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The impact of certain life circumstances on the work values of grade eleven pupils

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Chapter Two

Values and their Development

2.1) Values defined

The definitions of values are diverse and extensive. Although the concept of values has been the focus of many studies throughout the years (Kohn, 1977; Davis & Harrison, 1975; Super, 1957 and others) there is no one agreed upon definition of this construct. The latter has resulted in values being confused with other constructs such as attitudes and interests. Attitudes usually revolve around one's emotional attachment to social objects such as political matters and interests relate to more specific aspects. Values are, at times, simply referred to as one's needs. (Langley, 1995a).

The concept of values may be understood in theory but, as with other constructs such as motivation, are not directly observable. Values are deemed to be more concrete and quantifiable if they are observed through the pursuance and achievement of needs and goals. The pursuance and realisation of these goals may be a culmination of certain preferences developed from one's innate beliefs, attitudes and opinions. (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). People develop conceptions of what are desirable goals based on criteria and standards that are implemented for making choices and decisions. The latter are generally the result of both situational and personal conceptions. (Kohn, 1977).

Schwartz (1990, p.8) provides a useful operational definition of the concept of values:

> "Values are principles or criteria for selecting what is good (or better or best) among objects, actions, ways of life, and social and political institutions and structures. Values operate at the level of individuals, of institutions and entire societies".

to see if the adolescents that will be the future work force in a few years have the orientations that are deemed to be conducive with efficient management of people and resources. In the United States of America one of the dominant value orientations is individualism which leads to a higher evaluation of the occupational world by it's citizens (Kluckohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). Thus, the emphasis is on technology, business and economic affairs (Ibid.). Nations that foster institutions that promote independence (such as widespread education, democratic political structures and non-routine decision making) are thought to generally promote self direction in it's citizens (Schwartz, 1994). People that are not instilled with ideals of self direction and are more conformist in their actions have been argued to not be sufficiently prepared for professional or middle class life (Kohn, 1977).

Values have been studied extensively but of interest in this study is the orientations that adolescents have who have not as yet begun their careers and are amongst the first era of youth that will experience education and job opportunities in a more democratic South Africa. In previous years certain segments of the population were forced into segregated societies and discriminated against. At present the country is slowly reforming and venturing into the uncharted territory of democracy in a once completely oppressive society.

In the following review, of interest will be the socialisation of the individual and the influential agents that could account for differences in peoples work values. The concept of motivation is relevant in that it assists in the explanation as to how one's behaviour is directed in an active fashion to satisfy one's work values. Finally, how work and the meaning of it may become an arena for value attainment will be discussed.

One possibility is attempting to capture the values people hope to achieve in their future work. The study of values has been done for several reasons including the attempt at determining what the meaning of work is in the life of an individual (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). The differences in meaning that people attach to work are thought to be the reason why people may place less or greater value on certain work rewards (Ibid.) such as creativity, economic security, achievement and others. The different meanings attached to work are often the result of several interrelated causes such as circumstances of the individual in the formative years initially influenced by socialisation and the assimilation by institutions in the greater society that may counter act these differences in later years (Ibid.).

In the past people needed to work for purposes of survival now this has, to an extent, changed and the work activity may have become more than simply a means to an end (Zytowski, 1968). By capturing what people value it may be possible to determine what they would regard to be aspects that would lend to the satisfaction within the job activity.

1.2) Aims

People may regard work as a way to satisfy one's needs (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995) which may include both intrinsic and extrinsic requirements. Intrinsic needs are those that revolve around the job itself and may be achieved if the work is interesting, challenging or offers the opportunity for personal growth (Andrisani & Miljus, 1977). A person with extrinsic need orientations works for rewards external to themselves and the job itself has little or no meaning (Ibid.). By determining what needs a pupil hopes to satisfy in their future career it is thought that a more comprehensive description of the meaning of the work activity may be developed.

One of the aims of this research is to determine what grade eleven pupils value in their future careers. Grade eleven pupils are close to the point where they will be required to decide which path they will take as far as their career is concerned. It will be interesting

Chapter One

Introduction and Aims

1.1) Introduction

Semler (1994, p. 51) speaks about a business parable he once heard:

> 'Three stone cutters who were asked about their jobs. The first said he was paid to cut stones. The second replied that he used special techniques to shape stones in an exceptional way, and proceeded to demonstrate his skills. The third stone cutter just smiled and said: 'I build cathedrals'.

The first stone cutter seems to only have an economic motive, the second has pride in his work and skills but the third envisions prestige and grandeur in a job that many may regard as void of personal satisfactions. The point being made is that people not only develop differing perceptions about work but also the meanings that it may have. The question is why would the same job encompass several completely disparate feelings, goals and aspirations to different people?

Jobs tend to be classified into having the potential for more than simple extrinsic satisfactions or not. In the stone cutter parable it is not how society classifies the job that restricts the intrinsic benefits the person may acquire but rather the person themselves. In other words the job itself could be alienating and seemingly devoid of meaning and it is the end result, such as supporting a family or contributing to the larger community, that lends to feelings of personal development and prestige. In the case of the third stone cutter it was the meaning that he managed to gain from his job that lent to the satisfaction of needs beyond that which were external to him. The question now lies in how differing perceptions and meanings about work may best be captured?

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ABSTRACT

Work values have been the focus of many studies but there has been little insight given into how people prioritise these values, what they base them on and in what way they hope to achieve them. The present study made use of a values questionnaire standardised specifically for the unique population inhabiting South Africa namely the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). The study was performed in seven schools and consisted of 356 pupils 158 of which were male and 163 female. Demographic variables that were used to depict differing life circumstances of pupils included socio-economic status, gender, race, language, the type of school attended and residence (i.e. if the pupil lived with both parents or some one else). Socio-economic status was measured by means of several variables which resulted in a composite measure. Statistical analysis made use of ANOVA's and a principle component analysis. Results of the principle components analysis indicated that the 22 values in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) could be condensed into five factors which were labeled; Intrinsic, Collectivistic; Individualistic; Social and Extrinsic values. Significant differences occurred on both the original 22 values and the alternate factors between the different socio-economic status groups, genders, languages, race and school groups. Intrinsic and extrinsic values were found to be orthogonal and not dichotomous in nature and the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) was found to be a useful instrument with high reliability scores and ability to discriminate between groups.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own work. It is submitted for the degree of Masters of Arts at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before or for any other degree or examination in any other university.

Brebnor

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The Impact of Certain Life Circumstances on the Work Values of Grade Eleven Pupils

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Thus a career choice is a combination of a person's earlier ideas as to what was acceptable in their gender and socio-economic status (SES) groups and what is now available (Gottfredson, 1981). Gottfredson (1981) states that differences in occupational preferences are largely a result of differences in gender, SES, race, geographical positioning and other personal and social attributes.

2.4.3) The Needs Theories

Roe's (1956) needs theory states that in order to determine the importance of an occupation in a person's life one should acquaint themselves with an understanding of their needs. Work is thought to be not only a way to make a living but also provides the chance to fulfill other needs. These needs may be based on the motivational theories. Roe (1956) stated that early experiences within the family environment have an influential effect on one's vocational choice. The development of one's interests and needs, that relate to vocational choices, are thought to be related to early life experiences. Roe (1956) only tended to view one aspect of early family experience in which parent-child interactions occurred, namely family atmosphere. In other words, children coming from protective environments are likely to join a service occupation, as an example. Powell (1969) tried to determine the validity of Roe's (1956) study and found it to be limited. Firstly, careers were generally misclassified and secondly, family atmosphere was not adequately described. Switzer, Grigg, Miller & Young (1969), also failed to confirm Roe's (1956) hypotheses and suggested an extension was required to determine perceived differences between the two parents. They extended the study and found that the strength of difference between attitudes of parents was predictive of one's occupational choice. The latter study itself was limited as only a small sample of male students participated.

2.4.4) Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory initially was concerned with how people learn from other people. This became to be known as modeling which is involved with people imitating other

(Wright & Wright, 1976). These values are passed on to their children by means of socialisation which provides them with the skills to remain in that segment of the social strata (Ibid.). Differences in parental values and child rearing practices influence the development of abilities needed to cope with problems and conditions of change. Conformist values of working class are deemed to be inappropriate for preparing children for professional or middle class life. In other words, conformism is inflexible and the development of analytic and empathetic abilities may be hindered. (Kohn, 1977).

The family has been cited as the one cause of the perpetuation of inequality as they may, by instilling conformist ideals, not equip children with the necessary skills to deal with jobs requiring responsibility and the initiation of change (Kohn, 1977). This perpetuation of inequality may be counteracted by certain institutions such as schools, but the effect has been said not to be great (Ibid.). Schools have even been accused to be an extension of the perpetuation of inequality (Willis, 1977).

As with the other developmental theories the individual is said to develop certain concepts at various points in their lives (Gottfredson, 1981). An important stage is that of gender self-conception which develops around the age 6 to 8 where the child learns the appropriate orientation to various sex roles (Ibid.). Social learning theory may account for the development of such self-concepts (Krumboltz et al. 1979). The next stage is that of orientating one-self to their social class and becoming more aware of social expectations and appropriate behaviour (Gottfredson, 1981). This is followed by the stage when the individual, around 14 years of age, develops an internal orientation to their unique self (Ibid.). This is often referred to as the adolescent identity crisis. At this time, owing to a number of influences such as gender and socio-economic status group, the child begins to rule out totally unacceptable occupational alternatives. It is only in the adolescent period that the individual will look to their more personal interests, abilities and values to reduce occupational choices.

accessibility may be a result of the person's own judgments or could be based on realism. (Gottfredson, 1981).

Following on from the latter, children often develop work values as a result of specific judgments they make about work and their potential place therein. Work values may develop according to one's feelings and perceptions of attainability of those values in subsequent work settings. Realisation of work values are restricted by circumstances which may hinder the attainment of them. In higher SES groups, extrinsic values are expected and taken for granted which opens up the path for the pursuance of more intrinsic values. In lower SES groups the satisfaction of extrinsic values is often difficult enough. (Kohn, 1977).

Other barriers exist in the development of values that aim to achieve the rewards and satisfactions awarded by mental labor. Capitalism needs there to be a split between the majority of people who perform manual labor and the minority who use mental skills, this does not explain *why* the split occurs. People in lower SES groups may want to have intrinsic values but the realisation of them could seem hopeless. They are restricted by resources, opportunities (educational; knowledge of self, family and other role models) and the work that they can actually get or are doing (i.e. there may be no room for intrinsic meaning in their work). (Willis, 1977).

The latter is related to Gottfredson's (1981) concept of social space which encompasses the range of occupations that the individual may regard as acceptable according to their view of where they fit in society. It refers to the kind of individual they would like to be in the eyes of their family, peers and the larger society (Ibid.). This could be paralleled with a concept known as the perpetuation of inequality whereby a person's parents consciously or not impart to their children experiences they have had in their class position preparing them for a similar class position (Kohn, 1977). Parents in different sections of the social strata are said to develop values (cultural values, political orientations and others) that are regarded as being consistent with one's social position

situation. Work, for most people, not only fills their time but may give them a sense of purpose. Work also provided the person with a fixed position in society and an outlet for various life experiences. (Friedman & Havinghurst, 1954). Friedman & Havinghurst (1954) found that people who saw work as a means to an end throughout their working lives are more likely to adjust to retirement more readily than the individual who found intrinsic meaning in their work.

Tiedeman (1968) regards the development of a career choice and values to be a continuous process whereby the individual continually adjusts to the situation that they find themselves in. Decisions are made in relation to school, work and their lives in general (Ibid.). Decisions are thus made from a cognitive stand point where all features of the individual and their circumstances are assimilated in order to reach a final decision.

Finally, Gottfredson's (1981) conscription and compromise developmental theory is interested in the development of vocational aspirations. This theory is based on the development of the individuals self-concept which is important in the development of a career choice. It warns that there has been too narrow a focus on the development of a self-concept in the later adolescent years although self-concept is noted to develop earlier. Important correlates with the development of career decisions that are emphasised in this theory are a person's social class, gender and intelligence which helps to identify how and why people may make compromises. Social systems surrounding the individual are said to be influential in the development of a self-concept which is defined as 'one's view of one-self, one's view of who one is and who one is not' (Gottfredson, 1981, p.546-547). People are not always conscious of their self-concept but their behaviour is a reflection of their beliefs about themselves. The self-concept includes their social self and psychological attributes and is made up of various elements including gender, social class background, intelligence and vocational interests, abilities and values. Occupational preferences are likely to be very correlated to the person's sense of self and if the occupation seems compatible it will be highly valued. Although an occupation seems compatible with the person's sense of self it still may not be acceptable. Restrictions as to

one's parents and included grand-parents, siblings, uncles, aunts and cousins among others. Thus, the concept of familisation is extended beyond the limited interaction between parent-child only (Holland 1970). Kinnane & Pable (1962) found support that family influences are very important in the development of the child's work values. Parents thus have different values for their children, both work and life, as a result of different occupational, educational and financial circumstances. From experiences in the working world, parents views and social reality are structured. (Kohn, 1977).

In South Africa, Super's (1957) exploratory stage may be hindered by the breakdown of family structures especially in Black communities (Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994). This breakdown of family structures may be a result of wider societal influences such as enforced social changes which has a negative influence on the youth of South Africa (Ibid.). Reynolds (1993, cited in Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994) stated that families are the social units that are imperative in the security of youth especially those younger than 20 years of age. Family units are susceptible to aspects such as political changes, divorce and migratory labour (Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994). In South African the extended family system tends to alleviate the negative effects of disrupted families especially amongst Blacks and Asians (Amoateng & Kalule-Sabiti, 1993, cited in Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994).

Following from the exploratory stage is the next step of establishment where a compromise may occur between ones values and needs when further responsibilities are placed on the individual (Super, 1957). For example if a person finds themselves in circumstances where they can not continue their education, in order to satisfy needs, this compromise may result. The following stage is maintenance and continual adjustment is required to the work situation. Finally, the decline stage includes pre-retirement and retirement and the individual may fully realise the meaning that work has in their lives when they experience it's absence. (Super, 1957). Retirement means more than lost hours and production as it has an effect on the individual. Work is specifically seen to have other values besides economic ones when one finds themselves in the retirement

and could end in a compromise. The reason for the latter is that there is a high cost of education, for example, and factors surrounding the individual may cause them to limit there decisions (such as availability of jobs and opportunities). (Ibid.).This theory may be regarded as a limited general theory as it has been cited as not being totally applicable to lower income groups (Theron, 1991).

Super's (1957) developmental theory states that individuals progress through several life career stages. The first being the growth stage that starts at birth and ends at approximately 14. During this time a person develops needs and interests in connection with the potential career that they may one day enter. Stages of development of the child include protaxic experience of the child's first year when they only remember flashes of awareness and parataxic experiences allow for observation of parts of expe s within the whole. The latter are said to be affective as opposed to cognitive. (Holland, 1970).

The exploratory stage occurs from about 15 to 24 and is characterized by the experiencing of new roles, situations and activities (Super, 1957). The exploratory phase has been questioned as for the female adolescent it could be deemed to be 'pseudoexploration' which may be influenced by the possibility of marriage and other responsibilities (Osipow, 1975; cited in Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). Kohn (1977, p.73) states 'implicit in parents values for their children are values for themselves'. During the early and middle stages, at least, parents tend to be the main worker models from whom children begin to internalise work values which may have subtle influences on their occupational and educational decisions (Wijting et al, 1978; Goodale & Hall, 1976). Communication of work values is usually informal through the medium of conversations pertaining to aspects such as job experiences and worker habits (Wijting et al, 1978). Parents work values have been said to have the most subtle influence on children's occupational and educational decisions (Goodale & Hall, 1976). In the home are several role models, to instill these norms, as well as the opportunity for role playing. The family is a way that children can interact with various role models who have their own values, attitudes and feelings. (Super, 1957). A family constitutes role models beyond that of

be influenced by several contributory forces such as the person's dominant care takers or family, societal circumstances and institutional influences (Kohn, 1977).

2.4) Theories of Vocational or Work Value Development

There are several theories that explain the manner in which one arrives at a career decision. These theories include the trait and factor theory (Zunker, 1990), developmental theories (Super, 1957; Tiedeman, 1968; Gottfredson, 1981), needs theories (Roe, 1956) and behavioral theories (Krumboltz, Becker-Haven & Burnette, 1979).

2.4.1) The Trait and Factor Theory

The trait and factor theory assumes that individuals have unique abilities which could be transferred to various kinds of work (Zunker, 1990). These unique abilities are called 'traits' which are defined by Guilford (1959; cited in Gregory, 1996, p.505) as 'any relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another'. This theory is limited to a degree as it maintains that there is only one kind of job for each person (Zunker, 1990).

2.4.2) The Developmental Theories

The developmental theories usually state that the career decision develops over a period of several years and some state that they could end with a compromise between values interests, capacities and choices (Ginzberg et al. 1951; cited in Zunker, 1990). Ginzberg et al's. (1951; cited in Zunker, 1990) theory relates occupational choice and the development of the person to three life stages the first beginning with the fantasy stage at about 6 to 11 The next stage is where a tentative choice may be made based on only limited experiences within family settings and certain institutional settings and occurs at about 11 to 16. The final stage is when a more realistic occupational choice may be made and occurs from 16 onwards. They go on to say that career choice is largely irreversible

Socialisation occurs at different times in a persons life and the circumstances in which they may occur are dynamic and differ from one individual to the next. The family and initial life circumstances could lend to the differences between values but are said to be counteracted to an extent by various institutions such as schools, religious bodies and cultural groups (Andrisani & Miljus, 1977).

One of the major socialising agents is the family as individuals move from childhood, to adolescence and finally to adulthood (Van Zyl Slabbert, Malan, Oliver, & Riordan, 1994). A related concept to socialisation is familisation whereby family members develop a meaning which is relevant to the family as a group and the individuals in it (Holland, 1970).

The influence of family may explain why work values seem to develop in the years before any educational and vocational programs are initiated into schools (Thomas, 1974). Occupational choice, as mentioned previously, develops over a period of several years. Throughout this development phase many influential variables effect decisions including the environment (political and other), school, peers and the child's relationship with these variables. Peers could assist in the development of feelings about one self and subsequently a career choice. The teachers within a school, when learning about work values of pupils, could establish an attitude towards the pupils which may effect their academic performance and subject choice. Socialisation in the school setting, as far as work values are concerned, may lend to the changing or development of a career decision. (Thomas, 1974).

Religious institutions and cultural institutions may also cause variations between different groups but similarities between people within those groups (Kluckhon & Strodtbeck, 1961).

At various points in peoples lives there are thought to be transitions in value development (Ginzberg, Ginsberg, Axelrad & Herma, 1951; cited in Zunker, 1990). These points may

the individual places on any of the various types of outcomes and with the attainment of the valued outcomes, satisfaction may result. (Ibid). The individual will naturally be attracted to the outcomes that are seemingly most congruent with what they value in a career.

Another distinguishing feature of work values is that they are a hierarchical prioritisation of the aspects encompassing work or the work itself that a person may find motivating (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Questions that are pertinent to address are how are values attained, when and who or what may influence this process? These questions will be discussed from both a theoretical and empirical perspective.

