work * Age Crosstabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59		60+
Developing new knowledge and/or skills to help me improve in my academic work	No concern	Count	0	3	7	6	5	6	27
		% within Age	0.0%	7.5%	10.3%	6.7%	16.1%	28.6%	10.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.2%	2.8%	2.4%	2.0%	2.4%	10.8%
	Slight concern	Count	0	3	12	8	7	4	34
		% within Age	0.0%	7.5%	17.6%	8.9%	22.6%	19.0%	13.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.2%	4.8%	3.2%	2.8%	1.6%	13.5%
	Neutral	Count	1	6	6	9	1	2	25
		% within Age	100.0%	15.0%	8.8%	10.0%	3.2%	9.5%	10.0%
		% of Total	0.4%	2.4%	2.4%	3.6%	0.4%	0.8%	10.0%
	Concern	Count	0	9	23	45	9	6	92
		% within Age	0.0%	22.5%	33.8%	50.0%	29.0%	28.6%	36.7%
		% of Total	0.0%	3.6%	9.2%	17.9%	3.6%	2.4%	36.7%
	Great concern	Count	0	19	20	22	9	3	73
		% within Age	0.0%	47.5%	29.4%	24.4%	29.0%	14.3%	29.1%
		% of Total	0.0%	7.6%	8.0%	8.8%	3.6%	1.2%	29.1%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.4%	15.9%	27.1%	35.9%	12.4%	8.4%	100.0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Developing new knowledge and or skills to help me improve in my academic work” is < 0,001 0,004. This indicates an important relationship with the variables. Respondents’ age therefore played a significant part in respondents increasing new knowledge and or skills in order to aid them advance their academic work. About 65% of the participants showed concern and great concern with the highest responses coming from the age group 40-49. This group again has the most drive to develop their knowledge and skills as opposed to others. This is in keeping with the desire to get ahead therefore updating themselves with key knowledge and skills.

**TABLE 5.72: AGE AND FINDING NEW OPPORTUNITIES**

Finding out about new opportunities as my academic field changes * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age					Total	
			< 20	20 - 29	30 – 39	40 - 49	50 - 59		60+
Finding out about new opportunities as my academic field changes	No concern	Count	0	1	7	9	5	7	29
		% within Age	0,0%	2,5%	10,3%	10,0%	16,7%	33,3%	11,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	2,8%	3,6%	2,0%	2,8%	11,6%
	Slight concern	Count	0	3	10	4	7	6	30
		% within Age	0,0%	7,5%	14,7%	4,4%	23,3%	28,6%	12,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,2%	4,0%	1,6%	2,8%	2,4%	12,0%
	Neutral	Count	1	6	7	13	3	1	31
		% within Age	100,0%	15,0%	10,3%	14,4%	10,0%	4,8%	12,4%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,4%	2,8%	5,2%	1,2%	0,4%	12,4%
	Concern	Count	0	13	24	42	7	6	92
		% within Age	0,0%	32,5%	35,3%	46,7%	23,3%	28,6%	36,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	5,2%	9,6%	16,8%	2,8%	2,4%	36,8%
	Great concern	Count	0	17	20	22	8	1	68
		% within Age	0,0%	42,5%	29,4%	24,4%	26,7%	4,8%	27,2%
		% of Total	0,0%	6,8%	8,0%	8,8%	3,2%	0,4%	27,2%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	30	21	250
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	16,0%	27,2%	36,0%	12,0%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Finding out about new opportunities as my academic field changes” is  $< 0,001$ . This indicates a noteworthy affiliation between the variables. The age of participants therefore played a significant part in respondents enquiring about new opportunities as they face changes in their academic field. Approximately 65% of respondents showed concern (36.8%) and great concern (27.2%). The highest responses came from the age group 40-49. This resonates with other findings within this age group.

**TABLE 5.73: AGE AND NEW KNOWLEDGE, EQUIPMENT AND/OR METHODS**

Keeping up with new knowledge equipment and/ or methods in my academic field * Age Crosstabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Keeping up with new knowledge equipment and/ or methods in my academic field	No concern	Count	0	3	9	5	6	4	27
		% within Age	0.0%	7.5%	13.2%	5.6%	19.4%	19.0%	10.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.2%	3.6%	2.0%	2.4%	1.6%	10.8%
	Slight concern	Count	0	4	10	12	5	8	39
		% within Age	0.0%	10.0%	14.7%	13.3%	16.1%	38.1%	15.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.6%	4.0%	4.8%	2.0%	3.2%	15.5%
	Neutral	Count	1	4	8	2	0	3	18
		% within Age	100.0%	10.0%	11.8%	2.2%	0.0%	14.3%	7.2%
		% of Total	0.4%	1.6%	3.2%	0.8%	0.0%	1.2%	7.2%
	Concern	Count	0	8	18	44	9	2	81
		% within Age	0.0%	20.0%	26.5%	48.9%	29.0%	9.5%	32.3%
		% of Total	0.0%	3.2%	7.2%	17.5%	3.6%	0.8%	32.3%
	Great concern	Count	0	21	23	27	11	4	86
		% within Age	0.0%	52.5%	33.8%	30.0%	35.5%	19.0%	34.3%
		% of Total	0.0%	8.4%	9.2%	10.8%	4.4%	1.6%	34.3%
Total		Count	1	40	68	90	31	21	251
		% within Age	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.4%	15.9%	27.1%	35.9%	12.4%	8.4%	100.0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Keeping up with new knowledge, equipment and or methods in my academic field.” is  $< 0,001$  0,000. This indicates a noteworthy affiliation concerning the variables. Participants’ age played a significant influence in respondents in staying abreast with new knowledge, equipment and or methods in their academic domain. A score of 34.3% showed great concern and 32.3% showed concern of keeping up to date with new knowledge, equipment and/or methods. The largest responses were from the 40-49 age group. It seems this group were the most keen to keep abreast with new knowledge, skills and or methods pertaining to the profession.

**TABLE 5.74: GENDER AND NEW KNOWLEDGE, EQUIPMENT AND/OR METHODS**

Keeping up with new knowledge equipment and/ or methods in my academic field * Gender					
Crosstabulation					
			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Keeping up with new knowledge equipment and/ or methods in my academic field	No concern	Count	14	13	27
		% within Gender	12.2%	9.8%	10.9%
		% of Total	5.7%	5.3%	10.9%
	Slight concern	Count	19	17	36
		% within Gender	16.5%	12.9%	14.6%
		% of Total	7.7%	6.9%	14.6%
	Neutral	Count	8	10	18
		% within Gender	7.0%	7.6%	7.3%
		% of Total	3.2%	4.0%	7.3%
	Concern	Count	46	35	81
		% within Gender	40.0%	26.5%	32.8%
		% of Total	18.6%	14.2%	32.8%
	Great concern	Count	28	57	85
		% within Gender	24.3%	43.2%	34.4%
		% of Total	11.3%	23.1%	34.4%
Total		Count	115	132	247
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	46.6%	53.4%	100.0%

The p-value between “Gender” and “Keeping up with new knowledge, equipment and or methods in my academic field.” is  $< 0,001$  0,031. This indicates a significant relationship concerning the variables. Respondents’ age therefore played a significant part in respondents staying abreast with new knowledge, equipment and or methods in their academic arena. Scoring of 32.8% of the respondents showed concern and 34.4% showed great concern regarding keeping up with new knowledge, equipment and or methods. Females showed more concern (18.6%) than males (11.3%). This therefore shows that females were more prepared to attain the relevant knowledge, skills and familiarise themselves with new methods, as opposed to males.

**TABLE 5.75: AGE AND REFRESHER TRAINING**

Getting academic refresher training to keep up * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 – 49	50 – 59	60+	
Getting academic refresher training to keep up	No concern	Count	0	1	11	11	9	9	41
		% within Age	0,0%	2,5%	16,2%	12,4%	29,0%	42,9%	16,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,4%	4,4%	4,4%	3,6%	3,6%	16,4%
	Slight concern	Count	0	4	13	13	8	4	42
		% within Age	0,0%	10,0%	19,1%	14,6%	25,8%	19,0%	16,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	5,2%	5,2%	3,2%	1,6%	16,8%
	Neutral	Count	1	7	13	11	4	2	38
		% within Age	100,0%	17,5%	19,1%	12,4%	12,9%	9,5%	15,2%
		% of Total	0,4%	2,8%	5,2%	4,4%	1,6%	0,8%	15,2%
	Concern	Count	0	14	20	37	3	5	79
		% within Age	0,0%	35,0%	29,4%	41,6%	9,7%	23,8%	31,6%
		% of Total	0,0%	5,6%	8,0%	14,8%	1,2%	2,0%	31,6%
	Great concern	Count	0	14	11	17	7	1	50
		% within Age	0,0%	35,0%	16,2%	19,1%	22,6%	4,8%	20,0%
		% of Total	0,0%	5,6%	4,4%	6,8%	2,8%	0,4%	20,0%
Total		Count	1	40	68	89	31	21	250
		% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	0,4%	16,0%	27,2%	35,6%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Age” and “Getting academic refresher training to keep up.” is < 0,001 0,000. This indicates a key link between the variables. The age of academics therefore is instrumental in respondents getting academic refresher training in order to keep up. A finding of 31.6% of concerned respondents and 20.0% greatly concerned respondents, confirmed they were keen on getting academic refresher training courses to keep up. Members of the 40-49 age group highlighted the most responses, hence confirming individuals at this stage of their careers were keen to take on refresher training as with other development initiatives conformed earlier in the study.