2.3) Socialisation and the Development of Value Hierarchies

Work values develop as a result of the interactions between various socialisation agents by providing experiences in the family, institutions (such as school and religious organisations) and work (Wijting, Arnold & Conrad, 1978). Socialisation is when a person learns the knowledge, values, ability to communicate, social abilities and sensitivity that equips them with the necessary skills to interact effectively with and adapt to the encompassing society (Reber, 1985). Although socialisation is actually a life long process, it is generally associated with a child's early assimilation of societal values and norms (Ibid.). People learn to participate at various levels of society by mimicking various reference group systems (Parsons, 1959; cited in Holland, 1970). Social learning theory is heavily infiltrated with the concept of children mimicking referent's behavior and forming a concept of self, based on modeling of behavior of others around them (Reber, 1985). Socialisation may also be viewed from the individual's perspective in that they are given the equipment to actualise their potential in the social situation (Holland, 1970). The latter 'social situation' obviously differs for various people owing to their particular set of circumstances.

Leong & Tara (1990), in a review of the literature, stated that work values and the way people prioritise these values has a guiding influence on vocational choice. A disparity often lies in the fact that one's implicitly stated importance of values does not correspond with the explicit importance, as people are not sure what they are basing their values or preferences on. There is often a gap between setting value priorities and the use of these priorities in the evaluation of alternatives. (Cochran, 1983). In other words an individual may not have the luxury of selecting a job on the basis of their values owing to other contributory factors such as high unemployment or limited educational achievements.

Another reason for the emphasis on work values is that they may be an indication of why people actually work (Harpaz, 1985). Work values have been categorized within certain domains or facets (*Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Beck, 1991; Harpaz, 1985*). The domains include the general valued outcomes sort from working (e.g. income, occupation of time, interesting activities,) and the importance of various goals or aspects of working (e.g. interpersonal relationships, good pay, autonomy). Elizur et al. (1991) regarded work values to comprise two facets namely modality of outcomes and systems-performance contingency. Modality of outcomes is made up of material, affective and cognitive outcomes sort from work. Material outcomes are also referred to as instrumental but not as in the motivational literature but rather the external nature of outcomes (such as pay, working conditions). Affective outcomes are those that are not salient but are still achieved externally such as interpersonal relations. Finally, cognitive outcomes are the internal modality of outcomes and include aspects such as achievement, responsibility and independence. (Ibid.).

The second domain suggested by Elizur et al. (1991), system-performance contingency, is the use of certain motivating aspects utilized by the organisation to attract employees, keep employees and get them to perform. Resource system-performance contingency's are features of the job used to attract the employee prior to any work being done such as good working conditions. Rewards are not contingent upon one's behavior and include aspects like recognition, status and pay. Work values are the degree of importance that

1985). Our most dominant values or needs effect the choices we make in life. Choices we make in life include those of vocational decisions. (Baier & Rescher, 1969).

2.2) The Concept of Work Values

The focus of this review will be on work values which have been referred to as an extension of more general values. People have differing subsets of what they value and work values are the needs they are able to satisfy in the context of work. Work values are an extension of more general values and needs which, if are not satisfied in the work role, may be pursued in other life roles. (Carter, Gushue & Weitzman, 1994). People may find that work provides them with the opportunity or situation in which certain needs or motives may be fulfilled (Brender, 1969). Work values have even been described as the 'goals that motivate men to work' (Thomas, 1974, p.357). Unfortunately the attainment of certain values in the work context may be achieved at the expense of other values (Fallding, 1965), for example, economic rewards at the expense of altruism. Another limitation on the expression or attainment of a person's work values is that not all work offers the opportunities for their achievement (Fallding, 1965).

The concept of work values is often developed on a theory of needs and interests, where interests are used to predict occupational entry and needs are used to determine job satisfaction (Davis & Harrison, 1975). With the attainment of one's dominant values job satisfaction may follow, but it has been said that the dissatisfied person is likely to be dissatisfied with all conditions of life including work (Ibid.). Values do, however, provide an indication of one's emotions, satisfaction's with and behaviors at work (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). People may perceive certain aspects of the job to be conducive with the satisfaction of certain of their needs and a way to achieve goals (Paine, Deutch & Smith, 1967). Values, needs, preferences, work ethic and work orientation are strongly related but have been argued to not be interchangeable. They are related and follow on from one another as they indicate the relationship the individual has with work. (Pryor, 1982).

Thus, the values people hold are important predictors of their behavior and the choices they make (Baier & Rescher, 1969). Super (1968) regards values to be objectives that underlie the pursuance of a need. Thus values could be said to be the independent variable directing, guiding and channeling the dependent variable of behavior (Kluckhon & Strodtbeck, 1961). One's behaviour is thought to be predicted by value systems that are cued by the situation in other words, one may express their dominant values in the context of the situation (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987).

The development of a value hierarchy may be governed by the situation as well as other contributory forces. Values are regarded, by some authors, as being trans-situational and are based on the universal requirements of biological needs, social interaction and social institutional demands (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Ones perception of attainability and energy to be expended all contributes to the develop ment : patterned preferences (Catton, 1959; Fallding, 1965). Repeated choices between conflicting values eventually results in a value priority structure (Burgess, Schwartz & Blackwell, 1994). This value structure is a possible indication of the reason why people behave in certain ways and pursue certain activities over others. The latter is operationalised in Williams (1979, p. 16) definition of values which he regards to be 'interests, pleasures, likes, preferences, duties, moral obligations, desires, wants, goals, needs, aversions and attractions, and many other kinds of selective orientations'. Basically the latter states all of the terms that formulate the meaning of values to be standards of preference of an individual (Ibid.).

Values are not only made at the individual level but are also a result of group forces. In the course of human interactions natural groupings develop which leads to the emergence of normative orientations regarded as desirable by that group. Such normative standards, which ultimately represent required and desirable behaviour, varies considerably from society to society. Williams, 1979).

Therefore, values may be described as the needs one has that may be satisfied by the underlying qualities or property of something which subsequently makes it useful (Reber,

choices effect entry to tertiary education and the possibility of career choice. Subject choices could be the crystallisation of values determined by previous life circumstances (Krau, 1987).

Grade eleven and grade twelve could reflect a specific point in adolescents development phase as school influence lessens and contact with the work environment increases (Krau, 1987). School also provides contact with peers of the same or close ages and their potential influence on work values is a point of interest.

2.5.5) Peer Effects

A peer group was defined by Reber (1985, p. 525) as 'any group that several members of which have roughly equal status within the confines and functions of the group'. Accompanying a school's norms interactions with children or peers from differing SES groups can lead to values that may supersede those of the families that developed in the earlier years (Theron, 1991). The latter may be a good or a bad thing as the individual may develop values and aspire to higher-level occupations that are above ..eir abilities or limited by circumstances (Ibid.).

Peer groups have not been regarded as an independent influence on the work values of adolescents. Adolescents are exposed to different experiences of working life from family, mass media, school and others, and peer groups simply relay these ideals. This is obvious because they can not explain or contribute to what work can accomplish and how. (Krau, 1987).

In Willis's (1977) study of the Hammertown 'lads' he describes how peer groups can generate what is called a 'counter-school' culture. School is perceived as encompassing the 'them' and the 'us' and is basically a rejection of school and individualism. Basically, rejection of individualism, could be a rejection of mental activity in general preparing the

From the above it may be concluded that in South Africa, schools have been arenas for a lot more than simply preparing children for future work. The question is whether schools have the capacity to have an effect on the development of one's future work values?

Kohn (1977) maintained that education is a means for educational flexibility coupled with ability for one's own opinion essential for self directed values and orientations. Education is an essential determinant of one's future job and the transmission of values and behaviour appropriate for the job setting (Kohn, 1977). A social institution such as a school, encompasses individual values and, in the normal functioning of an institution, the chance to fulfill roles. This may encourage behaviour that expresses values and creates the circumstances for continued expression of these values. (Schwartz, 1990). In South Africa the latter was denied to any child who was not White. In other words, values expressed can be constrained by social institutions and order in which the person lives (Schwartz, 1990). This was the atrocity of South African schools and the encompassing political climate.

Education has a socialisation function and thus educational attainment is expected to be positively related to intrinsic preferences (Andrisani & Miljus, 1977). In Krau's (1987) study he concluded that school is the major agent in the transmitting of the principle content of work values to adolescents. By 'principle content' he means 'fundamental dimensions of work needs, both intrinsic and extrinsic' (Krau, 1987, p.105).

Super (1980; cited in Watson & Stead, 1994) says that certain points in the educational system are premature, forced career decisions and that stages are age related and differ according to SES and educational opportunities. SES, culture and school system effect the career decidedness of adolescents in the opinions of some authors (Watson & Stead, 1994). Grade eleven is an important point in South African schools as there is more urgency to make a career choice. Pupils may be required to make the decision to down grade their subject choices from higher grade to standard or even functional grade (Watson & Stead, 1994). Watson & Stead (1990) stated that subject or subject grade

Another oppressive aspect of the South African educational system was that it was completely westernised in origin and did not take into account a single aspect from African heritage (Thembela, 1989). Maphalele (1977, p.17; cited in Thembela, 1989, p.60) has criticized *all* types of schools for ignoring of African culture:

> 'there is the problem of culture as a context for education, which in turn is expected to redefine cultural imperatives. Independent multi-racial schools dominated by White proprietorship and a state curriculum are a stop gap in the present crisis...'

Some Black children were sent to private schools to receive a better education than they would in the governmental schools. These children were unfortunately required to adapt their attitudes, behaviour patterns and values systems to that of an essentially 'White' school (Thembela, 1989). Education needed to recognize and develop the potential of all people in South Africa (Thembela, 1989) and do so in a way that their heritage was not denied.

The June 1976 uprisings were the attempt to destroy the oppressive educational system that denied people the right to their own heritage (Thembela, 1989) and expression of skills and talents. The aim, as Mr. Mazibuko put it in an interview in the Star (1997, p.6), was to bring 'education into more chaos' (Moyo, 1997). He admits that this may have been a miscalculation and these have been costly. Children in township schools find learning incidental and these same schools are now in a crisis. He goes on to say that we must not forget the aim of the initial struggle which was 'a good education for everyone in this country. That should be the new phase of the education struggle'. Children are told that if they attend school and work hard they will get a better job but they see their brother making easy money by pointing a gun. He emphasizes that freedom is responsibility and everything else is second to that.

whereby pupils have the opportunity to realize values. (Rokeach, 1979). Rokeach (1979) believed that schools are too neutral in value transmission and should play a role in value inculcation which, theoretically, would lead to greater self-awareness through the comparison with others. Owing to the advent of the 'Bantu' educational system in South Africa (Mazibuko, 1979) values were instilled in Black pupils that had an agenda of the continuation of inequality between Blacks and Whites.

The proposals for the 'Bantu education' both at the time of Verwoerd and after him, advocated a separate system of education for the Blacks of South Africa (Mazibuko, 1979). The reason for this was to reserve the activities, jobs, pleasures and responsibilities that were the 'right' of the White South African. Under the apartheid government the goal was to have an educational system where the Black child began at a disadvantage and remained there throughout their education. In South Africa, 'Bantu education' insured that Black pupils would leave school and fulfill the role of the manual labourer, it was emphasized that in the 'White' South Africa they would never be accepted as anything more. (Mazibuko, 1979).

The initial planning of 'Bantu education' was effected with macabre 'sincerity' with regards to what it aimed to achieve (Mazibuko, 1979). Such sentiments were echoed in statements made by people such as Dr. Verwoerd in parliament:

> 'I just want to remind the honorable members that if the natives today in any kind of school is being taught to expect that he will live his adult life under the policy of equal rights, he is making a big mistake'
> (Cited in Mazibuko, 1979, p.52).

psychological support (Cross & Clarke, 1994). Some churches in this country have had a history of authoritarism and by trying to remain politically neutral may have caused alienation of some youth from the church (Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994). The latter results in these churches stressing conservative values with regards to the family and authority which does not equip the youth with life skills related to the practice of religion. A problem with regards to religion in South Africa is that youth are often unaware of their peers culture and beliefs which could lead to political intolerance. (Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994).

The importance that religion plays in work values is apparent in the history of religious involvement the development of the concept of work. Religious views of work provide invaluable insight into the present day meaning of work. In the early years Christians and Hebrews regarded work to be forced upon them because of original sin and the only way to receive redemption (Tilgher, 1962). The Protestants followed on with their concepts as work being a penance to guard against laziness (Joyce, 1987). The latter resulted in what is termed the Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) which stated that work was a religious obligation and that idleness was a sin (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). In fact it was noted that there was a definite link between the PWE and capitalism (Weber, 1922; cited in Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). Religion has seemingly always played a role in the world of work and could effect the values that people hope to find in the world of work

2.5.4) The School and the Development of Values

Moller (1994, p.389) stated 'the family lays the foundation on which education can build'. This brings one to the next aspect of work value development, the effect of the wider society.

Schools are regarded as institutions that are frameworks for the transmission of values. Schools are supposed to have an educational mission of improving subsets of educational values. They also provide the mechanisms, like the teaching of knowledge and skills,

Scale (Langley, 1995a) as one of it's data gathering instruments, were that racial identity was positively related to economic security, advancement, economic rewards, prestige, cultural identity, achievement and authority and negatively related to altruism and autonomy.

The concept of race involves more facets than are generally used in the study of it's effe.. of work values. Race as a demographic variable has, however, indicated some interesting influences on work values (Davis & Harrison, 1975; Kohn, 1977). By viewing the Central Statistical Services (1995) census it was found that in South Africa race is often strongly correlated with religious denominations.

2.5.3) Religion and Differences in Work values

Religion is a social variable that is related to values people have and their value orientations (Kohn, 1977). When religion has been used as a correlate with values it has been defined in two ways what the religion is and how people practice that religion (Ibid.). In Kohn's (1977) study it was found that people in higher SES value self-direction and not conformity to authority irrespective of their religious background or practices.

The Central Statistical Services (CSS, 1995) found there to be 35 distinguishable churches and religions operating in South Africa. These included the Nederduitse Gereformede Kerk (total following: 3 212 693), Methodist church (1 813 365), Roman Catholic (2 343 944), Zion Christian church (1 517 021), Black Independent churches (5 366 925) and others. Interestingly, in this census 9 208 052 individuals did not state any religion or actually made an objection to this question.

In South Africa it has been found that religion plays an important role in the lives of the youth (Van Zyl Slabbert et al. 1994). Religion, for some youth, is a means of facilitating their transitions to the urban environment by providing economic, social and

2.5.2) Race and Language Effects on the Development of Work Values

Language is reported as an important determinant of White South African's subcultures and differences between English and Afrikaans (a descendent of the Dutch language) speaking adults work values have been found (Bluen & Barling, 1983). Watson & Stead (1990) found differences between White English and Afrikaans speaking adolescents work role salience. These findings supported previous research that there is a difference between English and Afrikaans speaking pupils (Nevill & Perrota, 1985). Work role salience is an extension of work values sought from the work role, as it considers the relative importance of the role it self (Super, 1982; cited in Nevill & Perrota, 1985). It was of interest to determine if differences existed between English, Afrikaans and African language speaking (e.g. Zulu, Xhosa, Tswana) adolescent's in Langley's (1995b) WIS in South Africa. It was concluded that language correlates with values and life roles. English and Afrikaans speaking adolescents valued inner-orientated, autonomous life styles, material and social values more than the African language speaking pupils. African language speaking and Afrikaans speaking pupils valued humanistic, religious and physical orientations more than English speaking pupils.

Studies have been mixed in their findings of the differences in the values of various race groups (Davis & Harrison, 1975; Kohn, 1977 and others). American research shows that Black fathers are said to value conformity to external standards more than White fathers in similar class positions (Kohn, 1977). Socio-cultural studies of career development have been mostly done in a non-psychological manner (e.g. demographic classification), certain racial groups have been under represented and psychological experiences of racial group membership have not been included. Racial identity theory suggests that individuals go through several stages in their attitudes towards other members of the racial group. Therefore, knowing the racial group is not as important as knowing the psychological impact of membership of that group. (Carter et al, 1994). It is expected that attitudes of differing stages of racial identity may predict something about the individuals cultural and work values held. Results of Carter et al's, (1994) study using the Values

values shared by all SES groups as far as economic and materialistic values and lower SES groups valued physical activities more. This study was extended further by determining their role salience measure as well.

Although the use of SES as a potential correlate with values is questioned, it is still useful because it captures more than the items used, usually, to index it such as occupation and education. SES captures the interaction between different conditions of life at different levels of the social order. Various members of the SES groups experience life differently and therefore their social reality (aspirations, hopes, fears and perceptions of what is valued) vary. Studies have revealed that middle and working class mothers shared a similar but not identical set of values for their children. Middle class mothers valued aspects pertaining to their children's internal requirements most and working class mothers valued conformity more. (Kohn, 1977).

Fathers values were similar to that of mothers but middle class fathers valued dependability and working class fathers valued the ability to defend oneself. Morse & Weiss (1969) had also found similar results which indicated that self-expression (internal conduct) was more a middle class value. The fact that middle class parents values are more intrinsically orientated and working class values are more extrinsic in nature has been confirmed in several studies (Lyman, 1955; Gecas & Nye, 1974; Davis & Harrison, 1975; Kohn, 1977).

The rate of unemployment in a country may also influence the development of values associated with work. In western culture work may be regarded as a measurement of an individuals success or failure (Bergh, 1995). Work provides a means of quantifying one's status, prestige, identity, self-esteem to name a few. Unemployment assists in illustrating the meaning of work within a person's life and how they may have difficulty coping with it. Evidence suggests that job loss results in change in an individuals emotions. The latter may be partially explained by the nature of the job loss and the individuals career status. (Leana & Feldman, 1988).

circumstances and institutions that may contribute to the crystallisation or changing of work values will be reviewed. Values have been said to be both stable and unstable (Kapes & Strickler, 1975). In other words they are stable as far as their hierarchical prioritisation but unstable in their intensity (Ibid.). Changing of the intensity may be a result of one's pre-employment experience, personal circumstances and subsequent work experience (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). Agents and situations that contribute to the latter will be subsequently discussed.

2.5.1) Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Life circumstances are said to influence career decisions and values and include factors that relate to one's background. These factors incorporate aspects such as SES which may be made up of several factors including personal or parental occupational and educational level (Kohn, 1977). Watson & Stead (1990) studied the influence of SES on work role salience. Work role salience is the meaning of the work role in an individual's life and is made up of several elements including work values. This study supported findings that SES does not effect work role salience (Nevill & Super, 1988) but is the opposite to the findings of other South African studies (Watson & Van Aarde, 1986). Possible disparities could be the result of the decision measures utilised in the former or possibly the sample of an ethnic minority of coloured people in South Africa in the latter. The impact of work role salience was said to vary across different population groups. (Watson & Stead, 1990).

This was found to be the case for work values in the study performed by Langley (1995b) using the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) in the work importance study (WIS) of a diverse, large segment of the South African adolescent population. This study occurred between 1987 and 1988 during the apartheid years. It was found that an obvious relationship existed between SES and work values with more importance given to humanitarian and religious values by individuals in the lower SES groups and higher SES groups giving more value to intrinsic and social values. There were common elements or

more than males. Grade 10 girls valued altruism and variety more than boys who valued economics instead. Langley (1995b) also confirmed differences in the values of various school grades with grade 12 pupils being more inner-orientated, materialistic and focused on their own lifestyle as opposed to grade 10 pupils who were more humanitarian, religious and physically orientated.

Langley (1995b) suggested that the sex differences in values in the South African study, is a result of gender stereotyping. Females valued personal development, achievement, humanitarian and religious values (altruism, spirituality and aesthetics) more than males. Males tended to be more materialistic and physically orientated in their value priorities regarding risk, physical activities and physical prowess as important. In Amoateng and Kalule-Sabiti's (1994) study of Bophuthatswana youth, it was discovered that mother's education was associated with adolescent's self-esteem. Boys tended to have higher esteem than girls. The authors said that this mirrored the discrimination against women in *every* aspect of South African society and for this to change the status of women needed to be elevated.

Therefore, by means of several contributory factors in the child's life, occupational choice is not made at the end of adolescence but occurs gradually throughout the childhood and adolescence process (Krau, 1987).

2.5) Circumstances and Institutions Responsible for Differences or Similarities in Life and Career Values

From the latter it is evident that individuals progress through several stages in order to reach career decisions that have, as one of their foundations, personal values. The development of values is also a result of transitional points in family and surrounding circumstances and could be based on the needs that the individual hopes to satisfy. If all people saw jobs in the same way then everyone would want to pursue the same activities, but this is not in effect the case (Gottfredson, 1981). In the following section various

differences, girls are thought to develop a 'learned helplessness' in the case of achievement situations. Women are thought to find it harder to transfer their potential for achievement to work and educational success owing to the difficulty of combining work and family related roles. (Ibid.). This is termed work-family conflict which is experienced more by women than by men (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz & Beutell, 1989). Role conflict may force individuals to forsake their values as they are unable to cope with multiple role expectations (Greenhaus et al, 1989). Although, in adolescence, the latter problems are not personally experienced by girls, the knowledge of the responsibility expected to be borne by the girl as 'homemaker' and, maybe, career women could be imparted through socialisation (Ibid.).

In numerous studies there have been found to be differences in the importance placed on certain values between boys and girls (Erez, Borochov & Mannheim, 1989; Card et al, 1980; Pryor, 1983; Davis, 1975; McClendon, 1976 and others). Similarities do exist between the sexes with both tending to value intrinsic values of activity, pride in work and job involvement more than extrinsic values (Wijting et al, 1978). Pryor (1983) suggested that personal growth for females could be achieved through the helping of others, in other words altruism. Davis (1975) also found that girls valued altruism more than boys. In the work importance study (WIS), girls and women were said to value human relations more and authority less than boys and men (Nevill & Super, 1989; cited in Super, 1995). In the Canadian WIS it was concluded that, owing to some traditional differences, women find social relations and working conditions more important than men do in general (Casserly, Fitzsimmons & Macnab, 1995). [illegible] more detail as to what the WIS involved is in the methodology pertaining to the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). In Moller's (1994) study few gender differences were observed in attitudes and values of research into home environment and educational motivation and achievement.

Age seems to be a moderating influence on the value priorities of different genders as was found in the Portuguese WIS (Ferreira-Margues, 1995). Females in grade 12 tended to value altruism, personal development, social interactions, social relations and variety

people's behaviours. (Hill, 1990). This theory could thus account for the origins of career choice and development which is said to include four factors namely: genetic endowment, the encompassing environment, learning experiences and task approach skills (Zunker, 1990).

This theory is useful in accounting for gender role stereotyping. In the earliest years of life children learn to label themselves as either boys or girls. From this point on they learn the script for their particular gender type. They learn the talents and important aspects of each sex and the emphasis economic and occupational roles should play in their lives. Children may play out these roles in a game of doctor and nurses, where *only* the boy could be doctor and the girl the nurse. Early socialisation of the selection of work roles between the two genders makes the gender variable an important potential correlate with work values. (Dickenson & Emler, 1992).

Betz & Fitzgerald (1987; cited in Douce & Hanson, 1990) suggest that women's career development is effected by individual and background factors. Individual factors included instrumentality, strong academic self-concept, high ability and liberated sex role values. Background factors were role models such as working mothers, supportive fathers and highly educated parents. This resulted in the conclusion that high adventure women were not gender role bound and are prepared to be involved in masculine or feminine behavior according to the situation. Goodale & Hall (1976) discovered that work values of girls are not as related to background or attitudes of parents as boys. Father's occupational level was negatively correlated with boys and not correlated with girls attitudes to earnings. The reverse was true for mother's occupational level.

Card, Steele & Abeles (1980) reported a gender difference in the level of educational and occupational attainment of the two genders with women tending to cluster around less prestigious jobs. In this study, girls were found to have higher marks than boys so ability was not underlying achievement motives. Boys were said to be more socialised as children that they should achieve more. With respect to early socialisation sources of sex

Work involvement differs from job involvement in that it is the centrality of the meaning of work in general. It is more likely to be caused by past cultural conditions and socialisation. (Kanungo, 1982). Thus it could also be related to intrinsic motivation to work as it has an all encompassing meaning on it's own, beyond outside motivators such as salary.

The meaning of work has been shown, in the latter, to reach beyond the fulfillment of survival needs.

3.3.3) The Meaning of Work Today

After the industrial revolution wages started to dominate the work people chose and their performance in that job (Schwartz, 1990). In the past work had been governed by social custom and one did not simply work for the highest bidder and employers were interested in things beyond maximal output. Taylorism or the Scientific management ap, argued that custom hindered efficiency and productivity. Jobs were then broken down into their simplest forms and all mental activity and decision making was removed. Automisation and routinisation eliminated customs of the past resulting in the only influence on work being the pay schedule which employers could control. *All* value was taken out of the job itself and placed with the wage. (Schwartz, 1990). These statements are interpreted with extreme caution as they are made quite sweepingly in the face of extensive evidence to contrary (Arnold, 1985; Deci, 1971; Staw, 1976).

Such activities have far reaching effects and are still apparent today. Aspects of modern life that were once independent of economic considerations (i.e. education and others) are now considerably influenced (Hirsch, 1976; cited in Schwartz, 1990). Education is now seen as an 'investment' in one's future and a means to an end as employers have instituted numerous hurdles to make it difficult to get a job. Looking at education in economic terms effects what people want out of it and how they evaluate the end result. It also has an effect on social relationships because people would rather be spending their

leisure which it facilitates' (Super, 1976, p. 33). Some people work because they are actively involved in their jobs, whereas others experience continuous demoralisation or alienation in the work they perform every day. The latter may be regarded as the social consequences of work.

The meaning of work may be distinctly seen when work is meaningless and actually alienating (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). Alienation is not only a post industrial phenomenon as, in ancient times, it could have been demonstrated in the separation from God and result in a meaningless human existence (Kanungo, 1979). Alienation may be characterised by feelings of powerlessness, meaningless, normlessness, isolation and self-estrangement (Seeman, 1959). By powerlessness it is said that the individual feels that their own behaviour has little or no effect on outcomes. Meaningless of the work is evident in the division of labour where the worker has little understanding of the activities involved in the work process and thus can not predict any consequences with much confidence, finding it difficult to pin point their personal contribution. People have also become alienated from general society as they no longer assign to rules of behaviour. People are also isolated from integral values and beliefs of societies and organisations. Finally, self-estrangement refers to when the individual finds little beyond the financial rewards of the job motivating and intrinsic aspects are minimal. (Seeman, 1959).

The term involvement can refer to both job and work involvement which, although similar, may be distinguished between. Job involvement has been equated with intrinsic motivation such as the fulfillment of one's value of self esteem by the job itself (Kanungo, 1982).

Job involvement is related to how the actual job can fill one's current needs (Kanungo, 1982). It is how one internalises the value or importance of work as describing part of the person's worth (Lodahl & Keyner, 1965). Lodahl & Keyner (1965) found that the job involved person conforms to the virtues of work. This suggests that people find other features of work motivating beyond that of simple economic rewards.

people work is to satisfy needs or motives which are developed out of prioritising ones values into a need hierarchy (Brender, 1969). Work has certain features that can gratify these motives such as rewards and satisfactions. Broadly, these rewards are divided up into intrinsic and extrinsic meanings. (Ibid.). This may be made apparent when viewing the results of Morse & Weiss's (1955) study which found that even financially independent people would continue to work and was termed the 'lottery question'. When asked what their reasons were responses included being part of the wider society, having something to do and justifying existence. People work because it offers rewards beyond that of remuneration such as recognition, self-expression, status to name a few. In a similar study performed in South Africa by Van Der Walt (1994) on various cultural groups it was found that more than 75% would still want to work even if they inherited money.

3.3.2) What is Work?

The question is if an activity allows for the satisfaction of a person's value does it constitute work? In order to limit the field in which needs may be satisfied it is necessary to discuss several prerequisites that are involved in work as an *economic* activity. Super (1976, p. 8) defines work as 'effort expended, not for it's own sake, but for survival and other outcomes,' 'continuous employment in production for pay' and a 'means of earning a livelihood and having a social role that structures life and may facilitate or inhibit self-fulfillment'. The latter definitions thus tends to denounce leisure or play to be a source of 'work' but are means to acquire self-fulfillment but not in an economic sense. The O'Toole Task Force (1973; cited in Super, 1976, p. 32) regarded work to be 'an activity that produces something of value for other people'. This definition is basically economic and tends to exclude the work activities of for example subsistence farmers who produce only for themselves. Possibly a more encompassing definition of work is 'the systematic pursuit of an objective valued by oneself (even if only for survival) and desired by others...The objective may be intrinsic enjoyment of the work itself, the structure given to life by the work role, the economic support which work makes possible, or the type of

in acquiring an understanding of why we work is the meaning that work may have in the life of a person. The final section in this review will be devoted to this topic.

3.3) The Meaning of Work

3.3.1) Introduction

Work may be seen as the backbone that provides structure to the way modern man lives (Applebaum, 1992). When one considers the meaning society today attaches to the work role it is apparent that it is viewed as both a social construct and an activity variable. The term activity variable refers to economic and cultural activities. (Joyce, 1987). In the past work was a means of survival but today people may have become dependent on the work role for other reasons (Zytowski, 1968). Work allows contact with the social reality and is means for the achievement of status and self-esteem (Applebaum, 1992). In the 60's and 70's work was seen as a social necessity as the kind of job and working environment could provide people with status (Davis & Harrison, 1975).

Work provides the basis for life as we still need food to be grown and harvested (Applebaum, 1992). People feel they know what work is and take it for granted but our understanding does not adequately answer questions such as; why people work? And what they get out of work? This may be answered by the response to earn a living but this does not explain why some people enter jobs in which they would get less money. (Super, 1957). In essence the human motives for working are extensive and varied.

Work has developed into a complex activity and various other terms have been developed to both define and extend it. Work itself means different things to different people, groups and cultures. The nature of work is an appropriate starting point in the definition of the term. Work is an activity that may be chosen in some cases and takes time to adjust to (Super, 1957). People feel they understand why they work but they are not as informed as they care to believe. Thus the important question is why do we work? The reasons why

performance (Staw, 1984). Ryan & Deci (1980) have researched the question as to whether extrinsic rewards can actually reduce intrinsic motivation. Social psychological studies have illustrated the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, but the latter has little effect on models of motivation in organisational behaviour (Staw, 1984). The reason for the latter is that studies have failed to demonstrate a negative relationship between intrinsic motivation and pay (although more current studies could be to the contrary) (Staw, 1984). In a more positive light, with regards to it's application in South Africa, studies have revealed that the VIE theory can in fact be applied cross-culturally (Orpen, 1975 & Matsui & Terrai, 1975; cited in Barling, 1983).

The usefulness of this theory is that adolescents may determine what they value and motivates them to work with regards to their expectancy that their behaviour may result in desired outcomes. The last theory that will be discussed is the organisational behaviour modification model of motivation.

3.2.4) Organisational Behaviour Modification

This theory provides relevance to values and needs in the motivation to work as it deals with aspects of the individuals environment (McCormick & Ilgen, 1992). Another term for organisational behaviour modification (O.B.MOD) is operant conditioning which states that behaviour is controlled and perpetuates as a result of it's consequences. The consequences of behaviour may be called reinforces which are any action subsequent to the behaviour that will increase or decrease the likelihood of such behaviour occurring again. In order for the reinforcer to be strengthened it is necessary that the person is convinced that the response is associated with the reinforcer. (McCormick & Ilgen, 1992).

Motivation theories are numerous and the latter was only a brief indication of the models available for understanding the motivation to work Coupled with the motivation to work

the rewards or punishments resulting from the way the task is performed (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993).

Vroom defined instrumentality as 'subjective correlation's between two outcomes' (cited in McCormick & Ilgen, 1992, p.285). There are thus positive and negative subjective correlation's. A positive correlation means that the individual perceives an increase in performance will result in a greater outcome. A negative correlation means that they outcome received by the individual will not be related to performance. (McCormick & Ilgen, 1992). This may be related to the theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982; cited in Ivancevich & Matteson, 1988). A person who has a low self-efficacy will assign blame or praise of an event to another person or object and not to themselves. A person with high self-efficacy will be able to assign the responsibility to themselves if they cased the event or change. (Ibid.). If the person receives rewards that they can, owing to high feelings of self-efficacy, assign to themselves intrinsic motivation may increase (Bem, 1972; Staw, 1976; cited in Arnold, 1985).

Valence is the individuals desire for an outcome or the attractiveness of the outcome to the individual. The valence may not be as satisfying as the individual expected it to be and thus there are positive and negative valences. (McCormick & Ilgen, 1992).

Expectancy relates to the perceived chance of an outcome occurring as a result of a particular behaviour. Expectancy of an outcome to occur ranges from 0 to +1. (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993). Thus a subjective probability of 0 means that the person is totally convinced that the behaviour will not result in the outcome. A subjective probability of +1 means that the person that the behaviour will result in the desired outcome. (McCormick & Ilgen, 1992).

Not everyone regards this theory to be completely valid and critiques will be reviewed. Attribution researchers are one group who have questioned the model as they do not regard intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes to actually lend themselves to the increase of

Once again the applicability to South Africa and the dichotomy between intrinsic and extrinsic needs has been questioned (Barling, 1983). The theory is based on the requirement to enrich jobs in order to make them more satisfying. Some jobs can not be enriched and some people do not want them to be (Barling, 1983), with enrichment comes responsibility. Hertzberg et al's (1959) clear distinction between factors is not unequivocally accepted (Barling, 1983).

There are several needs theories besides the latter but the latter two tend to represent a great deal of thought and understanding. In the next section the more applicable process theories of motivation will be reviewed. The reason why they may be more relevant is that they focus on how the individuals behaviour may be energised, perpetuated, channeled and finally stopped (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1993).

3.2.3) The Expectancy-Valence-Outcome Theory

The major theory of expectancy- 'ence originated with Vroom (1964) who drew from several theories (Lewin,1938; Edwards,1954, 1961; Rotter, Davidson, Suppes & Siegal, 1957; Atchinson, 1958 and Tolman, 1959; cited in Vroom, 1964). Vroom (1964) assumes that voluntary choices by an individual to perform or behave in a certain manner are dependent upon their current attitudes, beliefs and expectations that the behaviour with resul in a desirable outcome. Vroom (1964) considers a person's behaviour to be voluntary and they account for their own motivation to perform. Therefore the expectancy theory may be described as an individuals d sire to perform a task based upon the perceived outcome that is associated with the completion thereof (Mitchell, 1979). There are several terms that describe the theory and to begin it is imperative to discuss the various forms of outcomes

First level outcomes are those that occur as a result of performing the task itself such as quality of production and second level outcomes are more personal in nature as they are

satisfy such a diverse array of needs people have. Secondly, with the current emphasis on the quality of life and leisure activities work may no longer fulfill a central means of attaining the latter (Barling, 1983).

3.2.2) The Two Factor Theory

Hertzberg et al, (1959) study was an inquiry into what actually provides satisfaction in the work environment and consequently motivates a person to work. Their aim was to identify the factors that made people satisfied or dissatisfied in their work. They were interested in people's job attitudes and the reasons why they may change if job circumstances are manipulated.

Two sets of factors were identified to answer their question namely hygiene's and motivators. These are strongly related to extrinsic and intrinsic work motivators with hygiene factors being conditions that surround the job and motivators being associated with the job itself. It was found that if factors surrounding the job deteriorate to levels below what is deemed acceptable then job dissatisfaction may result but the opposite does not occur. Hygiene or extrinsic factors include supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, salary, company policies, administration and job security. (Hertzberg et al. 1959)

Motivators are factors which lead to positive job attitudes and include aspects that allow for the satisfaction of self-actualization in the person's work. Motivators included aspects such as recognition, achievement and the possibility for growth (personal development). (Hertzberg et al. 1959).

They concluded that people find different ways to satisfy needs i.e. a person may experience personal development if they are altruistic Thus it was said that only motivators could result in job satisfaction. (Hertzberg et al. 1959).

Boon (1996) related physiological and safety needs to survival and said that the closer one was to survival on the hierarchy the higher one's ethnicity would be. Basically this means that if a community experiences any form of threat there will be a psychological revisiting back to one's tribe. When there is no threat, ethnicity is said to be low. In times when threat is low people move away from focusing on only physiological and safety needs and feel able and willing to self-actualize (Boon, 1996). In South Africa it is likely that people will be experiencing safety needs as safety is often the result of a secure and predictable environment (Franken, 1988). Maslow (1954) himself said that the hierarchy is more applicable in a free society and although the transition is in progress, democracy is still in it's infancy in South Africa. In other words there are said to be prerequisites for the satisfaction of basic needs such as justice, freedom to express one-self, freedom to seek information, honesty and orderliness in the group. The hierarchy is also not as fixed as believed and owing to certain circumstances some needs may be permanently forgotten or not desired. An example of this is the so called psychopathic personality which demonstrates a permanent loss of the love needs. Behaviour may be multi-motivated and behaviour could tend to serve several of the needs simultaneously. (Maslow, 1954).

Maslow's (1954) theory has often indicated a trend where people in lower socio-economic classes, educational and production levels are more concerned with physiological and safety needs. People in the opposite circumstances focus more on intrinsic values or needs of esteem and self-actualization (e.g. creativity). In other words there is more value placed on the higher order needs than the lower for people who have gratified both. Higher needs also require better outside conditions in order to facilitate them such as better environmental conditions (i.e. familial, economic, political, educational). (Maslow, 1954).

Maslow's (1954) model instills an understanding of the behaviour of workers and potential workers at various occupational and income levels in the South African context (Barling, 1983). The application of the model is based on the assumption that people *can* and *want* to satisfy their needs in the workplace. Firstly, organisations may not be able to

motivation is that of work motivation which is concerned with what the motivators are behind voluntary work behaviour (Barling, 1983). In order to understand this concept better an examination of work motivation theories that are based on a theory of values or needs is necessary.

3.2) Motivational Theories

The theories of motivation may be put into two categories, namely the content or process theories of motivation (Ivancevich & Mattesson, 1993). Content theories states feelings or attitudes relating to motivated behaviour and include theories such as Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of needs and Hertzberg, Mausner & Snyderman's (1959) two factor theory. Process theories revolve around variables that may predict work behaviour and are typified by theories such as the expectancy and operant conditioning theories (Barling, 1983). The relevance to the direction of value orientations will be highlighted with a brief discussion as to several of the motivational theories.

3.2.1) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Although Maslow's (1954) theory has been over shadowed by other theories it is still often discussed (Boon, 1996). This theory presupposes that there is a definite relationship between satisfaction and motivation denoted by a psychological progression up a hierarchy of five needs (Barling, 1983). Needs are referred to as either basic or instinctoid and are incentives for behaviour (Maslow, 1954). The hierarchy is made up of physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation needs. The development of higher order or more 'sophisticated' needs (such as aesthetics) may only arise after the lower order needs are fulfilled (Ibid.). This suggests that people that are very poor would be not be interested in needs beyond the physiological, safety and possibly the belongingness needs. A related theory is Alderfer's (1969) existence-relatedness-growth theory as both state that behaviour is mobilised and channeled towards the satisfaction of unmet needs (cited in Dunnette & Hough, 1990).