**TABLE 5.76: JOB STATUS AND REFRESHER TRAINING**

Getting academic refresher training to keep up * Job Status Crosstabulation										
			Job Status							
			Professor	Associate Professor	Senior Lecturer	Lecturer	Junior Lecturer	Below Junior Lecturer	Other	Total
Getting academic refresher training to keep up	No concern	Count	4	6	8	17	1	1	4	41
		% within Job Status	33.3%	27.3%	26.7%	14.7%	4.3%	7.1%	12.1%	16.4%
		% of Total	1.6%	2.4%	3.2%	6.8%	0.4%	0.4%	1.6%	16.4%
	Slight concern	Count	6	7	8	15	2	1	3	42
		% within Job Status	50.0%	31.8%	26.7%	12.9%	8.7%	7.1%	9.1%	16.8%
		% of Total	2.4%	2.8%	3.2%	6.0%	0.8%	0.4%	1.2%	16.8%
	Neutral	Count	0	5	4	16	0	5	8	38
		% within Job Status	0.0%	22.7%	13.3%	13.8%	0.0%	35.7%	24.2%	15.2%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.0%	1.6%	6.4%	0.0%	2.0%	3.2%	15.2%
	Concern	Count	2	4	6	43	14	3	7	79
		% within Job Status	16.7%	18.2%	20.0%	37.1%	60.9%	21.4%	21.2%	31.6%
		% of Total	0.8%	1.6%	2.4%	17.2%	5.6%	1.2%	2.8%	31.6%
Great concern	Count	0	0	4	25	6	4	11	50	
	% within Job Status	0.0%	0.0%	13.3%	21.6%	26.1%	28.6%	33.3%	20.0%	
	% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	10.0%	2.4%	1.6%	4.4%	20.0%	
Total	Count	12	22	30	116	23	14	33	250	
	% within Job Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.8%	8.8%	12.0%	46.4%	9.2%	5.6%	13.2%	100.0%	

The p-value between “Job status” and “Getting academic refresher training to keep up.” is < 0,001 0,000. This indicates a key link with the variables. The job status of academics therefore significantly did influence respondents getting academic refresher training in order to keep up. About half of the respondents, 31.6% were concerned and 20.0% were greatly concerned about getting refresher training to keep abreast. The highest responses were received from lecturers.

**TABLE 5.77: TENURE AND REFRESHER TRAINING**

Getting academic refresher training to keep up * Number of Years in Institution Cross tabulation								
			Number of Years in Institution					Total
			< 1	1 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10+	
Getting academic refresher training to keep up	No concern	Count	3	3	2	10	23	41
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	6,1%	4,1%	23,3%	25,0%	16,5%
		% of Total	1,2%	1,2%	0,8%	4,0%	9,2%	16,5%
	Slight concern	Count	3	3	9	6	21	42
		% within Number of Years in Institution	18,8%	6,1%	18,4%	14,0%	22,8%	16,9%
		% of Total	1,2%	1,2%	3,6%	2,4%	8,4%	16,9%
	Neutral	Count	1	8	12	7	10	38
		% within Number of Years in Institution	6,3%	16,3%	24,5%	16,3%	10,9%	15,3%
		% of Total	0,4%	3,2%	4,8%	2,8%	4,0%	15,3%
	Concern	Count	5	18	20	14	21	78
		% within Number of Years in Institution	31,3%	36,7%	40,8%	32,6%	22,8%	31,3%
		% of Total	2,0%	7,2%	8,0%	5,6%	8,4%	31,3%
	Great concern	Count	4	17	6	6	17	50
		% within Number of Years in Institution	25,0%	34,7%	12,2%	14,0%	18,5%	20,1%
		% of Total	1,6%	6,8%	2,4%	2,4%	6,8%	20,1%
Total		Count	16	49	49	43	92	249
		% within Number of Years in Institution	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	6,4%	19,7%	19,7%	17,3%	36,9%	100,0%

The p-value between “Tenure” and “Getting academic refresher training to keep up.” is < 0,001 0,004. This indicates a major link concerning the variables. Respondents’ tenure significantly did influence respondents getting academic refresher training in order to keep up. About 50% showed concern (31.3%) and great concern (20.1%) regarding getting academic refresher training. The highest responses came from respondents in the 10 and more year group and 1-3 year group respectively. This concurs with other responses from those in the institution for 10 and more years whereby they committed to developing themselves to keep abreast and get ahead in their academic careers.

**TABLE 5.78: RACE AND ACADEMIC REFRESHER TRAINING**

Getting academic refresher training to keep up * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
Getting academic refresher training to keep up	No concern	Count	10	10	1	15	3	39
		% within Race	13,0%	18,5%	10,0%	15,2%	50,0%	15,9%
		% of Total	4,1%	4,1%	0,4%	6,1%	1,2%	15,9%
	Slight concern	Count	10	15	3	12	2	42
		% within Race	13,0%	27,8%	30,0%	12,1%	33,3%	17,1%
		% of Total	4,1%	6,1%	1,2%	4,9%	0,8%	17,1%
	Neutral	Count	10	14	2	12	0	38
		% within Race	13,0%	25,9%	20,0%	12,1%	0,0%	15,4%
		% of Total	4,1%	5,7%	0,8%	4,9%	0,0%	15,4%
	Concern	Count	28	9	3	36	1	77
		% within Race	36,4%	16,7%	30,0%	36,4%	16,7%	31,3%
		% of Total	11,4%	3,7%	1,2%	14,6%	0,4%	31,3%
	Great concern	Count	19	6	1	24	0	50
		% within Race	24,7%	11,1%	10,0%	24,2%	0,0%	20,3%
		% of Total	7,7%	2,4%	0,4%	9,8%	0,0%	20,3%
Total	Count	77	54	10	99	6	246	
	% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	31,3%	22,0%	4,1%	40,2%	2,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Race” and “Getting academic refresher training to keep up” is < 0,001 0,018. This indicates a link with the variables. Respondents’ race therefore did play a significant role in respondents getting academic refresher training in order to keep up. Scores of 31.3% of the respondents showed concern and 20.3% showed great concern, with the highest responses from the African race group. This indicates that Africans were keen on getting academic refresher training to escalate themselves to higher echelons in academia. This resonates with other findings with race, reflecting Africans were keen in developing themselves to get ahead.

**TABLE 5.79: AGE AND IMPORTANT PEOPLE IN ACADEMIA**

Getting to know important people in my academic field * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 – 29	30 - 39	40 – 49	50 - 59	60+	
Getting to know important people in my academic field	No concern	Count	0	2	12	7	7	8	36
		% within Age	0,0%	5,1%	17,6%	8,0%	22,6%	38,1%	14,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	4,8%	2,8%	2,8%	3,2%	14,5%
	Slight concern	Count	0	2	9	6	2	2	21
		% within Age	0,0%	5,1%	13,2%	6,8%	6,5%	9,5%	8,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	3,6%	2,4%	0,8%	0,8%	8,5%
	Neutral	Count	0	6	13	13	5	1	38
		% within Age	0,0%	15,4%	19,1%	14,8%	16,1%	4,8%	15,3%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,4%	5,2%	5,2%	2,0%	0,4%	15,3%
	Concern	Count	1	11	18	42	8	10	90
		% within Age	100,0%	28,2%	26,5%	47,7%	25,8%	47,6%	36,3%
		% of Total	0,4%	4,4%	7,3%	16,9%	3,2%	4,0%	36,3%
	Great concern	Count	0	18	16	20	9	0	63
		% within Age	0,0%	46,2%	23,5%	22,7%	29,0%	0,0%	25,4%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,3%	6,5%	8,1%	3,6%	0,0%	25,4%
Total	Count	1	39	68	88	31	21	248	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,7%	27,4%	35,5%	12,5%	8,5%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “getting to know important people in my academic field” is < 0,001 0,003. This reflects a noteworthy association amid the variables. Respondents’ age therefore significantly influenced respondents getting to know important people in academia. About 60% of the participants showed concern (36.3%) and great concern (25.4%), with the highest responses emanating from the age group 40-45. This again reflects the enthusiasm of these respondents to acquaint themselves with key people in the profession. These individuals have noted the value of networking with renowned persons in the same field.

**TABLE 5.80: AGE AND EASIER ACADEMIC WORK**

Developing easier ways of doing my academic work * Age Cross tabulation									
			Age						Total
			< 20	20 - 29	30 - 39	40 - 49	50 - 59	60+	
Developing easier ways of doing my academic work	No concern	Count	0	2	6	5	3	6	22
		% within Age	0,0%	5,1%	8,8%	5,6%	9,7%	28,6%	8,8%
		% of Total	0,0%	0,8%	2,4%	2,0%	1,2%	2,4%	8,8%
	Slight concern	Count	1	2	6	11	1	2	23
		% within Age	100,0%	5,1%	8,8%	12,4%	3,2%	9,5%	9,2%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,8%	2,4%	4,4%	0,4%	0,8%	9,2%
	Neutral	Count	0	4	13	15	8	1	41
		% within Age	0,0%	10,3%	19,1%	16,9%	25,8%	4,8%	16,5%
		% of Total	0,0%	1,6%	5,2%	6,0%	3,2%	0,4%	16,5%
	Concern	Count	0	13	21	35	7	8	84
		% within Age	0,0%	33,3%	30,9%	39,3%	22,6%	38,1%	33,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	5,2%	8,4%	14,1%	2,8%	3,2%	33,7%
	Great concern	Count	0	18	22	23	12	4	79
		% within Age	0,0%	46,2%	32,4%	25,8%	38,7%	19,0%	31,7%
		% of Total	0,0%	7,2%	8,8%	9,2%	4,8%	1,6%	31,7%
Total	Count	1	39	68	89	31	21	249	
	% within Age	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	0,4%	15,7%	27,3%	35,7%	12,4%	8,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Age” and “Developing easier ways of doing my academic work” is < 0,001 0,017. This indicates a link amid the variables. The participants’ age therefore significantly did influence respondents in finding easier ways of doing their academic work. Close to 60% of the participants showed concern (14.1%) and great concern (9.2%) regarding developing easier ways of carrying out academic work. The 40-49 age group has again responded the highest. This also re-affirms this category’s commitment of finding more simple ways of doing their work.