Chapter Three

Motivation and the Meaning of Work

3) The Motivation to Work

3.1) Motivation Defined

Motivation to work is evident in the level of arousal, direction, extent and continuation of effort expended in the job activity (Katzell & Thompson, 1990). The very basic model of motivation includes needs or expectations, behaviour, goals and some form of feedback. The word motivation comes from the Latin word 'movere' which means 'to move'. (Steers & Porter, 1991).

An understanding as to the process of motivation provides clarity as to it's meaning and relevance. Initially, the development of a need, desire or expectation results in a state of dis-equilibrium which the individual attempts to reduce (Steers & Porter, 1991). The next step is the goal orientated function which indicates that certain actions should lead to a reduction in this state of dis-equilibrium (Dunnette & Kirchner; cited in Steers & Porter, 1991). This is not as simple as it seems because if a motive is satisfied it may lead to a shift to another motive or it could increase the intensity of desire for that motive. In other words, by giving an employee a promotion to a new, challenging job could increase their desire to work harder in anticipation of the next promotion (Steers & Porter, 1991).

As values are broad goals or actions or motives, motivation may be said to be the directedness of behaviour in an intense or persistent manner to achieve such values. Values underlie the degree of directedness, intensity and persistence of behaviour as they represent required end states or goals of a person. With values placed into a structure of hierarchy comes the motivation to achieve these values. As motivation is based on a value structure most motivation theories use certain values to explain individual motivational behaviour. (Dunnette & Hough, 1990). The important definition of

'lads' for a legacy of manual working class labour. Individualism is the need for autonomy and collectivism the need for conformity (Kagitcibasi, 1994).

The latter is an indication of how various aspects of a surrounding environment may have an effect on the individuals development. In the next section the motivational concept of work will be approached by looking at how motivation theories are based on the aspects of values or needs. Motivational studies are concerned with what energizes human behaviour, what directs or channels this behaviour (for example work values) and how this behaviour is sustained (Steers & Porter, 1991). Work values may be regarded as the underlying needs or goals that direct and channel behaviour towards the world of work. In other words motivation is the driving force that assists one in channeling their values in the right direction if circumstances allow.

with a persons authority needs. This, however, is extrinsic in nature as it involves the encompassing work environment.

Autonomy

Autonomy is defined as the need to ' make his/her own decisions and to carry out plans as he/she sees fit; to have independence of action in his/her sphere' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). The questions depicting autonomy are idealistic such as 'set my own working hours'. They all tend to imply that the person would need to own their own business to have autonomy. This value implies that the person would enjoy some form of individualism.

Creativity

Creativity is when ones wishes 'to develop or make something original. The something may be an object, writing, painting or other art work, an idea, a new method, or an organisational innovation' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Questions are both involved with life and career values and imply an individualistic outlook.

Cultural Identity

Cultural Identity is 'to have freedom to conduct himself in public and in private life according to the habits of his/her group' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Questions are involved with the collective interactions between peoples of the same group.

Economic Rewards

This is defined as the need 'to maintain a high standard of living and to have the financial capacity to keep it up' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). These questions are concerned with solely extrinsic aspects of a work situation.

Economic Security

This value may be distinguished from the latter in that it is regarded as the need 'to have a stable income and to be assured of being able to survive difficult economic times' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). The major differences between this and the latter is that economic

Achievement

This is defined as 'the feeling that he/she has done something well' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Questions imply that external standards would demonstrate that they have done something well. It is concerned with other peoples recognition of the achievements as well as own personal satisfactions that they have done something well. This value may have elements of both intrinsic and extrinsic needs.

Advancement

The definition of this value is given as 'to progress in his/her career, to have better standard of living, to live in a better environment and to have a better income' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). The questions involve progression physically in one's career and are extrinsic in nature.

Aesthetics

This is 'to enhance and enjoy the beauty of processes, products and surroundings, both natural and man-made' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). This is not completely tangible and may include some affective processes.

Altruism

Altruism is concerned with other people or 'to help others and to be concerned with their welfare' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). This also involves emotional values and is centered around the caring for and nurturing of other people and living things.

Authority

This is defined as 'to have influence over others and to encourage them to follow a certain point of view or policy. It can be obtained through position, power, expertise, charisma or seniority' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). The questions tend to imply an autocratic form of leadership and do not involve any aspects of allowing a cooperative leadership pattern. These questions may thus be tapping in on one type of leadership style that, if the individual does not agree with or see as appropriate for themselves, may not correspond

altruism. The South African WIS, performed between 1987 (pilot study) and 1988 (main study), using the values and roles scales included secondary school pupils from grades 10 and 12 from different population groups. The administration, completion and description of the scale will now be expanded on.

5.4.2.2) Description of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) South African Edition

This scale measures extrinsic and intrinsic life and career values (a copy of the scale is available in the appendices). The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) assesses the values that an individual seeks to find in different life roles (Rousseau, 1989). The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) has 110 items and assesses 22 intrinsic (for example achievement, autonomy, creativity, variety) and extrinsic (for example, authority, economic rewards, working conditions, economic security) values or needs (Rousseau, 1989). Each of the scales consist of five items measured on a four point Likert type scale. Two or three of the items in each scale are related directly to work values and the remaining items to life values generally (Carter et al, 1994). The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) may be useful to researchers who are investigating cross-cultural differences in values or needs (Rousseau, 1989). In the following, definitions and types of questions that depict the 22 values captured by the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a), will be discussed:

Ability Utilisation

In the Values scale (1995a, p. 7) manual Langley defines Ability Utilisation to be 'The extent to which a person wishes, wants or needs the opportunity to develop his/her talents and skills'. Questions that are used to capture this center around both life and career needs. Questions included may be seen inthe copy of the Vlaues Scale (Langley, 1995a) in the appendices. This value basically is interested in whether the person is interested in developing their internal talents further and thus revolves around intrinsic needs or values.

5.4.2) The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a)

5.4.2.1) Origins of the South African Values Scale: the Work Importance Study (WIS)

The values Scale was one of two instruments used as the basis for the work importance study (WIS) that had it's origins in the International of Applied Psychology (Ferreira-Marques & Miranda, 1995). This project aimed to determine, internationally, the importance of work (using the Values Scale: Langley, 1995a) in relation to other life roles (Ferreria-Marques & Miranda, 1995). National teams were selected to test the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) and Salience Inventory (i.e. determining the importance of roles in one's life) in various countries with Langley (1995b) heading the South African team. Initially the scale consisted of 210 items (twenty one scales each containing 10 items) with 230 items, if the two optional scales of cultural identity and physical activities were included. The first five items of each scale generally related to any life role whilst the last five were clearly work or job related. By means of a factor analysis certain of the scales were absorbed by others or dropped owing to the lack of reliability of the items. High internal consistencies of the scales with alphas generally of .80 and above made it possible to reduce the number of items per scale to 5 which resulted in less complaints by participants of repetitive questions. The final WIS Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) contains 18 scales with two optional scales (i.e. Cultural identity and physical prowess) that may be included.

In the South African project WIS an independent research organisation the Human Sciences Research Councils one institute for Psychological and Edumetric Research, conducted the study (Langley, 1995b). The WIS Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) for South Africa included the two optional scales, divided economics into economic rewards and economic security and decided to retain the one original sub-scale of spirituality (WIS planning conference, 1979) as it was agreed that this values could have meaning to all major cultural groups in South Africa although it could be shown in differing ways. Spirituality was shown to have internal consistency and only correlated slightly with

The Values Scales (Langley, 1995a) of all subjects were then scored manually in order to determine what their raw scores were. All information was inputted in order for one to perform both inferential and descriptive statistics on the data.

5.4) Description of Instruments

5.4.1) Biographical questionnaire

The purpose of the biographical questionnaire was to gain information about the pupils and their parents. Information obtained was then used to determine certain variables such as socio-economic status which in fact was a composite index of several of the questions in the questionnaire (this will be discussed in more detail in a later section). An example of the biographical questionnaire is available in the appendices.

Questions relate to aspects such as area lived in, how long the pupil has been at the school, their parents occupational and educational levels, language spoken, facilities available at their home and others. The last question of what jobs they had considered was simply used to gain a little time. Peil (1982) states that each questionnaire should be checked for any missing details and those few extra minutes that the last question gave one provided the chance to check, as well as possible, the other pupils questionnaires who had finished in less time.

The biographical questionnaire was the instrument used to collect as much information as possible to develop a composite picture of the backgroundr and circumstances of each pupil.

or other race groups and were funded by the government. The historically 'Black' schools were inadequately funded and the pupils ... enjoy the benefits the White schools did. The non-government schools permitted access to any person but are more expensive than government schools making them, at times, more exclusive. Some non-government schools offer bursaries to pupils from less privileged backgrounds.

The final sample used for analysis included 321 pupils. One individual was discarded immediately as she did not return the answer sheet to the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) section. A further 35 were discarded as they did not provided pertinent information on their biographical questionnaire needed for analysis purposes.

5.3) Procedure

Initially the schools that may have been cooperative in partaking in the study were contacted. A letter was provided to the principal of each school explaining what the study was about and how they would be of assistance (a sample copy may be viewed in the appendices).

Once access was granted the school was visited and the pupils in the grade eleven classes were required, during a period of about an hour, to complete the two questionnaires. Most schools were not prepared to offer more than one hours class time as this usually resulted in the pupils missing two class periods. The first questionnaire completed for biographical details took about ten minutes to complete with an additional five minutes required to give instructions. The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) took between 30 and 50 minutes to complete depending on whether either English or Afrikaans was their first language or not which are the language options in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). Pupils were told not to fill in their names on the answer sheet to retain anonymity.

Chapter Five
Methodology

5.1) Research Design

The present research uses a ex post facto non equivalent quasi-experimental design as, with most studies involving human subjects, random assignment to groups was not possible as well as manipulation of the independent variables (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). The independent variables (For example SES race and language) could not be manipulated as they were already determined by nature, life circumstances and heritage. There could not be a control group in this research as this would require one to randomly assign pupils to different groups which was not possible owing to limited access and ethical considerations. Groups could only be compared and are regarded as non equivalent comparison groups with each being exposed to differing life circumstances.

5.2) Sample

The final sample consisted of grade eleven pupils from a variety of different schools. The sampling procedure in selecting the schools was not random owing to problems encountered when requesting access. The final sample comprised 357 pupils from 7 different schools. Grade eleven pupils were used in this study as they are younger than the general population and, as with Schwartz's (1994) study of university students, their priorities could illustrate the direction the general culture of South Africa is moving. Banks, Bates, Breakwell, Brynner, Nicholas, Jamieson, & Roberts (1992; cited in Levy, 1994) states how the period between 16-19 years of age is crucial to one's past experiences and achievements in various facets of one's life effect choices that are made. The tentative vocational life stage (15-17) is a time when one considers needs, interests, abilities and values (Super, 1968).

The schools included were four government schools and three non-government schools. Government schools are those schools which originally may have been exclusively White

10) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the new values depicted by factors demonstrating a collection of the 22 values and a grade eleven's language group?

11) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the new values depicted by factors demonstrating a collection of the 22 values and a grade eleven's race group?

12) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the new values depicted by factors demonstrating a collection of the 22 values and whether a grade eleven attends a government or a non-governmental school?

13) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the new values depicted by factors demonstrating a collection of the 22 values and whether a grade eleven lives with both parents, their father, their mother, a guardian or at boarding school?

14) Are Extrinsic and Intrinsic Values dichotomous in nature or are they orthogonal?

3) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the 22 values contained in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) of grade eleven pupils that are African language speaking, English, Afrikaans or foreign language speaking?

4) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the 22 values contained in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) of grade eleven pupils that are Black, White, Coloured, Indian or belong to another race group?

5) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the 22 values contained in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) of grade eleven pupils that attend a government school and those that attend a non-government school?

6) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the 22 values contained in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) of grade eleven pupils that live with both parents, live with their father, live with their mother, live with a guardian or live at a boarding school?

7) Does the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) consist of 22 values or is there possibly an alternate factor structure?

8) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the new values depicted by factors demonstrating a collection of the 22 values and a grade eleven's SES?

9) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the new values depicted by factors demonstrating a collection of the 22 values and a grade eleven's gender?

In South Africa the type of schooling system is a result of a macabre history of oppression. Public or governmental schools were divided according to racial groups with Whites receiving the 'cream' of education and all non-Whites were given the minimal educational qualifications. Private schools or non government schools did not receive much government assistance and thus tended to be, and still are, expensive. At a number of the private schools bursaries were given to children that could not afford to pay fees. Previous literature has failed to address the consequence of the type of schooling on adolescent work values (Bluen & Barling, 1983; Langley, 1995b; Sverko, 1995 and others).

The reason why work values of a sample of the youth of South Africa is of interest is because if organisations are aware of what needs are motivating people they will be more likely to either begin to attempt to fulfill them or at least have realistic recruitment programs so that people do not become demoralised when core values are not satisfied. A study of work values is a way to establish a work entry profile of adolescents and other people (Krau, 1987).

Research Questions

The present study aims to answer the following research questions:

1) Is there a statistically significant difference between grade eleven's from different socio-economic status groups and the value they place on any of the 22 values contained in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a).

2) Is there a statistically significant difference between the importance placed on any of the 22 values contained in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) by grade eleven boys and girls?

Chapter Four

Rationale for Present Research and Research Questions

Although the subject of values has been widely researched a number of methodological problems do still exist. The aim of this study was to use an easily understandable and South African normed instrument that could capture the work values of grade eleven pupils specifically in South Africa.

Studies have been done looking at the work values of adolescents by Langley (1995b) using the same scale (the Values Scale; Langley, 1995a) that is used in the present research. The difference being that this study was performed at a time (between 1987 and 1988) when there was firstly, a different and oppressive government. Secondly, people's freedom of speech and activity was strongly denied in that not all population groups in South Africa were permitted democratic freedoms such as that of voting. Thirdly, the educational system was designed to oppress any population group who was not White and denied people the right to a good education. Finally, the constitution itself made South Africa a country in which people were not free and advocated the discrimination and separation of people living in the country. Today, theoretically, all people are afforded the same opportunities as far as the constitution is concerned.

Another reason why the past of the country is relevant is that it has ensured that there is a division economically between people in differing groups. The concept of socio-economic status has been used as a correlate in most studies but the indexing of it has been erratic. In some instances education and occupation were used to index it (Kohn, 1977) whereas in most studies only occupational level was used (Kluckohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). SES is only one of the correlates that will be used to determine how work values differ between various people in different life circumstances. In this study the aim was to develop a more comprehensive description of SES than by simply using occupational status to index it. The reason for the latter is that other aspects may provide a more complete and illustrative indication of which SES group a pupil fits into.

limited leisure time 'consuming' tangible items than 'squander' that valuable time socialising. (Hirsch, 1976; cited in Schwartz, 1990).

3.4) Conclusion

Work values are often depiction's of the meaning work may have in a person's life (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995). Motivation is the engine which drives a person to locate a situation in which these values may be fulfilled. Work, however, is not always the situation in which all values may be fulfilled but can provide a means for the satisfaction of the basic needs. South Africa, as with most other countries, constitutes it's own unique set of circumstances, people and intricacies and these may cause there to be differences in the manner in which people prioritise values.

construct as the rest of the test. Owing to the fact that values, although the concept may seem homogenous, could possibly be heterogeneous in nature. This implies that people have varying needs and can be sought after in several differing forms.

In order to determine if some of the items are not wholly correlated with the entire instrument it is necessary to look at the alpha if deleted. If the coefficient alpha (i.e. the reliability of the instrument) increases if the item was not present then it suggests that it is not a good item. Several of the items, if deleted, would result in an increase in the reliability of the instrument. The latter included: Authority item 1 ('tell others what to do'); Autonomy item 1 ('act on my own'); Physical strength item 2 ('handle power machines'); Risk item 1 ('do risky things'); Social interaction item 2 ('work in a group rather than by myself'); Spirituality item 2 ('to live according to religious principles'). This suggests that the latter items do not measure the same construct as the remainder of the items on the applicable sub-scale. The reason why they were possibly not deleted is that the difference if deleted is no higher than .000416 for any of the above items.

In order to test the psychometric properties further coefficient alphas were generated for all 22 sub-scales in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). The highest Cronbach alpha was that of physical activities which had a Cronbach alpha of .8073. All the individual items in this particular sub-scale could be deemed good items as the alpha would reduce if any of them were deleted. The average inter-item correlation of this sub scale was also reasonable at .4618. This suggests that all the items in this sub-scale measure the same construct under consideration. The lowest Cronbach alpha was that of personal development at .6442. None of the items, if deleted, would increase the alpha and thus suggests that they are measuring a similar construct. The problem with this particular sub-scale is it's' average inter-item correlation which falls at a low .2684. If the individual items on the sub scales inter-item correlation's do not correlate at a reasonable level with the average inter-item correlation then they may be regarded as a poor measure of the overall construct. None of the individual items did fall below the average inter-item correlation which suggests that the items are similar.

may be tested in several ways. Reliability will be discussed first and will be followed by a discussion about the validity of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a).

6.3.2) Reliability

In determining if an instrument is valuable or not it is essential to test the reliability and validity thereof. Reliability is the extent to which the questionnaire and it's individual items yields the same approximate results when used repeatedly under similar circumstances (Reber, 1985). In order to effect the latter reliability coefficients were generated for the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) as a whole and each of the 22 sub scales.

Reliability was determined by means of Cronbach alphas, inter-item correlation's and item total correlation's. Langley (1995a) determined the reliability of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) by using the Kuder Richardson formula 8. The Kuder-Richardson formula is useful for instruments in which the response is either right or wrong or the response may be all or nothing (Anastasi, 1982). For tests that allow the respondent to select the degree of importance attached to something they may get a differing numerical score on an item depending on whether they select 'usually', 'sometimes', 'rarely' or 'never' ('Very important', 'important', 'of some importance' or 'of little or no importance'), a more generalised formula may be used called the coefficient alpha (Ibid.). In this study coefficient/Cronbach alphas were used.

For the entire sample on the whole test the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) had a very high Cronbach alpha of .944312. The coefficient alpha is an index of the degree to which an instrument measures only one trait in this case values (Gregory, 1996). A high Cronbach alpha suggests a homogenous test which refers to the index of internal consistency. As the Cronbach alpha is high it suggests that internal consistency of the scale is high which means that the items are similar in nature and more than likely to be measuring the same thing (Ibid.).

The latter was brought into question as the average inter-item of the entire scale was a low .2753. Any item falling below the latter is regarded to not be measuring the same

6.2.4) Race

There were five distinct racial groups identified: 1 = Black (N = 111); 2 = White (N = 196); 3 = Coloured (N = 5); 4 = Indian (N = 4) and 5 = any other racial group (N = 5). As it may be seen the sample is skewed in favour of Black and White pupils.

6.2.5) School Type

This refers to whether the school was government or non-government. Pupils Attending group 1 = non-government (N = 137) and 2 = government (N = 184).

6.2.6) Family

This refers to with whom the pupil lives. 1 = lives with both parents (N = 222); 2 = lives only with their father (N = 12); 3 = lives only with their mother (N = 62); 4 = lives only with a guardian (N = 10) and 5 = is at a boarding school (N = 15). The sample is skewed in favour of living with both parents.

6.2.7) Age

The grade eleven pupils forming this sample mostly fell into the 16 to 17 range (i.e. 211 subjects) with a few aged at between 13 and 15 (i.e. 9 subjects) and 18 to 20 groups (i.e. 49 subjects) and finally, the 21 to 24 group (i.e. 5 pupils). As the majority of the sample fell into the 16 and 17 age groups age was not used as a demographic variable.

6.3) Psychometric Properties of the Value Scale

6.3.1) Introduction

When attempting to determine if an instrument is psychometrically sound it is necessary to test some essential properties. These properties include reliability and validity which

Group 1: Upper SES

Group 2: Middle SES

Group 3: Working SES

B) Frequency Distribution of SES

Table 6.2: SES of Sample

SES	MALE	FEMALE	COUNT	PERCENTAGE
Upper Class	20	11	31	9.7
Middle Class	89	103	192	59.8
Working Class	49	49	98	30.6
Total	158	163	321	100.00

6.2.2) Gender

Table 6.3: Gender of Sample

GENDER	COUNT	PERCENTAGE
Male	158	49.2
Female	163	50.8
Total	321	100.0

As may be seen from the above table the gender groups are relatively balanced with there only being five more females in the sample than males.

6.2.3) Language Groups:

Although individual language groups were identified it was decided to condense the groups into 1 = African language speaking pupils (N = 100); 2 = Afrikaans speaking pupils (N = 94); 3 = English speaking pupils (N = 117) and pupils speaking any other language not native to South Africa (N = 10).

and 3 of the possible facilities. Once again 1 was the higher SES, 2 the middle SES and 3 = working SES.

The final ranking was that of schools which were also classified along a three point scale with 1 = upper class; 2 = middle class and 3 = working class.

All of the above variables were then tested by means of a matrix of gamma coefficients, that is able to correlate rankings that are different, in order to see if they were in fact related. The following gives the results:

Table 6.1: Matrix of Gamma Coefficients of Rankings used in Composite SES Index

	OCCUPATION	AREA	FACILITIES	EDUCATION	SCHOOL RANK
Occupation	1.000				
Area	0.674	1.000			
Facilities	0.732	0.809	1.000		
Education	0.719	0.566	0.691	1.000	
School Rank	0.703	0.721	0.768	0.667	1.000

As it may be seen from the latter table all of the variables selected to develop the composite SES index correlate above the .60 level except for area and educational level which correlated at a still acceptable .566. It was decided to retain all of the variables, however, as both of the latter correlated at a reasonably high level with all the other variables.

To determine what the final SES was of each subject the following formula was used: Highest guardians occupational level, highest educational level of the guardians, facilities (1-3), area (1-5) and school rank (1-3). The lower the final score the higher the SES group the person was classified as. The lowest score that a person could get was 5 and the highest 20. People falling into the 5-10 group were classified as the upper class, people in the 11-16 were classified as middle class and the group falling into the 17-20 group were classified as working class. The following are the coding assigned to the three SES groups identified:

areas which was then plotted on a Geographical Information Systems map (GIS). Area 1 = upper residential, 2 = upper middle residential, 3 = middle residential, 4 = lower middle residential and 5 = lower residential.

Both Kohn (1977) and Schlemmer & Stopforth (1979) regard both occupational level and education to be important factors in the composite index of SES. Schlemmer & Stopforth (1979) developed a guide for the coding of occupations particularly for South African use. This coding lists numerous job or career possibilities that may be mentioned by the pupils. They regard occupational status to represent the levels of achievement in work status and the job status value placed by the population on occupations likely to be encountered. They go on to say that occupational status classification is 'an adequate indicator of social standing in the community' (Schlemmer & Stopforth, 1979, p. 3). An assumption that had to be made was to only consider the highest occupation of the guardians if the child lived with both parents. Occupational status was ranked on a five point scale i.e. 1 = Professional and Managerial; 2 = Middle White-collar; 3 = Manual Foreman, Skilled Artisans, and status equivalent; 4 = Routine non-manual and semi-skilled manual; and 5 = Unskilled Manual and Menial (Schlemmer & Stopforth, 1979).

Educational level was ranked on a four point scale with 1 = university or college education; 2 = passed matric (grade 12); 3 = passed std. 8 (grade 10) and 4 = passed std. 5 (grade 7). These tend to represent important stages of the education system in South Africa as university study is the improvement of one's basic education, matric allows one to get into post-school study only if one has the necessary requirements, std. 8 is the year in which one only studies one's selected subjects and std. 5 means that the person has completed junior education.

Facilities ranged from the most basic such as electricity, running hot water, flushable toilets; to the more endowed (i.e. the latter as well as more than 100 books in the house and a television) to the more wealthy (i.e. all of the latter and a computer and car). This was ranked on a three point scale with 1 = having between 6 and 7 of the possible facilities; 2 = having between 4 and 5 of the possible facilities and 3 = having between 0

Chapter Six

Results

6.1) Introduction

The purpose of this study is to determine if there are significant differences in importance assigned to work and life values between grade eleven pupils who come from various life circumstances. The preliminary results will be descriptive in nature in order to demonstrate the demographical portfolio of the sample. The next section will concentrate on describing the psychometric properties of the instrument including ANOVA's for the 22 values and a principle component analysis. The final section will be based on inferential statistics that aims to determine significant differences by means of ANOVA's between various groups on the new factor structure.

6.2) Biographical Data

Questions in the biographical questionnaire served the purpose of developing a portfolio describing the sample. Details in this section will be solely for descriptive purposes.

6.2.1) Socio-Economic Status

Socio-economic status (SES) is one of the most important of the demographic variables and thus a brief discussion as to how a composite index was developed will follow:

A) The Socio-Economic Status Index and Groups

A number of the questions asked in the biographical questions were done so with the idea of developing a composite and definable index of socio-economic status (SES). The questions included the area lived in, the guardian's occupation and educational level, facilities that the household had and other material belongings such as a car and number of books. The area lived in was classified on a five point scale with 1 being the highest and 5 being the lowest. This was classified according to a survey done of the status of

- Inner-orientated needs = Ability utilisation, Economic security, Personal development, Advancement, Achievement and to a certain extent Own Life Style, Pleasant working conditions, Cultural identity, Economic rewards and Aesthetics.
- Material needs = Prestige, Economic rewards, Authority and to an extent Advancement, Achievement and pleasant working conditions.
- Autonomous life style consists of Autonomy, Own life style, Variety, Creativity and Risk.
- Humanism and Religious = Altruism, Spirituality and to an extent Aesthetics.
- Social needs = Social interaction, Social relations and to a certain extent Cultural identity and Pleasant working conditions.
- Physical needs = Physical prowess, Physical activity and to a extent risk.

In order to determine if the current sample also demonstrate such factor loadings a confirmatory principle components analysis will be done in order to determine if the factor structure predicted and suggested by Langley (1995a) may be confirmed or not. Thus, the aim is to detect the structure of variables and to classify them according to factors. In order for comparison purposes a principle components will be used according to factors detected with eigen values above 1.00. The factors will be rotated using the varimax method. This will answer research question 8.

The third step is to assimilate the raw scores of the new factor structure determined by the principle components and test the differences between the means for each of the groups on each of the new factors. Even if the structure corresponds to Langley's (1995a) factor structure (i.e. the new six factors) these tests for significant differences will be performed. In other words research questions 9 to 13 will be tested using ANOVA's and interactional effects.

Finally, in order to test research question 14, the rankings of all 22 values and the alternate factors of the pooled sample will be observed.

5.5) Statistical Analysis

The aim of the study is to determine if there are differences between any of the different groups importance attached to life/career values. Both descriptive and inferential statistics will be used to analyse data. Descriptive statistics will generate means and standard deviations for the various groups under study and will assist in developing an overall values portfolio for the entire sample. Other statistical procedures will be divided up into three sections.

Firstly, research questions 1 to 6 will be analysed using the parametric statistic of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Although the data is exponentially skewed parametric statistics are still valid according to the central limit theorem 'as the size of any sample of scores becomes arbitrarily large the sample distribution of the mean approaches the normal distribution. The rate at which the normal distribution is approximated is surprisingly rapid for most of the populations that are investigated in psychology' (Reber, 1985, p. 113). As the sample size is large i.e. 321 subjects, the central limit theorem is applicable to this data set. An ANOVA is a useful way of determining the differences between means and is a very popular technique used in psychological research. Most of the hypotheses will be analysed using a one-way analysis of variance where each value will only be defined by one independent variable. (Howell, 1989).

Secondly, the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) is said to consist of 22 values although Langley (1995a) stated that these 22 values may be condensed into six general values which is alikened to an umbrella for several other values. Langley (1995a) initially performed a factor analysis on the data of the entire sample (N = 5 350) but in order to get a better understanding of the constructs describing the needs, a principal component analysis was performed. This resulted in six factors that had eigen values bigger than one. The last step was to rotate the factors into the varimax position which explained 76.3% of the variance. The six factors were related to the following needs (Langley, 1995a, p.16):

inquire whether it is important to make the world a better place. (Langley, 1995a). Spirituality means different things to different people and thus could have some affective connotation.

Variety

This is the need 'to have change and variety in what he/she does, whether of tasks, processes or methods, i.e. a diversity of activities, location or people with whom he/she associates' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7).

Physical Working Conditions

Pleasant working conditions would be important to the person and would include some aspects such as good lighting, comfortable work space and temperature. (Langley, 1995a). This is an extrinsic value as it occurs in the encompassing work environment.

Scores may be ipsatively or normatively interpreted (Langley, 1995a). Ipsative interpretation means that the individual's raw scores on different sub-scales are compared, thus they are only compared with themselves. Normative interpretation means that an individuals scores may be compared with those of a comparative sample. The test was standardised for South Africa using a national sample of English, Afrikaans and African language speaking school pupils consisting of differing ages genders and SES. (Langley, 1995b).

Reliability coefficients for the entire sample are reported by the developer as being higher than .70. A six step procedure was used in compiling the questionnaire to ensure content validity. Construct validity is reported as having a small numerical difference which may be regarded as statistically significant. (Langley, 1995b). Other statistical procedures were followed in the development of the instrument. The current writers discoveries as to the psychometric qualities of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) with regards to the current sample will be reviewed in the results section of this thesis.

Prestige

Prestige is said to be 'social, economic or occupational status, which arouses respect, esteem and admiration' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Once again this is not a tangible concept as prestige may not always be easily visible. It seems to have affective connotations.

Risk

This is the need 'to enjoy the excitement of physical danger, financial gain or loss and other risks incurred in prospects proposed, undertaken or carried out' (Langley, 1995a). Most of the questions defining risk involve some mention of danger. They tend to not be very geared towards capturing a person's need to take risks of a financial nature but in a responsible manner. It aims as the individualistic individual.

Social Interaction

This involves 'as part of his/her work to give attention to other people and to converse with them' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Questions are interested in determining whether the person values community based or team situations in which they are constantly interacting with other people. It may be regarded as capturing collectivistic needs.

Social Relations

By this the person would value 'pleasant, friendly contact with the people with whom he/she associates in his/her work or in another sphere (e.g. home, recreation)' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Only one of the five questions that aims to capture social relations is slightly related to the world of work. The rest of the questions are more aimed at having a good 'social life' which, for grade eleven pupils, is more than likely a priority. Wanting to be with their 'kind of people' or being with friends may insinuate some form of collectivistic orientation.

Spirituality

This concentrates on the person's need to live according to religious principles. Questions, however, may direct the person towards some form of aesthetics as they

rewards are concerned with being well off and prosperous whereas economic security is more aimed at rather survival. Economic Security is still extrinsic in nature as the person would be concerned with encompassing aspects of the work environment.

Own Life Style

'To have the freedom to live his/her life according to his/her own standards and values, which can be defined in different ways (e.g. conventional, Bohemian, intellectual, artistic, materialistic)' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). The questions involving this value are individualistic in nature and tend to stress a sense of autonomy and independence from conformity to other people's ideas and rules.

Personal Development

Personal development is heavily based on intrinsic values and is essentially captured in the questions pertaining to this need. It is defined as the need 'to develop and to have plans about what he/she wants to do with his/her life' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Questions also may tend to inspire some individualism but are also influenced by the intrinsic benefits of work and life development.

Physical Activities

This is concerned with being physically active and fit. Questions capture this meaning by asking about the need for the person to be physically fit. Each question mentions physical fitness and becomes quite repetitive. (Langley, 1995a).

Physical Prowess

This is defined as the need 'to follow an occupation which demands physical prowess' (Langley, 1995a, p. 7). Prowess may be interpreted in several differing ways and could be construed to mean having superior ability, expertise or mastery as far as the physical aspects of work are concerned. Questions tend to demonstrate that physical strength in the work place would be valued and revered.

6.3.3.3) ANOVA's of the New Factor Structure

By means of the principle components analysis a new factor structure of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) for the present sample was identified.

As may be recalled, from a previous section, the new factor structure included Factor 1= Intrinsic values (highest possible score 60 and lowest 15); Factor 2= Collectivistic Values (highest possible score 140 and lowest 35); Factor 3= Individualistic Values (highest 80 and lowest 20); Factor 4= Social Values (highest 60 and lowest 15) and Factor 5= Extrinsic Values (highest 100 and lowest 25).

In order to make interpretation easier to understand the means and standard deviations will be given for the value according to it's unique score as well as a comparable score (i.e. to the original scoring system of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). In other words Factor 1 comprises three of the original values namely Ability utilisation, Achievement and Personal Development In order to make results easier to understand the scores will be divided by the number of separate values comprised in each new factor thus Factor 1's scores would be divided by three. Factor 2 is made up of seven different values and scores would be divided by seven. The same applies to Factor 3 (four values); Factor 4 (Three values) and Factor 5 (Five values). In the following the significant differences determined by means of ANOVA's will be reported.

Suggestions for a New Factor Structure

Owing to the fact that certain of the values sub scales are highly correlated it was decided to merge these sub scales in order to develop a more limited number of values by grouping together sub scales that tended to measure a similar construct. The new factor structure will be subsequently described:

Factor 1: the sub scales that loaded above 0.70 on this factor included Personal Development, Ability Utilisation and Achievement. This factor was renamed Intrinsic Values. (See discussion as to reasoning behind the new titles).

Factor 2: Sub scales that loaded above 0.40 were also included in this new factor and incorporated Altruism, Spirituality, Physical Strength, Physical Activities, Aesthetics, Prestige and Variety. This factor was renamed Collectivistic Values.

Factor 3: This included Risk, Autonomy, Own Life Style and Creativity and was renamed Individualistic Values.

Factor 4: This included Social Relations, Social Interaction and Cultural Identity and was renamed Social Values.

Factor 5: This final factor included Economic Rewards, Advancement, Economic Security, Physical Working Conditions and Authority. It was renamed Extrinsic Values.

Conclusion

Principle components analysis is a subjective process and one has to make decisions owing to considerations beyond purely statistical criteria. The above procedure was selected based on the fact that the original researcher of the South African Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) tended to follow the above steps and it was necessary for replication purposes (Langley, 1995a).

Table 6.10: Rotated Loadings

	1	2	3	4	5
Personal Development	0.792	0.114	0.071	0.187	0.132
Ability Utilisation	0.767	0.146	0.077	0.044	0.210
Achievement	0.730	0.186	0.085	0.065	0.334
Altruism	0.188	0.738	-0.170	0.112	-0.018
Spirituality	0.218	0.735	-0.239	0.117	0.132
Physical Strength	-0.275	0.678	0.281	0.083	0.122
Physical Activities	0.008	0.638	0.178	0.122	0.013
Aesthetics	0.384	0.620	0.108	0.144	0.144
Risk	-0.147	0.279	0.718	0.147	-0.041
Autonomy	0.310	-0.126	0.692	0.038	0.321
Own Life Style	0.352	-0.132	0.637	0.218	0.275
Social Relations	0.206	0.136	0.321	0.767	0.185
Social Interaction	0.207	0.386	0.165	0.570	-0.086
Cultural Identity	0.015	0.383	-0.153	0.547	0.316
Economic Rewards	0.150	-0.023	0.083	0.094	0.848
Advancement	0.354	0.212	0.144	0.039	0.713
Economic Security	0.428	-0.135	0.057	0.177	0.664
Physical working Conditions	0.264	0.322	0.062	0.186	0.521
Authority	-0.117	0.286	0.360	-0.173	0.550
Prestige	0.150	0.409	0.299	-0.103	0.393
Variety	0.168	0.493	0.311	0.132	0.326
Creativity	0.368	0.386	0.402	-0.379	0.221

Note: All loadings that are underlined are above .40 and are regarded as significantly correlated with the applicable factor.

The above suggests that certain of the sub scales are highly correlated and thus essentially measure the same or a similar construct. Some of the factors (i.e. economic security) loaded above the required 0.40 level on two factors but it was decided, for parsimony, to group the factors according to their highest loadings.

variables the sum of the eigen values are equal to 22. Each eigen value explains it's proportion of variance. The eigen value for the first factor is 6.799 or accounts for 67.9 or 68% of the proportion of variance; the eigen value of the second factor accounts for 26.2% of the proportion of variance; the eigen value of the third factor accounts for 17.8% of the variance; the fourth factor 13.7% and the fifth factor 11.5%. The five factors explain 62.326% of the total variance. As it may be seen the first factor accounts for the majority of the variance which is typical of a principle component analysis as factors are orthogonal which means that there is not overlap between the first factor subsequent factors (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Essentially this means that the second factor works on the 'leftovers' of the first and so on (Ibid.). Thus, as there are only five eigen values above 1.00, only five factors will be retained for the principle components analysis.

Factor Matrix

Initially the components were computed followed by the loadings of each variable on each component (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).The loadings are the correlation's between each variable (the rows) and the newly computed factors (the columns). In order to make interpretation of these loadings easier a varimax rotation method was used. The varimax method is the most commonly used and it 'tries to maximize the variation of the squared loadings for each component by making the loadings go to zero or to 1.00 to the extent possible' (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991, p. 550). The following is the factor structure for the rotated loadings:

relationship that may exist between variables. A Pearson's correlation matrix was used as it is a way of measuring the linear relationship between variables (Wilkinson, 1990). Values are between -1 and 1. A perfect positive relationship is represented with 1, a perfect negative relationship is represented by -1 and no linear relationship is when values are 0 (Ibid.).

Selecting the Number of Factors

There are two methods that may be used to determine how many factors should make up the principle components analysis namely: the Kaiser criterion or the Scree test. In the present study it was decided to adopt the Kaiser criterion of only retaining factors with eigen values above 1 (Cooper, 1983; cited in CSS: Statsoft, 1991) as this is the method adopted by Langley (1995a). An eigen value is basically 'the sum of the squared factor loadings (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991, p. 619).

Table 6.9: Latent Roots or Eigen values

1	2	3	4	5
6.799*	2.616*	1.779*	1.371*	1.147*
6	7	8	9	10
0.986	0.818	0.779	0.698	0.632
11	12	13	14	15
0.580	0.527	0.478	0.442	0.404
16	17	18	19	20
0.389	0.333	0.276	0.269	0.236
21	22			
0.228	0.213			

* Represents all eigen values that fulfill the Kaiser Criterion i.e. are above 1.00

The above eigen values thus suggest that, for this sample, the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) has in fact only got five distinct factors. To expand on this it is necessary to determine how much variance each of these five factors explain. In principle components analysis the first factor always accounts or explains the most variance with each subsequent factor explaining less and less (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). As there are 22

6.3.3.2) Principle Components Analysis

A) Definition

A principle components analysis is a technique used to reduce or 'rewrite' the number of variables or components that make up an original instrument (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). In this case the principle components analysis was used to determine the construct validity of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). In other words one wanted to determine if the original 22 variables or values would remain as such or could be restructured into a new set of values (Ibid.). Principle components analysis is valuable as it computes component (or variable) lines that may be used to summarise relationships between variables (Wilkinson, 1990). The basis therefore for using a principle components analysis or factor analysis is to combine two correlated variables into one factor (C Statsoft, 1991). In the following, the steps that were taken in the principle components analysis will be discussed and the results presented.