**TABLE 5.81: EDUCATION AND EASIER ACADEMIC WORK**

Developing easier ways of doing my academic work * Your Highest Level of Education Cross tabulation								
			Your Highest Level of Education					Total
			Undergraduate Degree	Honours Degree	Masters Degree	PhD	Other	
Developing easier ways of doing my academic work	No concern	Count	1	0	5	16	0	22
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	0,0%	4,8%	13,3%	0,0%	8,9%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,0%	2,0%	6,5%	0,0%	8,9%
	Slight concern	Count	2	0	9	10	2	23
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	40,0%	0,0%	8,7%	8,3%	28,6%	9,3%
		% of Total	0,8%	0,0%	3,7%	4,1%	0,8%	9,3%
	Neutral	Count	0	5	13	21	1	40
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	0,0%	50,0%	12,5%	17,5%	14,3%	16,3%
		% of Total	0,0%	2,0%	5,3%	8,5%	0,4%	16,3%
	Concern	Count	1	2	42	35	3	83
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	20,0%	40,4%	29,2%	42,9%	33,7%
		% of Total	0,4%	0,8%	17,1%	14,2%	1,2%	33,7%
	Great concern	Count	1	3	35	38	1	78
		% within Your Highest Level of Education	20,0%	30,0%	33,7%	31,7%	14,3%	31,7%
		% of Total	0,4%	1,2%	14,2%	15,4%	0,4%	31,7%
Total	Count	5	10	104	120	7	246	
	% within Your Highest Level of Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	2,0%	4,1%	42,3%	48,8%	2,8%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Education” and “Developing easier ways of doing my academic work” is  $< 0,001$   $0,026$ . This highlights a link with the variables. Respondents’ level of education therefore significantly influenced respondents to find easier ways of doing their academic work. About 65% of respondents showed concern (33.7%) and great concern (31.7%) for developing easier ways of carrying out their work. The bulk of the responses came from those with Masters degrees and PhDs respectively. This reflects those with higher qualifications aligned themselves to finding easier means of carrying their work.

**TABLE 5.82: RACE AND EASIER ACADEMIC WORK**

Developing easier ways of doing my academic work * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
Developing easier ways of doing my academic work	No concern	Count	5	4	0	8	4	21
		% within Race	6,5%	7,4%	0,0%	8,1%	66,7%	8,5%
		% of Total	2,0%	1,6%	0,0%	3,3%	1,6%	8,5%
	Slight concern	Count	8	6	0	8	0	22
		% within Race	10,4%	11,1%	0,0%	8,1%	0,0%	8,9%
		% of Total	3,3%	2,4%	0,0%	3,3%	0,0%	8,9%
	Neutral	Count	13	9	3	15	1	41
		% within Race	16,9%	16,7%	30,0%	15,2%	16,7%	16,7%
		% of Total	5,3%	3,7%	1,2%	6,1%	0,4%	16,7%
	Concern	Count	32	20	3	28	0	83
		% within Race	41,6%	37,0%	30,0%	28,3%	0,0%	33,7%
		% of Total	13,0%	8,1%	1,2%	11,4%	0,0%	33,7%
	Great concern	Count	19	15	4	40	1	79
		% within Race	24,7%	27,8%	40,0%	40,4%	16,7%	32,1%
		% of Total	7,7%	6,1%	1,6%	16,3%	0,4%	32,1%
Total	Count	77	54	10	99	6	246	
	% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of Total	31,3%	22,0%	4,1%	40,2%	2,4%	100,0%	

The p-value between “Race” and “Developing easier ways of doing my academic work” is < 0,001 0,002. This highlights a key link amid the variables. Participants’ race significantly did influence respondents to find easier ways of doing their academic work. A scoring of 33.7% of respondents were concerned with the highest responses coming from the Indian race group (13%) and 32.1% were greatly concerned with the highest responses stemming from the African race group (16.3%) respectively. Africans and Indians were therefore more inclined to find easier ways of carrying out their academic work than other race groups. This is in agreement with other results in terms of development, regarding the same race groups.

**TABLE 5.83: RACE AND DOING THINGS**

Doing things I have always wanted to do but never had time for * Race Cross tabulation								
			Race					Total
			Indian	White	Coloured	African	Other	
Doing things I have always wanted to do but never had time for	No concern	Count	4	2	0	10	3	19
		% within Race	5,2%	3,7%	0,0%	10,1%	50,0%	7,7%
		% of Total	1,6%	0,8%	0,0%	4,1%	1,2%	7,7%
	Slight concern	Count	5	3	0	7	0	15
		% within Race	6,5%	5,6%	0,0%	7,1%	0,0%	6,1%
		% of Total	2,0%	1,2%	0,0%	2,8%	0,0%	6,1%
	Neutral	Count	20	10	0	18	1	49
		% within Race	26,0%	18,5%	0,0%	18,2%	16,7%	19,9%
		% of Total	8,1%	4,1%	0,0%	7,3%	0,4%	19,9%
	Concern	Count	23	24	3	29	1	80
		% within Race	29,9%	44,4%	30,0%	29,3%	16,7%	32,5%
		% of Total	9,3%	9,8%	1,2%	11,8%	0,4%	32,5%
	Great concern	Count	25	15	7	35	1	83
		% within Race	32,5%	27,8%	70,0%	35,4%	16,7%	33,7%
		% of Total	10,2%	6,1%	2,8%	14,2%	0,4%	33,7%
Total		Count	77	54	10	99	6	246
		% within Race	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	31,3%	22,0%	4,1%	40,2%	2,4%	100,0%

The p-value between “Race” and “Doing things I have always wanted to do but never had time for” is < 0,001 0,016. This a noteworthy connection amongst the variables. Participants’ race therefore did influence respondents to do things they always yearned to do but could not do, due to time constraints. About 65% of participants showed concern and great concern for always yearning to do things they wanted to, but never had time for. The African race group contributed to the highest responses. This could be attributed to being a disadvantaged segment of the population and being deprived of such initiatives and opportunities.

All values without an \* (or p-values more than 0.05) do not have a significant relationship.

## CORRELATIONS

Bivariate correlation was also performed on the (ordinal) data. The results feature in the annexures.

The outcomes specify the ensuing forms.

Positive values indicate a directly proportional relationship between the variables and a negative value indicates an inverse relationship. All significant relationships are indicated by a \* or \*\*.

For example, the correlation value between “I am technically current and updated in my academic skills through seminars and extra training” and “My job skills are transferable to other institutions of higher learning” is 0.301. This is a directly related proportionality. Participants show that the more updated they are with their skills, the more transferable these skills become, and *vice versa*.

Due to the vast amount of significant relationships, the excel spreadsheet (correlations) has been attached in ANNEXURE 9.

Some relationships are presented below:-

- There is a significant relationship between **“Promotions are limited at the university due to the university’s structure”** and hierarchical plateauing, job skill plateauing and the exploratory, establishment, maintenance and disengagement career stages respectively.
- There is a noteworthy relationship between **“I am advancing in my academic career”** and job skill plateauing and the four career stages.
- There is an important relationship with **“I know everything about my academic job”** and job content, job skill and personal plateauing and the establishment and disengagement career stages.
- There is an important association between **“My academic job has remained the same over time”** and job skill and personal plateauing and the four career stages.
- There is an important association with **“My job skills are transferable to other institutions of higher learning”** and job skills and personal plateauing and the disengagement career stage respectively.
- There is a important relationship between **“I opt not to advance at the university due to family considerations”** and personal plateauing and the exploration and the establishment career stages.
- There is a significant relationship between **“I do not desire promotion because of additional responsibilities”** and personal plateauing and the establishment and maintenance career stages.

- There is a significant relationship between **“Identifying the skills required for this academic job that interests me”** and the exploration, establishment, maintenance and the disengagement career stages.
- An important relationship between **“Achieving stability in my academic occupation”** and the establishment, maintenance and disengagement career stages.
- A noteworthy relationship exists between **“Getting established in my academic work”** and the establishment, maintenance and the disengagement career stages.
- A significant relationship exists between **“Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation”** and the establishment, maintenance and disengagement career stages.
- There is a substantial relationship between **“Developing a reputation in my academic line of work”** and the establishment, maintenance and disengagement career stages.
- There is a significant relationship between **“Advancing to a more responsible position in academia”** and the establishment, maintenance and the disengagement career stages.
- An important correlation exists between **“Developing new skills to cope”** and the maintenance and disengagement career stages.
- An important link exists between **“Developing new knowledge and/or skills to help me improve in my academic work”** and the maintenance and disengagement career stages.
- There is a substantial connection between **“Avoiding academic occupational pressures I formerly handled more easily”** and the disengagement career stage.

Negative values imply an inverse relationship which implies that the variables have an opposite effect on each other. As one increases, the other decreases.

For instance, the correlation value between “Promotional opportunities have been limited at the university” and “I am advancing in my academic career” is **-0.286**. It can be said that, irrespective of what academic advancements are made by respondents, the opportunities for promotion are limited.

Due to the volume of inverse relationships to report on, the excel spreadsheet features in ANNEXURE 9 of the dissertation for easy reference.

A few inverse relationships are as follows:-

- An inverse relationship exists between **“Promotional opportunities have been limited at the university”** and job skill plateauing and personal plateauing.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“I am advancing in my academic career”** and job content plateauing, personal plateauing and the exploration, establishment, maintenance and the disengagement career stages.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“My academic job is challenging”** and job content plateauing, personal plateauing and the exploration, establishment and maintenance career stages.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“My academic job has remained the same over time”** and job skill plateauing and personal plateauing.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“I am technically current and updated in my academic skills through seminars and extra training”** and personal plateauing and the exploration, maintenance and disengagement career stages.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“I am constantly learning new things on my job”** and personal plateauing and the four career stages.
- An opposite association exists amongst **“I like the contents of my job”** and the establishment and disengagement career stages.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site”** and the exploratory, establishment, maintenance and the disengagement career stages.
- An inverse relationship exists between **“Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me”** and the disengagement career stage.

## **CORRELATIONS BY DIMENSIONS**

The following dimensions correlated (ANNEXURE 10) with each other and are as follows:-

- **Content and Hierarchical**

The correlation between “content” items and “hierarchical” items is 0,169. This is directly related proportionally. Respondents indicates a significant relationship between “content” items and “hierarchical” items.

- **Job skills and Content**

The correlation between “job skill” items and “content” items is 0,128. This is directly related proportionally. An important relationship between “job skills” items and “content” items exists.

- **Personal and Job skill**

The correlation between “personal” items and “job skill” items is 0,268. This is directly related proportionally. At hand therefore a valid affiliation between “personal” items and “job skills items” exists.

- **Establishment and Exploration**

The correlation between “establishment” items and “exploration” items is 0,658. This is directly related proportionally. There is therefore a significant relationship between “establishment” items and “exploration” items.