B) Principle Components Analysis of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a)

The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) comprises 22 sub-scales each containing five items that are meant to measure distinct values. In the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) guide results of a principle components analysis suggests that these 22 values may be condensed into a factor structure of six factors. The aim of the present study was to determine if the factor structure predicted and suggested by Langley (1995a) may be confirmed or modified. In order to answer research question 7 (i.e. Does the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) consist of 22 values or can the factor structure of only six correlating values proposed by Langley (1995a) be confirmed?) a principle components analysis was used. The following steps were taken.

Correlation Matrix

The correlation matrix is the starting point in a principle components analysis. Although it may be unwieldy, it provides a visual representation of the possible correlation or

Table 6.8: ANOVA's and Tukey Results for the 22 Values and the Type of School attended

VS	Means		SDS		F	P	Tukey	
	Non-Gov	Gov	Non-Gov	Gov			A-B	B-A
ADV	16.766	17.522	2.627	2.286	7.544	0.006**		**
AES	14.387	15.962	3.102	2.765	22.957	0.000**		**
ALT	13.934	15.826	3.207	2.978	29.678	0.000**		**
ATH	12.460	13.554	3.577	2.887	9.190	0.003**		**
AMY	15.401	14.538	3.246	3.259	5.531	0.019*	*	
CRT	14.445	15.696	3.299	3.040	12.352	0.001**		**
CID	12.891	14.435	3.539	3.369	15.802	0.000**		**
OLS	16.153	15.310	2.632	3.102	6.594	0.011*	**	
PAC	14.307	15.326	3.596	3.164	7.250	0.007**		**
PST	10.737	12.897	3.573	3.282	31.510	0.000**		**
SPR	13.307	16.092	3.251	2.484	75.750	0.000**		**
VAR	13.416	14.891	3.100	2.946	21.868	0.000**		**
PWC	15.000	16.603	3.061	2.576	25.881	0.000**		**

KEY: ADV= Advancement; AES= aesthetics; ALT= Altruism; ATH= Authority; CRT= Creativity; CID= Cultural Identity; OLS= Own Life Style; PAC= Physical Activities; PST= Physical Strength; SPR= Spirituality; PWC= Physical Working Conditions.

* = significant at the $p < 0.05$ level and ** = significant at the $p < 0.01$ level. A-B means that non-government school pupils place more importance on the value than government and B-A means that government school pupils place more importance on the value than non-government.

In the majority of the values that demonstrated significant differences between non-government and government school pupils, the majority were favoured more by government school pupils.

Family:

There was only one significant difference and that was the importance attached to the value of Cultural Identity by individuals that lived with both parents as opposed to just their mother. People who only lived with their mothers valued it significantly less at the $p < 0.05$ level of significance than people who lived with both parents.

* = significant at the p < 0.05 level and ** p < 0.001 level. A-B; A-B; A-C; B-C; D-C = significant differences between the two applicable groups i.e. A= African Language speaking; B= Afrikaans; C= English and D= Other.

The above table represents the significant differences in importance placed on several of the original 22 values in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) by pupils in different language groups. Afrikaans pupils valued achievement, advancement, aesthetics, altruism, cultural identity, spirituality, physical working conditions and variety significantly more than English speaking pupils. Afrikaans pupils valued cultural identity, economic security and social relations more than African language speaking pupils. African language speaking pupils, on the other hand, valued altruism, creativity, physical strength, variety and physical working conditions more than English pupils and economic security and social relations less than English and Afrikaans speaking pupils.

Table 6.7: ANOVA's and Tukey Results for the 22 Values and the Race Groups

VS	Means		SDS		F	P	Tukey	
	Black	White	Black	White			A-B	B-A
ALT	16.018	14.418	2.882	3.294	4.857	0.001**	**	
CRT	16.027	14.673	2.830	3.303	5.173	0.000**	**	
ECS	16.865	17.694	2.719	2.476	2.661	0.033*		*
PRE	15.883	14.459	3.047	3.336	5.121	0.001**	**	
SOR	14.171	16.301	3.092	2.883	9.678	0.000**		**

KEY: ALT= Altruism; CRT= Creativity; ECS= Economic Security; PRE= Prestige; SOR= Social Relations. * = significant at the p < 0.05 level and ** = significant at the p < 0.01 level. A-B means that Blacks place more importance on the value than Whites and B-A means that Whites place more importance on the value than Blacks.

As the majority of the sample fell into either the race groups of Blacks or Whites the sample was squewed in favour of the latter. The result was that only significant results occurred between White and Black pupils as far as them favouring certain values was concerned. Only the results of the two latter groups were thus reported. The other race groups were not sufficiently represented and thus possibly explains the reason for no differences occurring.

Table 6.6: ANOVA's and Tukey Results for the 22 Values and African, Afrikaans, English and Other Language Groups

VS	Mean				SDS				F	P	Tukey					
	AL	AF R	EN G	OT H	AL	AF R	EN G	OT H			A-B	A-C	A-D	B-C	B-D	D-C
ACH	17.190	17.883	17.026	18.800	2.223	2.373	2.426	1.751	3.816	0.01**				*		
ADV	17.290	17.649	16.726	17.600	2.208	2.354	2.71	1.578	2.658	0.048*				*		
AES	15.570	15.979	14.573	14.400	2.896	2.862	3.069	3.273	4.580	0.00**				**		
ALT	16.040	15.223	14.034	14.400	2.881	3.122	3.285	3.273	7.745	0.00**			**	*		
CRT	16	15.309	14.265	15.9	2.814	3.114	3.455	2.378	5.816	0.001**		**				
CID	13.230	15.830	12.795	11.4	3.306	2.746	3.488	4.452	18.655	0.00**	**			**	**	
ECS	16.710	17.777	17.769	17.9	2.794	2.305	2.503	2.025	4.097	0.007**	*	*				
PST	12.550	12.564	11.060	11.400	3.5	3.509	3.470	4.115	4.515	0.004**		**		*		
PRE	15.770	14.479	14.650	14.800	3.064	3.311	3.551	3.425	2.971	0.032*	*					
SOR	13.960	16.617	15.88	15.800	3.061	2.756	3.086	1.874	14.22	0.00**	**	**				
SPR	15.470	16.447	13.248	14.100	2.642	2.34	3.296	3.843	23.765	0.00**	**	**				
PWC	16.150	16.787	15.094	15.1	2.787	2.627	2.983	3.071	6.795	0.00**		*		**		
VAR	14.470	15.117	13.393	14.300	2.754	2.715	2.980	2.003	6.814	0.00**		*		**		

KEY: ACH= Achievement; ADV= Advancement; AES= Aesthetics; ALT= Altruism; CRT= Creativity; CID= Cultural Identity; ECS= Economic Security; PST= Physical Strength; PRE= Prestige; SOR= Social Relations; SPR= Spirituality; PWC= Physical Working Conditions; VAR= Variety.

Results indicated several significant differences between pupils from the three SES groups. Higher class pupils only valued social relations more than both middle and working class pupils. Middle class pupils valued ability utilisation, altruism, creativity and spirituality more than higher class. Middle class pupils valued autonomy, economic security, own life style and personal development more than working class pupils. Working class pupils valued altruism and physical working conditions more than higher class; creativity, physical strength and spirituality more than both the other classes and finally, valued prestige more than middle class pupils. The latter results tend to partially support other findings and will be reviewed in the discussion.

Table 6.5: ANOVA's and Tukey Tests Results for the 22 Values and the Two Gender Groups

Sig. Values	MEAN		SD		F	P	TUKEY	
	Male	Female	Male	Female			A-B	B-A
ACH	16.962	17.791	2.452	2.204	10.172	0.002**		**
ALT	14.595	15.429	3.271	3.109	5.491	0.020*		*
PDE	17.139	17.871	2.270	2.172	8.715	0.003**		**
PST	12.430	11.534	3.362	3.714	5.132	0.024*	*	
PRE	14.538	15.356	3.321	3.362	4.805	0.029*		*
SOI	14.177	15 123	3.086	3.057	8.187	0.004**		**
SPR	14.525	15.270	3.057	3.205	4.532	0.034*		*

KEY: Only the values that had significant differences were reported and included; ACH= Achievement; ALT= Altruism; PDE= Personal Development; PST= Physical Strength; PRE= Prestige; SOI= Social Interaction and SPR= Spirituality.
* = statistically significant at the 0.05 level; ** = statistically significant at the 0.01 level. A-B represents that males significantly favoured the value more than females and B-A represents females significantly favouring the value more than males.

Out of the seven values that had significant differences between the male and female sample only one was favoured more by males than females i.e. physical strength. The latter was demonstrated by means of a Tukey post hoc test of comparison which represents whether the result was in fact significant or by chance. Standard deviations of both males and females varied quite highly around the mean. Research question 2 was thus partially confirmed as there were significant differences in only seven of the 22 values between males and females

Table 6.4: ANOVA's and Tukey Tests Results for the 22 Values and the Three Socio-Economic Status Groups

VS		Mean		SD			F	P	Tukey		
	High	Middle	Wrking	High	Middle	Wrking			A-B	A-C	B-C
AUT	17.00	18.063	17.714	2.898	2.155	2.306	3.157	0.044*	*		
ACH	16.677	17.635	17.112	2.535	2.305	2.368	3.165	0.044*	*		
ALT	13.774	14.599	16.235	3.106	3.181	2.966	11.724	0.000**		**	**
AMY	14.710	15.401	14.000	3.111	3.257	3.195	6.188	0.002**			**
CRT	13.516	14.943	16.112	3.097	3.332	2.694	9.224	0.000**	*	**	**
ECS	17.355	17.823	16.735	2.905	2.380	2.681	6.034	0.003**			**
OLS	16.097	15.932	15.020	2.712	2.847	3.096	3.547	0.030*			*
PDE	17.645	17.771	16.959	2.751	2.146	2.191	4.383	0.013*			**
PRE	14.290	14.615	15.827	3.164	3.609	2.721	5.006	0.007**			**
SOR	16.290	15.865	14.520	3.111	3.043	3.114	7.364	0.001**		*	**
PST	11.000	11.547	13.122	3.795	3.584	3.202	7.937	0.000**		**	**
PWC	14.839	15.854	16.388	3.078	2.976	2.599	3.536	0.030*	*		
SPR	12.871	14.766	15.816	3.222	3.111	2.877	11.452	0.000**	**	**	*

KEY: Only the values that had significant differences were reported and included; AUT= Ability Utilisation ACH= Achievement; ALT= Altruism; AMY= Autonomy; CRT= Creativity; ECS= Economic Security; OLS= Own Life Style; PDE= Personal Development; PST= Physical Strength; PRE= Prestige; SOR= Social Relations; PWC= Physical Working Conditions and SPR= Spirituality.

* = statistically significant at the 0.05 level; ** = statistically significant at the 0.01 level. A-B represents a significant difference between High SES and Middle SES; A-C represents a significant difference between High SES and Working SES and B-C represents a significant difference between Middle SES and Working SES.

Other types of reliability measures could not be done owing to the design of the present study. Other reliability testing includes that of test-retest which is 'a method for determining the reliability of a test by administering it two (or more) times to the same persons and obtaining a coefficient of reliability between the scores on each testing (Reber, 1985, p. 636).

6.3.3) Validity

Validity is concerned with what an instrument is measuring and how well it does this (Anastasi, 1982). In order to test the latter a particular form of validity was tested namely construct validity by means of a principle component analysis and testing between groups. Construct validity is the extent to which an instrument may be said to measure a theoretical 'trait' or construct in this case, values (Anastasi, 1982). The reasoning behind using a principle components analysis was for replication purposes. Langley (1995a) used a principle components analysis on the pooled data in order to obtain a better understanding of the constructs underlying the needs. The latter resulted in a six factor structure with eigen values greater than one. The latter factors were rotated in the varimax position and explained 76.3% of the total variance. (Ibid.). The results as to the testing between groups were obtained by means of ANOVA's which will firstly be expanded upon followed by the results of the principle components analysis and the applicable differences between groups.

6.3.3.1) Determining Differences Between Groups

As construct validity is the determination of whether a test measures the theoretical construct it is meant to measure, differences between groups can provide support for construct validity of an instrument (Langley, 1995a). In order to answer research questions 1 to 6 that is interested in significant differences between groups, ANOVA's were performed between each of the biographical variables and the 22 values of the original Values Scale (Langley, 1995a). Note that the highest possible score that can be obtained for any of the 22 values is 20 and the lowest is 5. Only significant differences i.e. at the $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ levels of significance will be reported.

Factor 1/ Intrinsic Values:

The components of this factor were the values of Personal Development, Ability Utilisation and Achievement. Langley (1995a) also found these three values to be correlated but suggested that other values such as Economic Security and to an extent Own Life Style, Pleasant Working Conditions, Cultural Identity, Economic Rewards and Aesthetics may be included. Langley (1995a) referred to these as inner-orientated needs as they focus on intrinsic needs of an individual. The latter is one of the reasons why this term was adopted for this factor. Intrinsic needs have been defined as self-direction and a person who has intrinsic work needs sees work as an essential part of the meaning they find in life (Kohn, 1977).

Questions relating to the one intrinsic value of ability utilisation were all based on the concept of using one's skills and knowledge to their full potential, they all implied some sort of self-direction. Achievement was also demonstrated by questions that implied moving forward and progressing and finally, Personal Development was aimed at capturing the need to grow as a person in life as well as work. Achievement may be the only one of these values that may not be fully described as solely intrinsic as questions also implied that success would be based on people noticing one's achievements. Other questions, however, may demonstrate that the person themselves would need to be able to recognise results that demonstrated that they had done some job well (i.e. 'have results which show that I have done well'). In other words achievement would be a personal accomplishment and this would need some degree of personal drive to be effected. Sverko (1995) also found that achievement is correlated with the latter two values and confirms it's intrinsic nature and importance in personal development and self-realisation.

Chapter Seven
Discussion

7.1) Introduction

Literature abounds with regards to the subject of values (Kohn, 1977; Bluen & Barling, 1983; Erez et al. 1989; Carter et al. 1991; Langley, 1995; Sverko, 1995 and many others) and in the following section results obtained in this study will be discussed with reference to previous literary findings and comments. For purposes of clarity the discussion section will be approached as follows: results will be discussed in an integrated fashion meaning that results of the ANOVA's for the 22 values and the five alternate factors will be considered simultaneously. The aim is to develop a portfolio of the demographic variables most indicative of the differences relating to the values and factors. Possible explanations will be given based on previous findings, types of questions used to capture the applicable values and intuitive reasoning specific to the research at hand. Initially, however, the reasons for renaming the five alternate composite factors will be discussed in order to clarify why certain values loaded together on the same factor.

7.2) Alternate Factor Structure

By means of a principle components analysis, which is used for the reduction or 'rewriting' of the number of components of an original instrument (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991), an alternate factor structure was suggested by the author which answered research question 7. The results of the principle components analysis were interesting as factors tended to cluster together in generally logical groupings. The alternate factor structure that has been suggested for the purposes of this study is made up of the following (each condensed factor will be discussed):

C) Ranks for the Pooled Sample

- On the whole the entire sample valued ability utilisation the most and risk the least for the 22 values.
- For the alternate factor structure intrinsic values were ranked as most important and individualistic values least important.
- From the rankings of both the 22 values and the alternate factors it may be concluded that extrinsic and intrinsic values are not dichotomous in nature but may be valued simultaneously. The reason for this is that extrinsic values were ranked second in the alternate factor ranking and extrinsic and intrinsic values were not ranked hierarchically but were rather mixed together in their importance.

The pooled sample places the least importance on Factor 3 or individualistic values. The mean, however, is not below average (mean = 57.159 or 14.29) even if it is not very high.

6.5) Summary of Results

A) Psychometric Properties of the Value scale (Langley, 1995a)

- The reliability of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) was calculated by means of a Cronbach alpha which resulted in a high .944 for the whole scale and between .807 and .6442 for each of the 22 sub-scales.
- ANOVA's depicted the validity of the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) by demonstrating it's ability to distinguish between groups.
- The principle components analysis resulted in five eigen values above 1.00 based on the Kaiser criterion (Cooper, 1983; cited in CSS: Statsoft, 1991). Five factors that were defined by various groupings of the 22 values were retained.

B) Differences Between Groups

- There were differences between the three SRS groups on several of the 22 values and new factors generated from the principle components analysis.
- School type and language groups were found to extract the most difference between pupils for the 22 values.
- Family, possibly owing to the fact that it was squewed in favour of pupils living with both parents, did not result in many differences for the 22 values and none for the new factor structure.
- Interactional effects were generated between certain of the biographical variables and the gender variable which served to provide more precise information as to the differences between groups.

The pooled sample of respondents rank ability utilisation (Mean = 17.854) as their most valued need. There is also minimal variability around the mean which may be determined by the standard deviation of 2.297. Both the mean and standard deviation of ability utilisation are the highest and lowest respectively demonstrating that it is the most valued with the least deviation between subjects out of all the other values. The least valued need in the entire sample is that of risk (mean = 11.402). Although it is not below average i.e. less than 10, it still represents a low score. The standard deviation is a high 3.722 which is the largest out of all the values. Although risk is the least valued need in the pooled sample there is a lot of variability within the sample between the subjects.

Table 6.20: Means and Standard Deviations of the Alternate Factor Structure for the Total Sample (N = 321)

Rank	NEW	Total Sample (N = 321)	
		Mean	SD
1	Fac 1/ Intrinsic	52.748	5.964
	CS	17.5826	1.988
2	Fac 5/ Extrinsic	80.925	10.277
	CS	16.185	2.0554
3	Fac 2/ Collectivistic	101.293	15.226
	CS	14.4704	2.175
4	Fac4/ Social	43.928	7.442
	CS	14.642	2.4806
5	Fac3/ Individualistic	57.159	9.420
		14.29	2.355

Key: CS = Comparable Score i.e. the unique score of the new factor divided by the number of values making up that alternate factor.

From the latter table it is evident that the total sample values intrinsic values the most (Mean = 52.748 or 17.583) with the least variability around the mean out of all five alternate factors (SD = 5.964 or 1.988). This result is not surprising if one returns to table 6.18 which presents the pooled rankings of the separate 22 values. Factor 1 or intrinsic values is made up of ability utilisation (ranked first by the total sample), personal development (ranked 2 by the total sample) and achievement (ranked 4 by the total sample).

6.4) Ranks for the Pooled Sample

Of interest to research question 14 is to determine if individuals have a dicnotomous interest in intrinsic and extrinsic values or an orthogonal interest. This may be addressed by determining what the most important and least important values are to the pupils making up this particular sample as a whole. In order to do this a table depicting the means and standard deviations ranked from highest to lowest will be given for the pooled sample.