- **Maintenance and Exploration**

The correlation between “maintenance” items and “exploration” items is 0,636. This is directly related proportionally. There is therefore a significant relationship between “maintenance” items and “exploration” items.

- **Maintenance and Establishment**

The correlation between “maintenance” items and “establishment” items is 0,632. This is directly related proportionally. There is therefore a significant relationship between “maintenance” items and “establishment” items.

- **Disengagement and Exploration**

The correlation between “disengagement” items and “exploration” items is 0,308. This is directly related proportionally. There is therefore a significant relationship between “disengagement” items and “exploration” items.

- **Disengagement and Establishment**

The correlation between “disengagement” items and “establishment” items is 0,387. This is directly related proportionally. There is therefore a significant relationship between “disengagement” items and “establishment” items.

- **Disengagement and Maintenance**

The correlation between “disengagement” items and “maintenance” items is 0,334. This is directly related proportionally. There is therefore a significant relationship between “disengagement” items and “maintenance” items.

## **5.8 CONCLUSION**

Chapter Five, presented, analysed and discussed the data collected in the study. Key aspects pertaining to data analysis such as the sample, the sampling technique, reliability, validity, analysis of biographical data, analysis of the dimensions, correlations and hypothesis testing have been enshrined in this chapter. Due to the extensive volume of items that were analysed, the findings were summarised. Tables and summaries are attached and due to the length, it is placed in the annexures of the study. Through the analysis, the key research questions were addressed thereby linking them to the objectives of the study. Key findings have emanated from Chapter Five, which form the basis for the next chapter. Chapter Six concentrates on the recommendations and conclusion of the research.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The effective managing of an organisation's human resources is fundamental to organisational success and high employee morale. By identifying the stumbling blocks that hinder satisfaction and progress in a particular sphere of employees' work-life, an organisation is in a position to tap into the full potential and commitment of its employees by introducing mechanisms or strategies for the effective management thereof. In this context, career plateauing is an important and an increasingly prevalent career issue. The unprecedented rise with plateauing could be attributed to fluctuations in the business industry, streamlining, lay-offs and equity challenges, inadequate abilities and skills, flatter organisational structures, mergers and acquisitions amongst others. With regards to the institution under study, numerous obstacles such as hierarchical, job content, job skills and personal/life plateauing impacted undesirably on the numerous career phases of the respondents. The aim of the chapter is to elicit concluding remarks on the study, based on findings and previous research. The findings were discussed with the purpose of positioning a better career experience for academics by identifying the different plateaus at the various career stages in an academic environment. An original research contribution to the significant management of career plateau phenomena in an academic field of career management is put forward through this research, especially considering that a scarcity of knowledge exists in the local and South African context in this regard. Therefore if South African and international tertiary institutions want to harness, keep, grow and use their academics while promising career acceleration and its related value, there is then a dire need to understand what is hindering careers in academia is the view put forward by authors Cuthbert, (1996); Zeffane and Mayo, (1994).

This contribution will aid human resource professionals to manage the ill-effects of the plateau phenomena at various career stages in an academic environment. The structure of the chapter is as follows;-

- Conclusions relating to themes;
- Recommendations arising from the study; and
- Considerations for future research.

Numerous hypotheses were put forth in the study. A discussion in respect of each hypothesis ensues. A detailed summary of the significant relationships are collated and appear in Chapter Five of the thesis and in the appendix.

## **6.2 CONCLUSION**

The concluding remarks aligned to the results of the study are presented hereunder. The recommendations are highlighted in themes that have materialized from the study.

**6.2.1 Hypothesis 1:** There is a significant relationship between career plateau dimensions (structural/hierarchical, job content, job skill and personal/life) and career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement).

### **6.2.1.1 Hierarchical Plateauing**

Respondents of the study reflected their discontent with limited promotional opportunities due to stringent promotional opportunities and the University's structure. This finding is supported by Nwovuhoma and Malik, (2016); Tan and Salomane, (1994) who stated that structural plateauing results when there is a combined effect of the original structure and birth rate variations and seen as out of an employee's hands. This view is further supported by Cable, (1999) who stated other factors include the reorganisation of organisations, the rationalising of jobs and the abolition of middle management (Cable, 1999). Furthermore, Alivand and Ebrahimpour (2015) view structural plateauing as when an employee reaches the highest level of the organisation due to limitations in the hierarchical organisational structure.

### **6.2.1.2 Job Content and Job Skills**

Academics in the study indicated their frustration with their job content and the lack of relevant skills at the respective career stages. Evidence from previous research indicates content plateauing compels employees to stay in the identical position for several years deprived of a major transformation in job responsibilities (Weiner *et al.*, 1992), hence the non-appearance of novel, varied and challenging jobs deprived of a space for learning (Allen *et al.*, 1998; Bardwick, 1983). Employees experiencing content plateauing are deprived of rewards and are

therefore, of the belief the organisation is not supportive (Lapalme *et al.*, 2009). Bardwick (1987) is of the view that those experiencing hierarchical and content plateauing have being ignored by organisations. This aspect, the author believes, sends a message of the employee not being appreciated and valued hence resulting in undesirable ramifications for the worker and the organisation. Allen, Poteet and Russell (1998) advanced knowledge on the objective, subjective and personal nature of career plateaus by contending that there may be employees who are experiencing hierarchical and job content plateaus. In other words, there are variables that are related to hierarchical and job content plateau that needs to be investigated, labelled as a double plateau. In terms of job skill plateauing, Feldman and Weitz (1988) attributed job skill plateauing to “poor entry-level performance” in addition to improper training, low career mobility needs, lack of inherent inspiration, strain and fatigue, lack of extrinsic booties, poor company progression and “being blocked in a career”, which they attribute to one’s own limitations.

#### **6.2.1.3 Personal Plateauing**

Tan and Salomane (1994) views personal plateauing as focusing on an individual’s private life and parallels it to an era in a stage in one’s life. Choudray *et al.*, (2013) are of the view that personal plateauing happens when the employee’s capability does not correspond with the occupational requirements or when they are unmotivated or lack career ambitions.

Hypothesis 1 can therefore be accepted.

#### **6.2.2 Hypothesis 2:**

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of employees differing on each of the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) and the respective career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement) and the career plateau construct.

The outcomes reflect a significant difference in the perceptions of employees differing on each of the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) and the respective career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement) and the career plateau construct.

The results of the study concurs with other research. Research reflects plateaued employees tend to be older compared with non-plateaued employees (Near, 1983; Savery, 1989; Tremblay and Roger, 1993; Tremblay, Roger and Toulouse, 1995). In terms of job occupancy, plateaued employees were more senior than un-plateaued employees (Gould and Penley, 1984; Tremblay and Roger, 1993). Further to this, many studies identified more Blacks than Whites who experience a career plateau (Greenhaus *et al.*, 1990, Milliman 1992).

Organisational sources such as competition (where a person is viewed as lesser competent than someone from the outside); age (an older employee seen as less desirable compared to a younger employee) and organisational need (where an employee is too valued in an individual's present job and cannot be released for an advanced position) are also viewed by Ference *et al.*, (1977) as reasons for plateauing.

A study in schools of education, conducted by Patterson, Sutton, and Schuttenberg (1987) identified an individual's perception of having vocational advancement (that is, not being plateaued) interrelated positively with productivity and career satisfaction. Further, they stated that full or tenured professors (irrespective of status), were in a stronger position than the Professors' junior colleagues to understand plateaued jobs and did not view career plateauing with a reduced output or satisfaction with career accolades. Both plateaued, as well as non-plateaued (those with career mobility) individuals were in a position to attain productivity and work satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2 is therefore accepted.

### **6.2.3. Hypothesis 3:**

There is a significant variance in career stages due to the career plateau status.

Evidence from the study revealed the variance in career stages was significantly expounded by the career plateau status. The results of the study highlighted the various career stages (such as exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement) significantly account for the variance in the career plateau status of the respondents.

Previous research concurs in that research comparing plateaued and non-plateaued employees displayed key dissimilarities in career concerns pertaining to career phases (Slocum *et al.*, 1988; Stout, 1988). Career stages are experienced with age and the phases the individuals find

themselves in, at various stages of their life. They encountered a process of change which may be summarised as the exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement life stages (Stead and Watson, 1999). The sources of change are contextualised in the domains individuals exist in, such as biotic, psychosomatic, social, mystical, cultural, fiscal and historical (Schreuder and Theron, 2001). In addition, the person and the location are subject to variation. Hypothesis 3 is therefore accepted.

### **6.3. RECOMMENDATIONS**

Recommendations are presented for the academics, line managers, institution and for future researchers.

#### **6.3.1 Recommendations for Academics**

##### **6.3.1.1 Development of Specialised Skills**

Considering the vast changes in higher education, more specifically the emphasis on research and publications, academics should become more proactive in terms of instilling key research skills such as research writing skills and taking innovation decisions regarding their careers.

Preceding studies by (Tremblay *et al.*, 1991; Lemire *et al.*, 1999; Tan and Salomone, 1994) concurs with the above by stating knowledge of the initial detection of plateauing can prepare employees and therapists to engage in proactive activities (for example, upskilling and expanding interests) and for “out of the box” strategies associated with vocational planning.

##### **6.3.1.2 Request Concise Feedback from Academic Leaders**

Academic leaders have the responsibility to deliver comprehensive feedback to their personnel during the performance management process in order to recognise definite areas to rectify defective/deviant performance. Constructive, timeous feedback allows defective performance to be diffused in its infancy stages, hence avoiding a situation that contributes to low levels of productivity and frustration.

### **6.3.1.3 Establishing Credibility**

Academics should be instrumental in establishing themselves in their domain through networking and their academic reputation. Fostering relationships with colleagues in other institutions and with other colleagues across campuses would provide a backdrop against gauging what is happening with “best” practice and establishing rapport. Academics are therefore, encouraged to “put themselves out there” in order to establish an academic reputation. Mentoring opportunities, joint projects and coaching initiatives, further enhances credibility and reputation in the academic field.

### **6.3.1.4 Identifying Gaps in One’s Job**

As an employee you are conversant with your job and the best identifier in ascertaining the shortfalls in your job. This is one of the major contributors of job dissatisfaction and low morale and must be flagged with your line manager to action, in order to avoid further dissent and frustration, which invariably leads to plateauing.

### **6.3.1.5 Seek Training and Skill Upgrading**

Institutions provide training and development initiatives to their workforce based on the needs of the workforce. The onus is on the employee to take responsibility for their own development which is characteristic of the Protean career. Skills become obsolete on an ongoing basis, therefore employees have the responsibility to upskill themselves. In the university context, academics need to upskill themselves in terms of research and publishing skills, a key area many respondents, especially junior academics, state that they were lacking in.

### **6.3.1.6 Build Networks in Other Departments and Divisions**

Establishing rapport with other departments and divisions are beneficial for establishing camaraderie and familiarising oneself with colleagues in the same institution. The university consists of 5 campus sites, which are geographically dispersed, nonetheless there are opportunities such as forums and events wherein one can foster and establish relationships and

spread collegiality. Opportunities for collaboration may also be possible. Joint initiatives can also enhance growth and productivity within the institution.

### **6.3.1.7 Look for Opportunities Outside of Work**

Academics should scan the higher education environment for better opportunities if they show discontentment regarding the current situation. Through this alignment, employees can also gauge the similarities and differences with institutions. For example, respondents have cited sister institutions colleagues have moved to, due to less stringent criteria for promotion. If an employee is thinking of switching careers, one has to analyse one's current expertise, interests, know-how and enthusiasm to adapt. One has to examine their goals, values, and habits (Montgomery, 2002). One should let go of anything that one does not benefit from and communicate one's needs, relates Bardwick, (1987).

Considering the above strategies highlighted by Weiner *et al.*, (1992) organisations and employees are in a position to respond (reactively) and ward off (proactively) the onset of career plateaus. Leibowitz *et al.*, (1990) and Allen *et al.*, (1998) cited in Van Der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) in addition contribute to strategies to avert this phenomenon. They sum up action strategies pertinent to the employee as follows: the need to develop expertise, the need to request for specific feedback, the need for the employee's increased prominence and standing in the organisation, identifying any exclusions in one's job and attempting to change it, obtaining development and upskilling, building linkages in other units and being on the lookout for other opportunities outside the organisation. "That has happened, we had a few academics that left for UNIZul and they are trying to get the SAICA program running there and get the university accredited"..." they were very promising academics and some of them we could...they did not really have the students interest at heart they just moved because they wanted to outside work and they were not allowed here" (AL13). Bardwick (1987) suggested a change in the worker's enthusiasm for knowledge from the acknowledgement one acquires from others, to learning for oneself as a technique of propagating challenge and fulfilment in the present organisation. A plateaued employee acts as a guide to heighten job contentment and labour variety and, unknowingly, to unearth a passion for teaching, leading to other career options.

## **6.3.2 Recommendations for Line Managers**

### **6.3.2.1 Allow Time to Learn on the Job**

This could especially apply to junior academics such as developmental lecturers and junior lecturers. Lecturers may also need time to adjust and acquire skills, particularly with research and publication skills. Mentoring by senior academics will aid in this regard. Teaching strategies are also a pivotal area to perfect, and this can only be done if adequate time is spent on the job.

### **6.3.2.2 Provide Candid Feedback**

Detailed, timeous feedback to subordinates are key to defusing the negative effects of plateauing. Feedback should always be enhancing and constructive, short of criticism. Academics need to be made aware on a regular basis, of their levels of performance in order to meet the performance norms, as enshrined in the performance contract.

### **6.3.2.3 Provide Opportunities for Peer Coaching**

Many respondents in the study were vocal about mentoring, stating that "a proper well-structured mentoring process needs to be in place". These opportunities provide support to new and emerging academics and researchers who are encountering difficulties, and who may be not yet fully conversant with academic skills.

### **6.3.2.4 Offer Increased Training and Upskilling Opportunities**

At the institution, the performance management process provides an avenue for adequate and relevant training and skills development programmes through the personal development plan. The line manager is in a strong position to ascertain the deficiencies identified in the performance management process, in which the academic may require assistance, for example, perhaps a statistical (SPSS) programme for researchers or a key area of concern as noticed in the study, that of article/manuscript writing skills. In order to aid academics who are

encountering difficulties with academic writing skills, can attend workshops or training to enhance their academic writing skills.

### **6.3.2.5 Provide Exposure for All Your People, Not Merely for the Stars**

Ference *et al.*, (1977) views “stars” as high-performing individuals.

All employees have the potential to contribute to organisational effectiveness, hence opportunities should be available to all academics. At the institution, there are high profile academics who contribute significantly to the research output of the university. What has been noticed, as per respondents’ responses, was the preference of many higher status academics wanting to only lecture at the post-graduate level, thereby leaving the larger, undergraduate classes to junior academics who are still trying to stabilize themselves in research, and as such, they need more time to do this.

### **6.3.2.6 Give Non-Monetary Recognition**

A key way to get employee buy-in and high motivation is through incentives. Considering the diverse nature of the workforce, one has to take heed of the different ways in which certain segments of the population may want to be rewarded. At the university, a key monetary recognition is through the performance management bonus. However there has been a lot of discontent from respondents in the study regarding the same, since many suffered a low rating due to not publishing. The rating they stated could be better if the research key performance area was relaxed in terms of one of their suggestions being rated on the KPA once in every two years, since it was difficult to achieve the criteria in a year.

### **6.3.2.7 Build Strong Networks Across the Organisation**

Line managers should affiliate themselves to academic leaders (line managers) across colleges and disciplines. Through these interactions, academic leaders can identify processes and issues that may be pertinent to other segments in the university environment. There could be unique initiatives in certain domains of the university that are working very well that could be adopted within other disciplines/departments.

### **6.3.3 Recommendations for the Institution**

#### **6.3.3.1 Adjustment of Promotion Policy (Regarding Stringent Criteria)**

At the institution under study, despite a uniform, normative set of criteria university-wide for all colleges as a performance rubric for measurement of deliverables for promotion, respondents of the study resonated with stringent promotion policy guidelines as a reason for plateauing. "People are leaving, I know about two or three that have already left to become professor there but not here, so that is evident enough to say that criteria is stringent" (AL5) "What we need to do is we need to reorganise that research criteria for promotion"... "We need to urgently address it because we need to make it to find ways of recognising people"... "We cannot retain people, the policies go completely against this university, against retaining staff here and they expect us to carry on producing" (AL16) "I do not see myself applying for promotion, I do not agree with the promotion system. I have a PhD since 2008, and I feel that the promotion system is not transparent and I will never apply for promotion. I applied once, and I will never apply again"(AL8).

From these responses, it is therefore recommended, that the criteria should be reconsidered for the respective levels. Tan, *et al.*, (1994) argue that organisational leaders need to take cognisance of advancement and its value in the current era. In this sense they suggest that provision of different types of incentives and identification for exceptional employee performance. Most of the times, the reason for plateauing is not individualised but viewed at an organisational level. Senior managers create blockages for advancement, slow economic growth, poor economic growth and/ management strategies such as external advancement limiting access to upper level opportunities within the organisation, suggests Near (1985).

#### **6.3.3.2 Modification of Organisational Structure**

The institution's structure, has also been seen by the respondents as hindering advancement within the institution. The university should consider changes in this regard. Tan *et al.*, (1994); Salami, (2010) and Van Der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) in their studies suggested distinct interventions such as job restructuring; job enrichment programmes; work ventures; lateral transfers; temporary or permanent transfers and paid study leave.

### **6.3.3.3 Need for Funding**

Regarding the PhD, a critical instrument for advancement at the institution, should be accompanied by sabbatical funding so that academics are in a position to complete this crucial qualification as it is also seen as a National imperative. This should be a compulsory “aid” to all potential PhD candidates. However, some respondents stated there was not enough financial support in this regard. Some sentiments included: "NRF is changing, when I came in I got funding, grants that helped a lot but now I think the funding has changed to pure science and mathematics, so for education there is no funding unless there are special calls and bursaries"(AL5). "Funding is an issue" (AL12).

### **6.3.3.4 Proper Job Profiling**

A key concern of some respondents pertained to the role and job description of Developmental Lecturers. It is therefore, recommended that the institution adequately analyses this portfolio. “The developmental lecturer went to a colleague last year and said, you know I am a developmental lecturer for 18 months, so after 18 months I am going to become a lecturer? He had no idea, no idea whatsoever that developmental lecturer means developmental lecturer. So that whole HR structure and appointing people for particular positions is something that really needs to be intensely addressed and it is not being addressed” (AL1). “There is for example, a developmental lecturer sitting over a 1000 and just having a discussion with him he said you know, I know I got the notice that a developmental lecturer should be 500” (AL1).

### **6.3.3.5 Revisit Productivity and Research Output Criteria**

Respondents in the study reflected high levels of discontent regarding the emphasis on research outputs and inadequate weighting with other key performance areas. The institution should create forums to interact with academics and hear what suggestions they have in this regard. "I would say it is difficult to get promoted because of the, first of all the PU's are the problems. it is difficult to get the PUs...."(AL12); " the problem when it comes to promotions when it comes to this because you know you have not done your articles and you have not made sufficient progress in your qualifications" ..."......a lot of staff have left because of general unhappiness and all those conditions..."...."gone into industry"... "when they left they made it very clear that

they left because of no career pathing, no possibility of ever being promoted" (AL13) "There is one issue that she will always emphasis to staff, the very same language that I am emphasising, the issue of publication but also to ensure that you mobilise resources" (AL6).

#### **6.3.3.6 Provide Mentoring Opportunities**

Respondents have been vocal about mentor support to assist them attain their objectives. Choudary *et al.*, (2013) states mentoring is effective due to knowledge being passed on. Mentors such as teachers and instructors provide support economically and socially and increase the self-esteem of protégés. The development of formal mentoring programmes bolsters career motivation, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Salami, 2010). "So people now because they do not have mentors they plateau at that level. If you had a mentor that could take you to the next step like PhD guidance then you can move to the next step" (AL7). "I think mentorship is lacking at all levels because you need mentorship at all levels...we do not have that formalised I think if that formal mentorship is recognised as a route for promotion as well, it will motivate staff" (AL5).