Table 6.19: Means and Standard Deviations of the 22 Values for the Total Sample (N = 321)

Rank	Values	Total Sample (N = 321)	
		Means	SD
1	Ability Utilisation	17.854	2.297
2	Personal Development	17.511	2.247
3	Economic Security	17.445	2.567
4	Achievement	17.383	2.362
5	Economic Rewards	17.271	2.738
6	Advancement	17.199	2.462
7	Physical Working Conditions	15.919	2.899
8	Own Life Style	15.670	2.936
9	Social Relations	15.495	3.132
10	Aesthetics	15.290	3.011
11	Creativity	15.162	3.208
12	Altruism	15.019	3.212
13	Prestige	14.953	3.362
14	Autonomy	14 907	3.276
15	Spirituality	14.903	3.150
16	Physical Activities	14.891	3.338
17	Social Interaction	14.657	2.993
18	Variety	14.262	2.885
19	Cultural Identity	13.776	3.521
20	Authority	13.087	3.240
21	Physical Strength	11.975	3.568
22	Risk	11.402	3.722

Key: The maximum score on any of the values is 20 and the minimum is 5.

2 and 5 the standard deviations of non-government school pupils (SD2 = 1.877; SD5 = 1.829) was significantly less than government school pupils (SD2 = 2.207; SD5 = 2.272).

Owing to the fact that the portfolio of schools including single sexed as well as co-educational schools the interactional effects between the two gender groups and school groups was determined.

Table 6.18: ANOVA table for the Interaction Between School Type and Gender

Source	F-Ratio		P-Value	
	Fac.1	Fac.2	Fac.1	Fac.2
Gender	12.495	2.150	0.000**	0.144
Schtyp	1.399	51.732	0.248	0.000**
Gender*				
Schtyp	7.342	4.750	0.007**	0.030*

Key: Source refers to the variables used in the analysis.
F-Ratio is the ratios of mean squares that are distributed as F when the null hypothesis is true (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).
P value is the probability value of the level of significance.

For factor 1 (Intrinsic Values) there was a significant difference between non-government school males and government school males, non-government school females and government school females. Non-government school males valued Intrinsic Values less than the other three groups i.e. p = 0.034*, 0.000**, 0.005** respectively.

For factor 2 (Collectivistic Values) there were several significant interactions. Males in non-government schools valued it significantly less than males in government schools and females in government schools (p = 0.000**, 0.000** respectively). Males in government schools valued it significantly more than females in non-government schools (P = 0.000**). Finally females in non-government schools valued it significantly less than females in government schools (p = 0.002**).

Finally there were no significant differences between individuals that lived with either both parents, one parent, a guardian or at boarding school.

samples SD = 6.314 or SD = 2.105. There was thus a lot of variability around the mean within the White sample as opposed to the Black sample. Interactional effects were thus viewed in order to determine the source of such variability.

Table 6.16: ANOVA table for the Interaction Between Race and Gender

Source	F-Ratio	P
Gender	1.143	0.286
Race	3.377	0.010
Gender*		
Race	3.198	0.014*

Key: Source refers to the variables used in the analysis.
F-Ratio is the ratios of mean squares that are distributed as F when the null hypothesis is true (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).
P value is the probability value of the level of significance.

As may be seen there tends to be a significant interactional effect between gender and race for factor 4 (Social Values). Race still presents significant differences on it's own. The differences lay between White females and Black and White males. White females value Social Values significantly more than both Black and White males (p = 0.019* and 0.003** respectively). This result indicates that White females value Social Relations, Social Interaction and Cultural Identity more than males in both the dominant racial groups.

Table 6.17: ANOVA's and Tukey Results of the Alternate Factor Structure Between Pupils from Non-Government and Government Schools

Nfac	Mean		SD		F	P	Tukey	
	Non-Gov	Gov	Non-Gov	Gov			A-B	B-A
Fac 2	94.781	106.141	15.451	13.138	50.473	0.000**		**
CS	13.540	15.163	2.207	1.877				
Fac 5	78.942	82.402	11.360	9.145	9.131	0.003**		**
CS	15.788	16.480	2.272	1.829				

KEY: Fact 2= Collectivistic Values and Fac 5= Extrinsic Values.
* = is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level and ** $p < 0.01$ level.
A-B and B-A = significant differences between the applicable groups i.e. A = Blacks and B = Whites.

Pupils in Government schools place more value on factor 2 (Collectivistic Values) and factor 5 (Extrinsic Values) than pupils attending non-government schools. For both factor

As may be seen from above there is a significant interactional effect between language and gender. This significant effect occurred for factor 1 and 3. A Tukey post hoc comparison's demonstrated where the significant differences fell. For factor 1 (Intrinsic Values) it was found that male English speaking pupils valued Intrinsic Values significantly less than Afrikaans speaking males (p = 0.020, significant at the 0.05 level). Male English speaking pupils also valued Intrinsic needs significantly less than Afrikaans speaking females (P = 0.047).

For factor 3 (individualistic values) it was found that Afrikaans speaking males valued it significantly more than African Language speaking males (P = 0.004, significant at the 0.01 level).

Table 6.15: ANOVA's and Tukey Results of the Alternate Factor Structure for the Race Groups

Nfac	Mean		SD		F	P	Tukey	
	Black	White	Black	White			A-B	B-A
Fac 2	104.757	99.556	13.795	15.792	3.089	0.016*	*	
CS	14.965	14.222	1.9707	2.256				
Fac 4	42.198	45.056	6.314	7.780	3.145	0.015		**
CS	14.066	15.019	2.105	2.593				

KEY: Fact 2= Collectivistic Values and Fac 4= Social Values.
* = is significant at the p < 0.05 level and ** p < 0.01 level.
A-B and B-A = significant differences between the applicable groups i.e. A = Blacks and B = Whites.

As the sample was skewed in favour of Blacks and Whites only the significant differences between the two will be expanded on. As mentioned in the ANOVA for the original 22 values the other race groups were not sufficiently representative and did not produce any significant results. Thus they were not included in the above table.

Blacks significantly valued factor 2 (Collectivistic Values) more than Whites and Whites significantly valued factor 4 (Social Values) more than Blacks. The latter result seemed to be an anomaly and suspicions were further raised when the standard deviation for the White sample was viewed. It was SD = 7.7780 or SD = 2.593 as opposed to the Black

Afrikaans speaking pupils also value social values significantly more than both African and English speaking pupils do.

In order to determine if there were any significant differences between male and female respondents in the four language groups two-way ANOVA's were performed. A two-way factorial design (Howell, 1989) looks at the interaction between two grouping factors, in this case biographical details of language and gender, and a dependent variable such as one of the five new factors (Wilkinson, 1990). The reason for the latter is to determine what the effects are of one independent variable on another (Howell, 1989). If there is an significant interaction between two independent variables it casts doubt on the main effects of the two independent variables separately on the dependent variable. Interactions that are significant may demonstrate that there are significant differences between groups but the differences are not the same for all members of that group. In other words male, English speaking pupils may not value a factor as much as Afrikaans males and thus the significant differences between Afrikaans pupils and English pupils may be the result of the males within the group and not involve the females. (Ibid.). In order to determine if there were significant differences between the individuals in the group for example of English speaking pupils, interactional effects were viewed. If the interactions were not significant they were not reported as it was presumed that the groups as a whole differed significantly and individual sub groups were thus not producing significant main effects. In this analysis individuals that fell into the 'other' language group were discarded owing to two few per cell.

Table 6.14: ANOVA table for the Interaction Between Language and Gender

Source	F-Ratio	P
Gender	2.337	0.127
Lang	0.189	1.599
Gender*		
Lang	5.068	0.002**

Key: Source refers to the variables used in the analysis.
F-Ratio is the ratios of mean squares that are distributed as F when the null hypothesis is true (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).
P value is the probability value of the level of significance.

From the latter it may be seen that females value intrinsic values and social values significantly more than males. Although the differences are significant the mean scores do not vary greatly. If, for factor 1, one looks at the standard deviations of males (SD = 2.036) and females (SD = 1.885) it is evident that the male samples scores demonstrate more variability around the mean than females indicating that mean differences may be not too vast but agreement by the sample of females as a whole is more congruent than the male sample.

Table 6.13: ANOVA's and Tukey Results of the Alternate Factor Structure for the Four Language Groups

Nfac	Mean				SD				E	P	Tukey					
	AL	AF R	EN G	OT H	AL	AF R	EN G	OT H			A-B	A-C	A-D	B-C	B-D	C-D
Fac 2	10 4.9 70	10 4.9 04	95. 67 5	96. 30 0	13. 80 5	14. 35 9	15. 45 8	14. 55 3	10. 18 1	0.0 00 **		**		**		
CS	14. 99 6	14. 98 6	13. 66 7	13. 75 7	1.9 72 1	2.0 51	2.2 03	2.0 79								
Fac 4	42. 04 0	47. 12 8	43. 12 0	42. 20 0	6.4 13	7.1 09	7.9 89	5.8 27	9.2 40	0.0 0* *	**			**		
CS	14. 01 3	15. 70 9	14. 37 3	14. 06 7	2.1 38	2.3 7	2.6 3	1.9 42								

KEY: Fact 2= Collectivistic Values and Fac 4 - Social Values.
* = is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level and ** $p < 0.01$ level.
A-B; A-B; A-C; B-C; D-C = significant differences between the applicable groups i.e. A= African Language speaking; B= Afrikaans; C= English and D= Other.

In the above table it may be seen that African and Afrikaans language speaking pupils attach more importance to collectivistic values than English speaking pupils do although scores for both groups are not particularly high (i.e. not higher than 15). An important aspect to notice is than the variability around the mean of the African Language group (SD = 1.9721) is quite a lot less than the English speaking group (SD = 2.203).

Table 6.11: ANOVA's and Tukey Results of the Alternate Factor Structure for the Three SES Groups

Nfac	Means			SDS			F	P	Tukey		
	High	Mid	Wrk	High	Mid	Wrk			A-B	A-C	B-C
Fac 1	51.323	53.469	51.786	7.143	5.741	5.833	3.622	0.028*			*
CS	17.107	17.823	17.262	2.381	1.914	1.944					
Fac 2	94.484	99.949	106.949	15.716	15.64	12.373	11.950	0.000**		**	**
CS	13.498	14.278	15.278	2.245	2.235	1.819					

KEY: Nfac= new factor structure, High = High SES; Mid = Middle SES and Wrk = Working SES. Fact 1 = Intrinsic Values and Fac 2 = Collectivistic Values.

* = significant at the $p < 0.05$ level and ** $P < 0.01$ level. A-B represents a significant difference between Higher SES and Middle SES; A-C represents a significant difference between Higher SES and Working SES and B-C represents a significant difference between Middle SES and Working SES. CS = Comparable Score

From the latter it may be seen that there are in fact significant differences between the three SES on the factor structure. As far as intrinsic values are concerned there is a significant difference between middle SES and working SES with middle SES pupils valuing it more. For collectivistic values working SES pupils value it more than both middle and higher SES pupils.

Table 6.12: ANOVA's and Tukey Results of the Alternate Factor Structure for the Two Gender Groups

Nfac	Means		SDS		F	P	Tukey	
	Male	Female	Male	Female			A-B	B-A
Fac 1	51.703	53.761	6.109	5.656	9.820	0.002**		**
CS	17.234	17.920	2.036	1.885				
Fac 4	42.968	44.859	7.083	7.682	5.246	0.023		*
CS	14.323	14.953	2.361	2.561				

KEY: Fac 1= Intrinsic Values and Fac 4= Social Values.

* is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level and ** $p < 0.01$ level. A-B means that males value it more than females and B-A means that females value it more than males.

from their peers even though they are in differing SES groups? The answer is that they will possibly have a similar pattern of work values to that of their peers. The reason for this conclusion is that interactions with peers from other SES groups have been said to supersede the values that developed in the family (Theron, 1991).

Gender differences made to it possible to highlight differences between groups in a more specific manner. Females valued intrinsic values more than males although males still placed high value on it and thus it could be deemed to be a strong work motivator. As with working class and Black pupils it may be thought that males and females could satisfy needs for personal development and achievement in differing ways. Langley (1995b) suggested that sex differences may be owing to gender stereotyping. Pryor (1983) supports the concept of the two differing genders satisfying needs in alternative manners. He states that females may achieve personal growth (development) by participating in altruistic activities. In this research results indicated that females tend to be more altruistic and collectivistically orientated on the whole. The reasons why females may be more collectivistically orientated is owing to role stereotyping that may occur during socialisation (Dickenson & Emler, 1992). Females experience what is called role conflict in which they have to balance their activities between the family and their jobs (Greenhaus et al. 1989). Her personal needs and values may naturally be put aside for the greater good of her 'community' the family (Schwartz, 1994). Gender theory has stated that females are more socialised to regard their most important role to be within the family and other roles to be subsidiary to this (Baugh, 1990; cited in Scandura & Lankau, 1997). In essence role conflict may result in the individual giving up their personal values in order to cope with multiple role expectations (Greenhaus et al. 1989).

The one collectivistic value of physical strength produced a significant difference between males and females with males, although males did not value it too highly, placing more importance on it. Personal development for males may, in the writer's opinion, be achieved in one way by means of building one self up physically as they may feel that developing oneself does not simply constitute mental development. The reason

in the work place. It is the writer's opinion that working class pupils may thus be able to acquire some feelings of personal development, ability utilisation and achievement by helping others and being active within collectivistic activities.

Results on the individualistic factor revealed that to an extent middle class and higher class, non government school pupils are more interested in autonomy and their own life style than working class individuals. Working class pupils, Blacks and government school pupils valued the one value of creativity more than the other groups. The reason why the latter results are being mentioned here is that they may demonstrate the manner in which the middle class pupils feel that their intrinsic needs could ever be satisfied. Middle class pupils may perceive personal development, ability utilisation and achievement to be a result of more individualised endeavors which is evident from the results on most, except creativity, of the individualised values. Creativity may be the only individualised value favoured by working class pupils and Blacks as it could be regarded to be an extension of aesthetics but a more personal contribution to making the encompassing environment more appealing.

Autonomy relates to aspects that would allow the person to make their own decisions and perform independently (Langley, 1995a). Individuals that valued this the most also were from non government schools which generally comprise pupils that are either middle or higher class. An individual with an individualised interest orientation may be likely to gauge their own achievement in their individual capacity as a measure of their success (Kluckohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). Success may be a way in which the person feels that they have achieved some degree of personal development. Working class and middle class individuals may demonstrate differences in intrinsic value orientations owing to their life circumstances. The future jobs that middle class pupils are likely to enter possibly will require more self direction and working class pupils jobs may require more conformity to authority (Kohn, 1977). Some individuals that attended non government schools could be classified as working class and the reason why they are at these schools is owing to bursaries. The question is whether these pupils would have differing values

that define it are more humane and are expressions of empathy, caring and morality (i.e. altruism, spirituality, aesthetics). Speculating, for the African Language speaking pupils they may have identified with these questions as being an expression of one of their most ingrained value of *ubuntu*. *Ubuntu* is emotional and deep and is often an accepted way of life (Boon, 1996).

In Western society the focus is on the individual and individual competition is encouraged (Boon, 1996) this seems to be consistent with the results of the English speaking pupils but not with the Afrikaans speaking pupils who also value collectivistic values more than English speaking pupils. Satisfaction of needs for personal development, ability utilisation and achievement may be a result of contributing to the welfare of the larger community for the Afrikaans speaking pupil but could be more individualistic for the English speaking pupil. Although both language groups could be regarded as being westernised, language has been reported as being an important determinant of White South African's sub cultures and differences between English and Afrikaans speaking people's work values have been found (Bluen & Barling, 1983).

Middle class pupils are not as collectivistic in their orientations, especially Whites and this may be owing to the fact that people in middle and higher classes may not be as committed to the community in which they are based as they do not need to rely on it for social support. In South Africa, religion has been a way that some poorer youth (particularly Black) have been given the opportunity to join the urban environment (Cross & Clarke, 1994). The latter youth did not have any personal means of economic support and thus needed to rely on the church. Religious organisations tend to stress the helping of others (altruism) and owing to changes or development of value hierarchies may have socialised youth into accepting this as a personal value. The latter does not suggest that only working class people are spiritual but rather that they may be more involved in church activities for social, psychological and even economic support. (Cross & Clarke, 1994). Owing to the nature of the questionnaire it is not possible to determine how a person would fulfill intrinsic needs as the satisfaction thereof may not necessarily be with

loyalty and abandonment of personal needs for the good of the group (Triandis, 1994). Working class pupils may simply wish they could satisfy intrinsic needs but are preparing themselves for the inevitable which would be to continue into similar jobs as their parents which do not offer much scope for personal development, achievement and ability utilisation (such as drivers, domestic workers and boilermakers).

Working class pupils still tended to highly value intrinsic needs and it is considered that they may fulfill this need through other avenues. As mentioned previously working class pupils are more collectivistic in their orientations than other classes. One of the more interesting results was on the collectivistic value of altruism that demonstrated that working class pupils, Blacks, African language speaking, government school pupils and females valued it significantly more than their counterparts. The nature of this sample and economic portfolio of South Africa indicates that the majority of working class pupils were in fact Black, spoke an African language and attended a government school. This suggests that working class, Black, gove nment school pupils tend to be more altruistic than other pupils with alternative biographical profiles. Collectivistic values together also tended to produce the same pattern except for the fact that Afrikaans pupils, at times, valued certain aspects of collectivism more than African language speaking pupils.

A reason why working class Black pupils may consistently value collectivistic values more is that they include acts of humanness. Humanness is defined as acts of compassion (Swannell, 1988). Cheatham's (1990) theory, that is in fact based on American society, may actually be applicable in this context. He found similar patterns of Black individuals valuing interdependence, obedience to authority and collectivity more than Whites who were more autonomous in their functioning. The latter seems applicable as in the African culture there is a traditional African heritage of what is called *ubuntu* which basically means morality, humanness, care, understanding, compassion and empathy (Boon, 1996). Several expressions with in the various African groups express the meaning of *ubuntu* which is best summed up by the Zulu or the Sotho (who call it *batho*) as 'a person is only a person because of other people' (Boon, 1996, p. 32). For collectivistic values the values

development and achievement are important values. Middle class individuals continued to be depicted as markedly intrinsically motivated in that they also valued ability utilisation significantly more than higher class individuals. In general the demographic variables of SES, gender and language depicted the most difference between groups.

A possible explanation why middle class pupils are more intrinsically driven on the whole than working class individuals may be owing to a concept know as the realisation of needs (Kohn, 1977). Although working class pupils placed generally high value on intrinsic values it was not surprising that middle class pupils valued it significantly more. Barriers exist in the achievement of mental labour which could satisfy intrinsic values. Working class pupils may have, through the mechanism of socialisation, learnt to accept that these barriers (such as lack of resources, knowledge and educational opportunities) may restrict their progression into more specifically middle class and, at times, intrinsically rewarding jobs. (Willis, 1977).

Gottfredson's (1981) theory of social space may further account for differences as working class pupils may have developed an idea of the type of occupation that is available to them owing to their circumstances and where they fit in society. They are possibly aware that their circumstances may limit their chances of having the opportunity to better their education and actually choose an occupation. Parents may have instilled into their children aspects of where they fit into the social strata by imparting experiences they have had in that class position (Wright & Wright, 1976). Realisation of intrinsic values may seem unrealistic for the working class pupil who is likely to be expected and needed to, upon leaving school, enter the working world in any position that they may be able to get.