This can only occur if the institution drives this process, and also provides incentives to those who take the initiative. Concurring with this a respondent stated: "So the plateauing for me is limited by the lack of proper mentorship structure and support not for the mentee but the mentors need that more. Like why am I wasting my time in mentoring somebody what value is it to? "So if you want to become a professor and have shown that I have mentored someone at a lower level and this is the evidence and that is recognised in my promotion, then I would do it, but it is not recognised, so mentorship that is not formally recognised".

#### **6.3.3.7 Effective Communication Channels**

It is recommended that the university devise communiqué networks to converse with plateaued employees in terms of what motivates them. Furthermore, this medium could also be receptive to challenges academics may face.

#### **6.3.3.8 Reduced Workload**

Academics have stated unequivocally that they needed more support from the university with regard to their workload. They were overwhelmed with their workloads. "Other people often

get plateaued because of workload and because they are primarily teaching at undergraduate level - because of the numbers and lack of resources" (AL10) "From a research perspective I am sure I have plateaued for 10 years and it is purely because I have no time to actually spend on that because I have an extremely busy work week"... "They are always trying to increase our lecture load and I don't just understand why" (AL12). Furthermore credentialing academics also echoed sentiments in terms of wanting a lower/reduced workload: "It is not that I don't want to do my PhD, I do want to do it but I need to have the time to actually do it properly and I do not want to rush through it and I want to enjoy it" (AL9). In order to overcome the workload issue, the university should make provision to distribute workloads equitably by making provision for an even distribution of undergraduate and postgraduate lecturing. A large number of disciplines reflected that senior academics were teaching mainly at postgraduate levels leaving the undergraduate classes with larger numbers to the junior academics. It was debilitating for junior academics since they were not left with adequate time to pursue their research and complete their PhDs.

#### **6.3.3.9 Age Consideration for Retirement**

Sentiments have been echoed by respondents, for the institution to recognise and value employees for their skill and knowledge and avoid losing them at the age of 60. They suggested that the age requirement should be aligned with the norm, being 65. Many seasoned academics were being lost however other institutions of higher learning were benefitting from the institution's loss. "Yes, it is a big loss. We lost 4 people. Last year we lost 3 people and the previous year we lost another person. So we only have 7 left. We are limping, we are struggling. It has been such a struggle. The only reason I agreed to become an academic leader was because of this problem" (AL16). "For example in our School what I am hearing from folks is that you know they have lost a lot of colleagues in the past year so people have left and in terms of leadership particularly the so-called developmental lecturers who can supervise Masters or PhD because we have an Honours program as well, so a lot of folks are feeling kind of burdened" (AL15) (lack of expertise) - causing overload.

At the time of writing this thesis, the university was drafting the new conditions of service for due consideration for 2018 and has put forth the age for retirement as 65.

#### **6.3.4 Recommendations for Future Research**

- A comparative study on a national and international institution of higher learning on career plateaus would be interesting, to gauge if similar plateaus were experienced in different countries.
- More research in the local context should be sanctioned, since minimal studies have been carried out nationally on career plateaus and career stages. The area of career plateaus particularly, is not a commonly researched area, especially in a national context.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF CAREER PLATEAUS AT CAREER STAGES IN ACADEMIA**

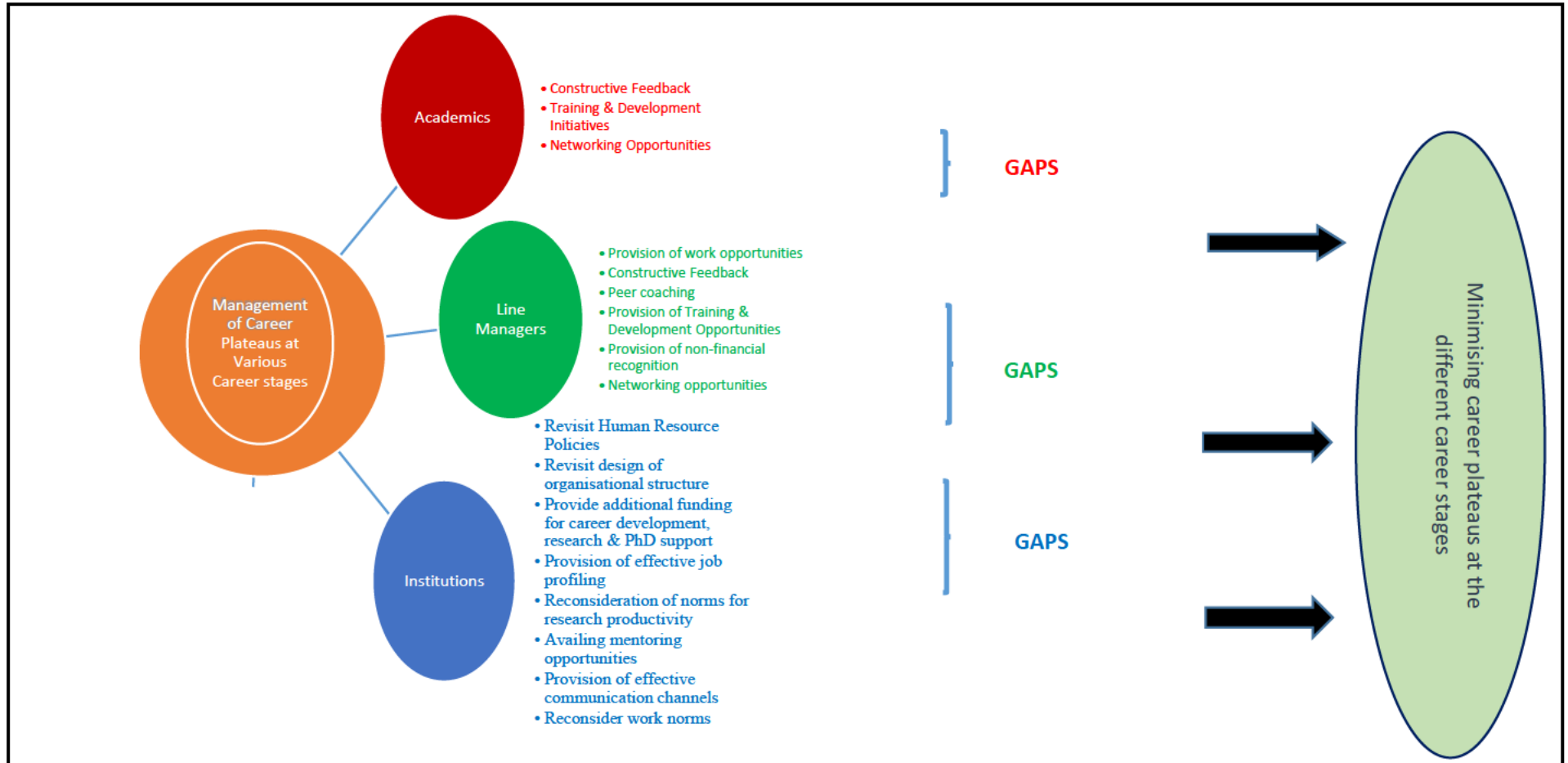
#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

The chapter presents a significant insertion to the study, as it discusses the relationship between career plateau dimensions (structural/hierarchical, job content, job skill and personal/life) and career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement). Furthermore, more importantly, results showed a significant difference in the perceptions of employees differing on each of the respective biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) and the respective career stages (exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement) and the career plateau construct. Considering the outcomes of the study, a model is advocated as part of the new contribution in identifying the gaps in current literature in academia for all relevant stakeholders that emerged for managing career plateauing at the respective career stages in academia for UKZN in particular, and possibly higher education in general.

#### **7.2. MODEL ON CAREER PLATEAU STRATEGIES FOR RELEVANT STAKEHOLDERS IN ACADEMIA AT VARIOUS CAREER STAGES**

The key stakeholders play a pivotal role in minimising the plateauing effect at the various career stages. The relevant stakeholders include the academics themselves, their line managers and the institution. The strategies for the stakeholders are identified as the current gaps through the research that was conducted and are discussed below in detail. The contribution of this research focuses on the academic domain. The model provides a pertinent summary from an academic perspective.

**FIGURE 7.1: MODEL ON CAREER PLATEAU STRATEGIES FOR RELEVANT STAKEHOLDERS IN ACADEMIA AT VARIOUS CAREER STAGES**



A discussion of the salient and applicable gaps depicted in the model is presented hereunder in terms of strategies, for all the relevant stakeholders. These gaps have been extracted from the research and provides valuable input and direction to academia in resolving and minimising the plateau phenomena at UKZN in particular, and suggested as possibilities for institutions of higher learning in general.

## **STAKEHOLDER 1: ACADEMICS**

Academics are “the drivers” of their own careers within institutions hence there are various strategies they can become conversant with in order to ease themselves out of the plateau phenomena. The strategies are outlined below as:-

- Academics need to acquire publication and research writing skills through training and publication and research writing workshops;
- Academics must request for constructive, concise and timeous feedback from line managers in order to rectify defective performance, more especially after the performance management process;
- Academics must position themselves in order to establish an academic reputation and should network with counterparts in other academic institutions and internally within the same academic environment through joint collaboration initiatives;
- Academics must proactively identify gaps in their own jobs, which is defined by their job descriptions;
- Academics should take a proactive stance in managing their own academic development and skills through university-wide initiatives such as relevant workshops and funding opportunities;
- Academics should establish rapport with different entities within the same institution in order to ascertain similarities and differences with regards to opportunities for higher development within the institution; and
- Academics should be vigilant to initiatives external to their institutions, for better prospects by networking and collaborating with other tertiary institutions.

## STAKEHOLDER 2: LINE MANAGERS

It is significantly submitted that line managers' commitment, zest and empathy are critical to organisational success including elevated levels of motivation and competitive advantage. Line managers are responsible for leading from "the front" hence they should take cognisance of several factors that may contribute to plateauing. Below are several strategies that line managers could utilise to reduce the plateauing phenomena:

- Line managers should provide a conducive and enabling environment to academics for transfer of newly acquired skills by providing psychological and resource support;
- Line managers must provide candid, constructive (not critical) and timeous feedback to academics by meeting face-to-face at periodic intervals, especially after the performance management rating process;
- Line managers must establish a mentoring process by requesting assistance from senior academics to act as mentors, and make provision for rewards (for example, remuneration to mentors or sharing of outputs) to mentors and mentees alike, encouraging buy-in of the process;
- Line managers must be instrumental in providing academic training and upskilling opportunities for all academics at all levels through initiatives enshrined in the performance management process. They should foster management buy-in to provide the relevant resources for academic training and development initiatives by highlighting the return on investment with regards to higher productivity units, thereby enhancing the research status and ranking of the university;
- Line managers must be pivotal in motivating and providing an environment and recognition for 'non-star' performers to enhance themselves. This can be realised by identifying the deficiencies and creating opportunities for development and support for transfer of knowledge and skills after the performance rating process;
- Line managers should incentivise academics in a non-financial manner such as recognising academic excellence and awarding accolades in the form of news bulletins within departments/faculties/colleges; and
- Line managers should collaborate with their counterparts across other disciplines/departments/other campuses in order to familiarise themselves to good practice principles which they can align themselves to.

### **STAKEHOLDER 3: INSTITUTIONS**

Some critical strategies for institutions are put forward as follows:

- The institution should take cognisance of personnel policies that may need to be revisited due to academics' dissatisfaction/low morale, for example, the promotion policy;
- The institution should revisit its organisational structure in order to allow flexibility and mobility to its academics;
- The institution should increase funding for career development, research and PhD support;
- Thorough and clear job profiling and concise job descriptions must be prioritised by the institution;
- Academic institutions should scrutinise norms for key performance areas in order to ensure that they are attainable and deliverable;
- Higher education institutions should establish mentoring opportunities with reward incentives where 'seasoned' academics act as mentors, especially to younger and emerging academics;
- There should be open, transparent communication channels to address feelings of content/discontent especially with regards to teaching and research;
- There should be provision to revisit the workloads of academics since large workloads do not permit academics to reach their research objectives, such as publishing due to time constraints; and
- Academic institutions possess intellectual capital in their senior, seasoned academics and should at all costs retain them for as long as is possible. The institution should therefore, capitalise on the invaluable experience and skill that academics possess by increasing their retirement age, although this issue is currently under discussion at present at the University.

Having considered the strategies in which the stakeholders could make meaningful contributions, attention must also be drawn to the paradigm shift of managing careers, by emphasising the Protean career, as one important aspect raised earlier in the study. In addition, there must be strong support from institutions in order to avoid academics from plateauing

prematurely hence ensuring that academics reach their full potential thereby culminating in a rewarding academic career to the mutual benefit of both individuals and institutions.

### **7.3 CONCLUSION**

The study has contributed significantly to academia, specifically in the local context by providing theory and practical guidelines (through the proposed model) to UKZN as a case study, and possibly, to relate the issues to institutions of higher learning at large in managing the plateau phenomena at the respective career stages. The role of various stakeholders are pivotal in reducing and minimising the career plateau limitations by utilising the strategies as outlined in the model, more especially, for the academic environment. Such a model is lacking in the current domain, and is therefore, put forward as a vital tool to address the career plateau phenomena of academics in educational institutions of higher learning. The study aimed to overcome limitations of previous studies by focusing on a larger sample, a more heterogeneous and diversified workforce, a non-managerial work environment, and the localisation of the context. Furthermore, the research has contributed in filling gaps towards enhancing a holistic discussion of Human Resource Management, career management and career development literature from a local and empirical perspective.

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## ANNEXURE 1

### TURNITIN REPORT

Final thesis dd 11 Aug 2018

#### ORIGINALITY REPORT

<b>6%</b>	<b>4%</b>	<b>3%</b>	<b>%</b>
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

#### PRIMARY SOURCES

<b>1</b>	<b>hr.ukzn.ac.za</b> Internet Source	<b>1.00</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>ir.dut.ac.za:8080</b> Internet Source	<b>&lt;1.00</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Gina Gaio Santos. "Career barriers influencing career success", Career Development International, 2016</b> Publication	<b>&lt;1.00</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>ir.dut.ac.za</b> Internet Source	<b>&lt;1.00</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>iaear.weebly.com</b> Internet Source	<b>&lt;1.00</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>www.scribd.com</b> Internet Source	<b>&lt;1.00</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>hrdreview.hsrc.ac.za</b> Internet Source	<b>&lt;1.00</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>uir.unisa.ac.za</b> Internet Source	<b>&lt;1.00</b>

## ANNEXURE 2

### ETHICAL CLEARANCE



18 October 2016

Mrs Anisha Ramsaroop 9144171  
School of Management, IT & Governance  
Westville Campus

Dear Mrs Ramsaroop

Protocol reference number: HSS/0357/015D  
Project title: The relationship between career plateaus and the career stages of UKZN academics

#### Approval Notification – Amendment Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application and request for an amendment received on 11 October 2016 has now been approved as follows:

- Change in Research Methodology

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form; Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for period of 3 years from the date of original issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.



Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/ms

cc: Supervisor: Dr S Ramdial  
cc: Academic Leader Research: Professor B McArthur  
cc: School Administrators: Ms A Pearce

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

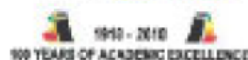
Dr Sheruka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag 284001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3887/3604667 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4909 Email: [ethics@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ethics@ukzn.ac.za) /[ethics@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ethics@ukzn.ac.za) /[ethics@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ethics@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



Franschoo Campus   ■ Edgewood   ■ Howard College   ■ Medical School   ■ Pietermaritzburg   ■ Westville

## ANNEXURE 3

### GATEKEEPER'S LETTER



21 October 2016

Mrs Anisha Ramsaroop  
School of Management, IT and Governance  
College of Management Studies  
Westville Campus  
UKZN  
Email: [ramsaroopas@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ramsaroopas@ukzn.ac.za)

Dear Mrs Ramsaroop

**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

Gatekeeper's permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) towards your postgraduate studies, provided Ethical clearance has been obtained. We note the title of your research project is:

*"The relationship between career plateaus and the career stages of UKZN academics"*.

It is noted that you will be constituting your sample by handing out questionnaires to Academic staff members on all campuses of UKZN.

Please ensure that the following appears on/attached to your notice/questionnaire:

- Ethical clearance number;
- Research title and details of the research, the researcher and the supervisor;
- Consent form is attached to the notice/questionnaire and to be signed by user before he/she fills in questionnaire;
- gatekeepers approval by the Registrar.

You are not authorized to contact staff and students using 'Microsoft Outlook' address book.

Please note that the data collected must be treated with due confidentiality and anonymity.

  
MR SS MOKOENA  
REGISTRAR

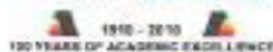
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Office of the Registrar

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban, South Africa

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 8005/2206 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 7824/2204 Email: [registrar@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:registrar@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



Pinetown Campus   ■ Edgewood   ■ Howard College   ■ Medical School   ■ Pietermaritzburg   ■ Westville

## ANNEXURE 4

### LANGUAGE EDITOR'S REPORT

Language Practitioner/Specialist: Language in Education

T. Reddy

B.A. ; U.E.D. (Natal); B.A. Hons. (UNISA); M.A. (Linguistics); Cert. in TESOL (Pittsburgh, USA);  
Fellow English Speaking Board (Int.) UK  
Tel (h) : 031 564 6975  
Cell : 083 704 6975  
e-mail : todreddy@gmail.com

*To whom it may concern*

Date : 17 December 2017

Re : Language Practitioner Report

Student : Anisha Ramsaroop

Dissertation : The relationship between career plateaus and career stages of academics at  
The University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN)

I have had the pleasure of reading the above dissertation submitted for the degree of *Doctor of Administration* in the School of Management, Information Technology and Governance in the College of Law and Management Studies at the University of KwaZulu –Natal and found the language usage fluent and free of any grammatical inaccuracies.

The work has been read for punctuation, fluency and congruency, and meets the language and stylistic writing at this postgraduate level.

I deem the dissertation acceptable for final admission.

Regards

T



## ANNEXURE 5

### INFORMED CONSENT FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL  
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION AND GOVERNANCE  
ETHICAL CLEARANCE NUMBER: HSS/0357/015D**

Dear Respondent,

**Researcher:** Ms A. Ramsaroop (031 260 7674)  
**Supervisor:** Prof M. Subban (031 260 7763)  
Research Office: Ms. P Ximba (031 260 3587)

I, **MS A RAMSAROOP** am a **PhD** student, at the **SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND GOVERNANCE**, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled: **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER PLATEAUS AND THE CAREER STAGES OF UKZN ACADEMICS**.

The aim of this study is to:

- Conduct a literature review on career plateaus and career stages
- To establish the career plateau status of the participants in terms of structural/hierarchical, content/ job content, personal, professional and life plateauing.
- To ascertain the career stage of the participants in terms of exploration, establishment, maintenance, and the disengagement stage.
- To find out if there is a statistically significant relationship between career plateaus and career stages
- To determine whether the variance in career stages is due to the career plateau status
- To examine the biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) on the career plateau status and career stages respectively
- To make recommendations.

Through your participation I hope to understand the influence of career plateaus on the career stages of academics. The results of the survey are intended to contribute to a more conducive environment for academics by identifying the type/s of plateau/s academics are faced with at each level (career stage) of their work life.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the **SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND GOVERNANCE, UKZN**.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The survey should take you about **15-20** minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Investigator's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date : \_\_\_\_\_

**CONSENT**

I..... (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

**ANNEXURE 6**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**  
**COLLEGE OF LAW AND MANAGEMENT STUDIES**  
**WESTVILLE CAMPUS**



**DEAR RESPONDENT**

I am an academic at UKZN pursuing my PhD in the School of Management, Information Technology and Governance in the College of Law and Management Studies. In the last few years, academics have been at the forefront of changes such as huge workloads, poor and/ no work-life balance and stringent criteria for promotion which have left many academics with low morale, dissatisfaction, frustration, fatigue and elevated levels of stress. Considering the status quo the researcher wishes to ascertain the type/s of plateauing (that is, hierarchical, job content, job skill and/ personal plateaus) academics are confronted with in their respective career stages (that is, the exploration, establishment, maintenance or disengagement stage). The research aims to ascertain whether academics are plateaued structurally in terms of movement in the university; through the unchanging content of their work; through academic (job) skills and or personally (where academia dominates all aspects of an academic's existence to the exclusion of any other activity) at a particular stage of their academic career. Career plateaus are normally associated with the maintenance career stage however due to the challenges in the academic environment, academics are plateauing at different stages. Career stages refer to the different phases (exploration, establishment, maintenance or disengagement) of a person's working life. The respective career stages have numerous implications for career development practice for the person, the organisation and Human Resource practitioners. The results of the study will prompt measures to be formalised and implemented individually, institutionally and professionally to overcome the academic plateau phenomenon at the respective academic career stage.

Thank you in advance for your willingness and time in completing the questionnaire. Your voluntary participation is most sincerely appreciated. As a participant, you are assured of confidentiality and anonymity during this research. You may withdraw at any point during the study, if you so desire.

Yours faithfully,

---

Mrs Anisha Ramsaroop  
Lecturer  
School of Management, Information Technology and Governance  
Westville Campus  
[ramsaroopas@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ramsaroopas@ukzn.ac.za)

## **INSTRUCTIONS:**

- Kindly complete the entire questionnaire.
- Please complete the informed consent.

The questionnaire is divided into 3 sections:-

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

SECTION B: THE QUESTIONNAIRE: CAREER PLATEAUS

SECTION C: THE QUESTIONNAIRE: CAREER STAGES

### **SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA**

**For each of the following cross (X) the appropriate response:-**

#### **1. AGE**

Under 20	1
20-29	2
30-39	3
40-49	4
50-59	5
60-over	6

#### **2. MARITAL STATUS**

Married	1
Single	2
Widowed	3
Divorced/separated	4
Other	5

#### **3. JOB STATUS**

Professor	1
Associate Professor	2
Senior Lecturer	3
Lecturer	4
Junior Lecturer	5
Below Junior Lecturer	6
Other	7

#### **4. CAMPUS SITE**

Westville	1
Howard College	2
Pietermaritzburg	3
Edgewood	4
Medical School	5

#### **5. NUMBER OF YEARS IN INSTITUTION**

Less than 1	1
1-3	2
4-6	3
7-9	4
10 and over	5

#### **6. RACE**

Indian	1
White	2
Coloured	3
African	4
Other	5

#### **7. GENDER**

Female	1
Male	2

#### **8. YOUR HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION**

Undergraduate Degree	1
Honours Degree	2
Masters Degree	3
PhD	4
Other	5

**SECTION B: CAREER PLATEAU ITEMS:**

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS RELATING TO YOUR CAREER AS AN ACADEMIC. PLEASE SELECT (CROSS - X) YOUR RESPONSES USING THE FOLLOWING SCALE:

- |                      |           |
|----------------------|-----------|
| 1. Strongly disagree | <b>SD</b> |
| 2. Disagree          | <b>D</b>  |
| 3. Neutral           | <b>N</b>  |
| 4. Agree             | <b>A</b>  |
| 5. Strongly Agree    | <b>SA</b> |

	<b>CAREER PLATEAU ITEMS</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
B1.1.	Promotions are limited at the university due the university's structure.					
B2.1.	Promotional opportunities have been limited at the university.					
B3.1.	I am advancing in my academic career.					
B4.2	I know everything about my academic job.					
B5.2	My academic job is challenging.					
B6.2	My academic job has remained the same over time.					
B7.3	I am technically current and updated in my academic skills through seminars and extra training.					
B8.3	My job skills are transferable to other institutions of higher learning.					

	<b>CAREER PLATEAU ITEMS</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>
B9.3	I am constantly learning new things on my job.					
B10.3	I like the contents of my job.					
B11.4	I opt not to advance at the university due to family considerations.					
B12.4	I do not desire promotion because of additional responsibilities.					
B13.4	I choose not to advance at the university in order to avoid relocating to another UKZN campus site.					

**ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:**

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**SECTION C: CAREER STAGES**

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR LEVEL OF CONCERN WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS RELATING TO YOUR CAREER AS AN ACADEMIC. PLEASE SELECT (TICK) YOUR RESPONSES USING THE FOLLOWING SCALE:

- 1. No concern                      **NC**
- 2. Slight concern                **SC**
- 3. Neutral                            **N**
- 4. Concern                            **C**
- 5. Great concern                  **GC**

	<b>CAREER STAGE ITEMS</b>	<b>NC</b>	<b>SC</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>GC</b>
1.	Finding the line of work I am best suited for.					
2.	Clarifying my ideas about the type of work I would really enjoy.					
3.	Making sure of my academic occupational choice.					
4.	Identifying the skills required for this academic job that interests me.					
5.	Choosing a job (in academia) that will really satisfy me.					
6.	Choosing the most challenging job among those that interest me.					
7.	Making specific plans to achieve my current academic career goals.					

	<b>CAREER STAGE ITEMS</b>	<b>NC</b>	<b>SC</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>GC</b>
8.	Settling down in a job (academia) I can stay with.					
9.	Achieving stability in my academic occupation.					
10.	Doing things to help me stay in the academic field in which I have started.					
11.	Getting established in my academic work, profession/ occupation.					
12.	Improving my chance of advancement in my current academic occupation.					
13.	Developing a reputation in my academic line of work.					
14.	Advancing to a more responsible position in academia.					
15.	Maintaining the academic occupational position I have achieved.					
16.	Adapting to changes introduced since I got established in my academic occupation.					
17.	Developing new skills to cope with changes in my academic field.					
18.	Developing new knowledge and/or skills to help me improve in my academic work.					

	<b>CAREER STAGE ITEMS</b>	<b>NC</b>	<b>SC</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>GC</b>
19.	Finding out about new opportunities as my academic field changes.					
20.	Keeping up with new knowledge equipment and/ or methods in my academic field.					
21.	Getting academic refresher training to keep up.					
22.	Getting to know important people in my academic field.					
23.	Developing easier ways of doing my academic work.					
24.	Having a good life in retirement.					
25.	Doing things I have always wanted to do but never had time for.					
26.	Developing more hobbies to supplement academic work interests.					
27.	Avoiding academic occupational pressures I formerly handled more easily.					
28.	Cutting down on my academic working hours.					

**ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:**

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**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE**

## ANNEXURE 7

### INFORMED CONSENT FOR INTERVIEWS

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL  
SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION AND GOVERNANCE**

Dear Respondent,

**Researcher:** Ms A. Ramsaroop (031- 260 7674)

**Supervisor:** Prof. M Subban (031 – 260 7763)

Research Office: Ms. P Ximba (031 260 3587)

I, **MS A RAMSAROOP**, am a **PhD** student, at the **SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND GOVERNANCE**, of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled: **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER PLATEAUS AND THE CAREER STAGES OF UKZN ACADEMICS**. The aim of this study is to:

- Conduct a literature review on career plateaus and career stages
- To establish the career plateau status of the participants in terms of structural/hierarchical , content/ job content, personal, professional and life plateauing.
- To ascertain the career stage of the participants in terms of exploration, establishment, maintenance, and the disengagement stage.
- To find out if there is a statistically significant relationship between career plateaus and career stages
- To determine whether the variance in career stages is due to the career plateau status
- To examine the biographical variables (age, marital status, job status, tenure, race, gender, education level) on the career plateau status and career stages respectively
- To make recommendations.

Through your participation I hope to understand the impact of these variables on each other. The results of the survey are intended to contribute to a more conducive environment for academics by identifying the challenges (plateaus) faced at each level (career stages) of their work life.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the interview at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this interview. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the **SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND GOVERNANCE, UKZN**.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the interview or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The interview should take you about **10** minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to participate in this interview.

Sincerely,

Investigator's signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

**CONSENT**

I.....(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

**I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.**

**I hereby consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded**

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

## ANNEXURE 8

### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

**NAME:**

**CAMPUS:**

#### **1. CAREER PLATEAU**

- ✚ What is your understanding of the concept “career plateau”?
- ✚ What would you say are the types of plateaus your subordinates are experiencing?
- ✚ What in your opinion are the underlying factors contributing to career plateaus?
- ✚ What measures are being instituted by your school/ the university in providing support for the different types of plateauing?

#### **2. CAREER STAGES**

- ✚ What is your understanding of “career stages”?
- ✚ Employees generally progress through 3 age related stages: early adulthood (early 20’s); middle adulthood (late 20’s to 40’s) and pre-retirement (50 and over). What stage would you identify as the one most influenced by the career plateau phenomena?
- ✚ To what extent do you view your subordinates career and related needs changing over time?
- ✚ How is the School/university providing support/assisting those who are experiencing challenges at different stages of their careers?
- ✚ Have subordinates re-evaluated their careers at any career stage?

**END OF INTERVIEW**



## ANNEXURE 10

### CORRELATIONS BY DIMENSIONS

		Correlations							
		Hierarchical/Structural	Content	Job skills	Personal	Exploration	Establishment	Maintenance	Disengagement
Spearman'	Hierarchical/Structural	Correlation	1.000						
		Sig. (2-tailed)							
		N	252						
	Content	Correlation	.169**	1.000					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.007						
		N	252	253					
	Job skills	Correlation	0.101	.128*	1.000				
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.111	0.041					
		N	252	253	253				
	Personal	Correlation	-0.040	-0.117	-.268**	1.000			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.533	0.064	0.000				
		N	250	251	251	251			
	Exploration	Correlation	0.053	0.100	-0.116	-0.064	1.000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.405	0.112	0.066	0.316			
		N	250	251	251	249	251		
	Establishment	Correlation	0.090	0.123	0.038	-0.019	.658**	1.000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.154	0.051	0.545	0.768	0.000		
		N	250	251	251	249	251	251	
	Maintenance	Correlation	.144*	0.064	-0.002	-0.112	.636**	.632**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.023	0.312	0.971	0.078	0.000	0.000	
	N	250	251	251	249	251	251	251	
Disengagement	Correlation	.188**	.167**	-0.064	0.069	.308**	.387**	.334**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.008	0.312	0.277	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	248	249	249	248	249	249	249	249

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).