Working class pupils may accept this for several reasons including the fact that they could feel a responsibility towards their family. This idea is evident from the results obtained for collectivistic values. Working class pupils are more collectivistic than both the other classes in their orientations. The very nature of collectivistic values calls for

The above description of the alternate factor structure and the reason why they have been renamed as they have serves as an introduction to the discussion with regards to further analysis that were performed to determine if there were differences between groups.

7.3) Differences Between Groups

7.3.1) Introduction

In order to make the following discussion more understandable a brief description of the format that will be used will be discussed. Both the results of the ANOVA's for the 22 values and the alternate composite values will be reviewed in an integrated fashion. The five factors making up the alternate factors will be the foundation and other results will be used to highlight differences, analyse questions and support meanings. The five factors include Intrinsic values; Collectivistic values; Individualistic values; Social values and Extrinsic values. Some researchers have stated that people that have differing life circumstances may pursue values through different avenues (Pryor, 1983). In this discussion the core values of intrinsic and extrinsic needs will form the basis and the other three values may be regarded as either complementing these values, being means of satisfying them or simply more specific extensions thereof.

7.3.2) Inner Orientated and Humane Values

Literature consistently tends to find that differences exist between the importance people attach to intrinsic and extrinsic values owing to varying life circumstances (Kohn, 1977; Bluen & Barling, 1983; Langley, 1995b). Individuals, in this research, that were middle class or Afrikaans or female were significantly more intrinsically motivated than individuals from other groups.

Intrinsic values consist of personal development, achievement and ability utilisation. Initially it may be said that, for females and middle class individuals, personal

the study. All of the above values have some type of group solidarity connotation and suggests that a person would be concerned with functioning on a social level. It was decided to adopt Langley's (1995a) term for this factor and name it Social values as all the values that define it have a group connotation. Questions imply that the person would be interested in partaking in group activities on both the social and cultural level. Cultural identity does to an extent imply that the individual would only engage in activities that were true to the their cultural group and thus takes the concept of social values to a more in depth level. There was an average correlation between social values and the previous collectivistic values. As mentioned collectivism means a 'collective identity', cultural identity could be a manifestation of this collectivistic need.

Social relations and interaction, on the other hand, implies that the individual would like to interact with people for their own personal satisfaction and only have social relations with people that they like. The latter may appeal to people who prefer other people's company as opposed to being separate but does not insinuate an 'unquestioning loyalty'.

Factor 5/ Extrinsic Values

This factor was defined by extrinsic values such as Economic Rewards, Economic Security, Advancement, Physical Working Conditions and Authority. Extrinsic values are defined as the need for rewards external to themselves and finds the job itself to have little or no meaning (Andrisani & Miljus, 1977). Langley (1995a) did not include Economic Security in a similar factor which was named Material needs. If, however, one was to view the questions with regards to this value they all tend to insinuate rewards external to the individual such as 'know that I can manage financially in hard times'. Thus, it is deemed appropriate to call this factor extrinsic Values as they are extended beyond the individuals them-selves.

autonomous life style. The only other value that was included here was variety in Langley's analysis. Another term that has been used to define individualism is idiocentricism which describes a person that is idiocentric to value pleasure, achievement, autonomy, competition, freedom and fair exchange (Triandis, 1994).

Cultures of 'separateness' demonstrate an individualistic orientation as the emphasis is on self-reliance (Kim, 1994). This factor seems to relate to the concept of individualism and corresponds with Sverko's (1995) principle components analysis results which also resulted in five factors one of which was renamed Individualism. This factor was firstly defined by own life style and autonomy and was to an extent saturated by creativity and variety, it did not include risk. The risk value may have been defined better if, as with physical strength and activities, a sixth factor had been selected, risk then loaded on this sixth factor along with the values associated with physical concepts. The latter would have confirmed both Sverko (1995) and Langley's (1995a) analysis. This value is not considered to be out of place defining this factor considering the questions. They all involve some type of 'I' consciousness (Hofstede, 1991; cited in Kim et al, 1994) such as making risky decisions, doing dangerous things if they interest the person and have thrilling experiences. The latter does not correlate well with the ideal of coexistence or collectivism which would require the individual to sacrifice one's own personal needs and wants for the good of society or the group (Schwartz, 1994). Coexistence or collectivism expects role fulfillment at the expense of individual desires, opinions and needs. (Kim, 1994). If the individual has responsibilities to the community or a family they are likely to be frowned upon if they seem 'irresponsible' by enjoying and partaking in risky and dangerous activities.

Factor 4/ Social Values:

Factor 4 is defined by Social Relations, Social Interaction and Cultural Identity. The latter confirms Langley's (1995a) analysis as well as Sverko's (1995) and Sverko (1995) did not mention cultural identity as this was an optional value that could be included in

to travel as a result of one's work does not represent a usual occurrence in work situations. The reason why this may have grouped within this factor could be a result of one seeing variety to be an affective need which leads to overall life satisfaction. Values such as spirituality and altruism may be seen as increasing the quality of one's life and could thus be the reason for variety being grouped along side them. Variety may, in certain instances, also be a result of collectivistic activities. Semler (1994) wrote a book that describes his organisation in which management is heavily based and guided by participation by the entire work force. If, for example, there are several forklift operators sick on one day the executive directors will go and operate the forklift. By this communal action the organisation is able to continue running, other forklift operators have less of a burden and the executive directors experience extensive variety. The latter is only one example where employees in the organisation are required to perform activities that are not part of their daily activities. By everyone making themselves available to 'help' out other departments there is both collectivistic cooperation and a great deal of variety.

Factor 3/ Individualistic Values

The reason why this factor has been renamed individualistic is a result of an extensive review of literature on this subject (Kim, 1994; Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi & Yoon, 1994; Triandis, 1994 amongst others). Individualism has been defined by Hofstede (1991, p. 51; cited in Kim et al, 1994, p. 2) as follows: 'Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family..'. He continues that individualistic societies emphasise the 'I' consciousness such as autonomy, emotional independence, individual initiative and universalism.

The values that loaded on this factor included Risk, Autonomy, Own Life Style and Creativity. All of the latter tend to emphasise independent and unique functioning in which the person would be responsible for their own well being without the influence of outside parties. Langley (1995a) also reported similar loadings which she renamed

Physical strength and activities are also related to another value that loaded on this factor namely prestige. People can acquire prestige from many sources but one of these could be physical strength and activities. In South Africa a particularly appropriate example of this concerns the sporting 'celebrities'. Sport is avidly followed by a number of people not only in South Africa but all around the world. Jonty Rhodes, for example, has gained respect and prestige from his accomplishments on the cricket field. His agility and strength in this physical activity has been not only a personal triumph, owing to his epilepsy, but has been an indication of possibilities and source of communal good to other people suffering from epilepsy. Jonty Rhodes has gained such prestige from his sporting triumphs that he is able to successfully make others aware of epilepsy by advertising a prominent epileptic organisation. Physical strength and activities can thus lend to the gaining of prestige as well as serving the larger community.

Prestige has also been suggested in literature to be extrinsic in nature as it is likely to involve the encompassing work environment and not the job itself (Hertzberg et al. 1959). The type of prestige that is depicted in the Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) may be represented by the type of questions asked. For prestige the questions are based on feelings of admiration, recognition, respect, being seen as a special person and noted for the work that has been done by the encompassing community. None of the questions center around material aspects of prestige such as high occupational status and many material symbols. Prestige, in Langley's (1995a) principle components analysis, was defined as a material orientation and grouped with other values such as working conditions, advancement and economic rewards. Prestige may be defined in several differing ways by individuals and test developers and thus it could be regarded to be accorded as a result of serving the community or a higher power which has a collectivistic connotation. Prestige is not only based on monetary and material rewards but could be a result of expertise, knowledge and tenure.

Finally, the questions that represent variety may be demonstrating this but seem more glamorous than general variety in a work situation may warrant. For example being able

psyche. In other words the manner in which things look and are laid out could assist one in determining what peoples values are. An example of this would be the layout of New York city as opposed to an African Kraal. The latter could be related to work values which may be represented by the layout of the office. If an office incorporates separate offices or cubicles the impression may be that the organisation could stress individualism. On the other hand if an office is open plan one may feel that the emphasis is on collectivistic cooperation and action.

The reason why physical strength and activities loaded on this factor may be explained by the fact that collectivism is concerned with 'interdependence and mutual help. Each individuals well being depends on the well being of the group; the group assumes responsibility for the well being of each of it's members' (Yau-Fai Ho & Chui, 1994, p. 140). Interpretation of the latter may eventuate in one deducing that without physical strength, especially for the male member, the person may not perceive themselves as being able to contribute to the mutual responsibility they feel towards the group. Similarly cooperation in these physical activities, especially sport, could be regarded by the collectivist as the most appropriate way to achieve goals (Yau-Fai Ho & Chui, 1994).

Physical strength may be an aspect that defines a collectivistic value in many cultures as it could represent a prerequisite for the good functioning of the culture. The latter is evident in the 'warrior ethic' that is incorporated into the Black culture whereby the males physical strength is an indication of how they would be able to defend the community (Boon, 1996). Clear division of labour in ancient work situations lay in the communality of the work activity. Men worked in the field where they could use their physical strength for activities that would result in produce necessary for the collectivistic good of the family. (Applebaum, 1992). Physical strength and activities have traditionally been regarded as a mechanism whereby the individual could use their physical abilities to serve the community.

Factor 2/ Collective Values

The components of this factor included Altruism, Spirituality, Physical Strength, Physical Activities, Aesthetics, Prestige and Variety.

Several of the values are not easily defined and identifiable. Langley (1995a) referred to values such as Altruism, Spirituality and to an extent Aesthetics as Humanistic and Religious. Upon an examination of the literature it was decided to label this factor as Collectivistic values. Hofstede (1991 p. 51, Cited in, Kim et al. 1994, p. 2) defines collectivism as the opposite of individualism and 'pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into shong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's life time continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty'. Collectivistic societies are said to stress the 'we' consciousness, collective identity, sharing, duties amongst others (Ibid.). Collectivism necessitates the individual to give group goals priority over personal needs (Schwartz, 1994).

The individual is not expected to not have any autonomous roles and goals but the most essential and directive roles and goals are those which are representative of the extended group (Kluckohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). The degree of collectivistic orientation the individual demonstrates may be indicative of how they would define certain values or how they would satisfy these values (Yu & Yang, 1994).

The values that loaded on this factor may be regarded as depicting a collectivistic orientation. The more obviously collectivistic values are those of spirituality, aesthetics and altruism which emphasise the serving or caring for a higher power, nature and helping others. For collectivistic societies membership in a religious organisation is essential and thus spirituality would naturally be deemed important (Yau-Fai Ho & Chui, 1994). Aesthetics may be a concrete manifestation of the 'we' consciousness. The meaning of the latter is that the surroundings may represent the extent of the collectivistic

By viewing the results and determining which work values are important to different groups it is important to note that the above may be an indication of why people work or wish to begin a career. It is evident that extrinsic factors, on a whole, are not the most important values driving this sample to the work force. People obviously value aspects beyond extrinsic rewards even if they are not at the appropriate level in Maslow's (1958) proposed hierarchy of needs that they would be interested in higher needs.

Differences that have been noted and possible explanations given are simply only speculations as firm reasons and inferences can not be made owing to the nature of the research design and lack of knowledge as to what and why individuals ranked values the way they did.

that of personal development which also was one of the values that defined factor 1 or intrinsic values of the alternate factor structure. In other studies it was also found that pupils valued the more inner-orient ted values the most (Langley, 1995b). The pooled sample valued *Risk* and factor 3/ individualistic values the least which indicates that the sample as a whole do not strongly value more independent functioning. It was noted that intrinsic values were valued most in the alternate factor structure followed by extrinsic values. It has been argued that extrinsic and intrinsic values are dichotomous in nature. If this is the case it would be thought that the pupils would not value them so closely as the means of the two are quite comparable and high. This suggests that people may have intrinsic and extrinsic value orientations simultaneously. Economic values are near the top of the rankings and imply that the sample as a whole are economically orientated.

Pupils on a whole are interested in advancement and development and this tends to relate to Hugo & Van Vuuren's (1996) study that found that Blacks were more interested in the latter as a work value. In this study Blacks did not significantly value personal development and growth more than Whites. The latter two valued these values similarly which contradicted Hugo & Van Vuuren's (1996) findings. The reason may be that the two samples are not completely similar as he used individuals who had already begun their university education whilst this sample consists of people at very different development points.

7.5) Conclusion

The above offers both comparisons with other studies and speculations as to the results obtained in this study. It is imperative that the differences between various SES, language, gender and race groups be considered. The management of diversity offers numerous challenges to the South African workplace and the realisation of future employees work values may make transitions more successful. People are different and the latter proves, to an extent, that different life situations result in differing needs and values.

not find this significant importance placed on cultural identity by Afrikaans speaking pupils. The reason for this could be that at the time of her study (1987-1988) the Afrikaner government was still in power and thus Afrikaans children were not faced with such a threat to their language and customs. The threat to the Afrikaans community could also be regarded as being publicised in order for it to be used as a weapon. Prominent Afrikaans leaders, such as Eugene Terblanche, tend to emphasise the threat to the Afrikaans community in order to instill feelings of cultural identity and to unite the Afrikaans community. The latter may partially account for why Afrikaans speaking pupils are the most interested in cultural identity.

Another reason why Afrikaans speaking pupils may place greater importance on cultural identity is that their culture and customs are very isolated and this makes the survival thereof more threatened. Afrikaans is a descendent of the Dutch language but is a separate language in it's own right. It is, however, limited only to South Africa and unlike, English for example, is not spoken in any other country in the world. This realisation that their customs, language and culture are so delicate may have instilled in them a need to maintain it themselves by participating and wanting to be with people that also share a common identity. This need to preserve one's culture may be further highlighted in the fact that on a whole Afrikaans pupils valued social values more than African language speaking and English pupils.

It is difficult to ascertain how people satisfy the values that they have and the extent of the inter connectedness between various values. The subject of values may thus be fruitfully explored with in the arena of synchronicity were one accepts that each value may be an extension of another.

7.4) Rankings of Work Values for the Pooled Sample

For both the 22 values and the possible alternate factor structure the entire sample tends to value ability utilisation as well as intrinsic values the most. Second most important is

Questions imply that the individual would be interested in having a good social life with friends and people that they like. Individuals that formed the higher SES group tend to be mostly White and if they are not White they are living in traditionally White areas. This may be seen in the results obtained for differences between race groups where Whites valued social relations significantly more than Black pupils did. The reason for this may lie in the fact that Blacks, whose cultures and communities are generally collectivistic, may take social relations for granted. White, higher and middle class pupils upbringings, from the results on values such as own life style and autonomy, seem to have encouraged self direction and individualism. For the 'westernised' people individualised competition is encouraged which dissipates the extent of 'social support' that an extended 'family' may provide (Boon, 1996). For the African person the extended group is the major focus and thus social relations in a caring and helping manner are encourage. The White individuals in upper classes may not be experiencing the degree of social interaction that the Black pupil naturally does and thus this desire could be demonstrated in a need to have good social relations.

The emphasis has been on the collectivistic tendencies of the Black communities but one particular result tends to detract from this argument. Interestingly Afrikaans speaking pupils valued cultural identity more than English speaking and African language speaking pupils. Cultural identity is interested in whether the person values conducting themselves in public and private according to the customs of their particular group. In South Africa the Afrikaans person traditionally fell into the dominant culture and numerous of the countries activities centered around their customs and traditions. Following the break down of aparthoid a new government has taken over and the Afrikaner no longer enjoys dominance over the functioning within the society. Boon (1996) stated that when a cultural group is threatened their degree of ethnicity (Cultural identity) increases and they look to their ethnic group for support. Afrikaans speaking pupils may be experiencing this break down of their customs on a societal level and that is why they may be interested in maintaining cultural identity. Although Langley (1995b) found Afrikaans and English speaking pupils to be more materialistic, social and inner orientated she did

authority and tend to only tap into one leadership style namely that of an authoritarian. An autocratic leader is defined by Robbins (1991, p. 360) as 'One who dictates decisions down to subordinates'. The implication is that subordinates are not provided with the chance to be involved in decisions that may even effect them. From the results of this study it may be concluded that these particular youth do not feel comfortable with such an undemocratic and unpopular position of authority. Thus, one can not state that there is a lack of ambition in this sample to be in positions of authority but rather the one form of authority portrayed here did not complement their ideals of democracy and popularity.

The relation to wanting to be with people one likes may also account for why scores on authority were so low. Being unpopular in the social setting in which one interacts can be devastating for an adolescent. In a study by Hartup (1983, cited in Carson & Butcher, 1992) there was found to be a relationship between being outgoing and friendly and popularity. Although this study was performed in the American setting average scores by this sample on social interaction and relations may indicate this to be an important facet to them. A person who expects their decisions to be followed and tell others what to do is not going to be naturally viewed as friendly and outgoing. Although this type of leader may make decisions and implement them in a friendly manner, pupils may not have perceived these questions to be capturing this form of social interaction.

Higher class pupils, Afrikaans speaking pupils and Whites tended to place significantly highest importance on social relations. These findings are consistent with Langley's (1995a) study which deemed the higher class to exhibit a preference for social values. The reason why higher class pupils may have accorded the highest value to social relations could be a result of the questions as well as the point they may be at in their social development. Grade eleven pupils are in the adolescent period when they are said, owing to several influential factors such as SES and gender, to look to more personal values and abilities to make decisions such as that of an occupational choice (Gottfredson, 1981).

feelings of elitism as, especially now, if one attends a non government school it is evident that your family has the funds to send you there (this is not the case with *all* non government school pupils as some get funded although these pupils may still feel elite owing to their peers influence). Non government school pupils are possibly not as concerned with this value as government school pupils as they possibly take it for granted. A reason why Afrikaans speaking pupils may have valued it more than English speaking pupils is that most of the pupils in non government schools were either African language speaking or English, a very small minority spoke Afrikaans. Some type of relationship may thus exist between the two findings.

The two almost purely extrinsic values of physical working conditions and authority rendered intriguing results. Although working class pupils tended to value it more than middle class pupils, Afrikaans speaking pupils tended to have the highest score on the physical working conditions value. The first result may be explained in the usual manner that middle class people would take such a basic amenity for granted (Kohn, 1977) but Afrikaans speaking pupils valuing it the most seems anomalous. African language speaking pupils valued it more than English speaking pupils as did Afrikaans speaking pupils however. The reason for this may be based on the samples make up. As mentioned previously most English speaking pupils tended to be middle or higher class whereas Afrikaans and African language speaking pupils were generally middle and working class groups.

It has been suggested that within groups of people there are natural leaders or people who wish to be leaders (Robbins, 1991) if this was the case for this sample then scores would possibly have been higher. A reason for this could rest in the manner in which authority was portrayed. For one to be in a position of authority then they would want to encourage other people to follow their point of view and policies (Langley, 1995a). The latter would be achieved by telling other people what to do, be perceived as insisting on their instructions being followed and make decisions independently of others that they will be required to follow (Ibid.). All of the latter seem to portray a negative concept of a

Following on from the fact that Middle SES groups and Whites valued economic security the most, is a concept known as relative deprivation. Uys (1989, p. 123) defines relative deprivation as:

> 'the perception of individuals (cognitive aspect) who, in comparison with individuals or groups (their comparative reference groups), do not possess a specific valuable object or enough of a desired object. They believe that they are entitled to possess that valuable object and therefore feel dissatisfied or aggrieved (affective aspect) about their non-possession of that valuable object'.

In other words White middle class individuals may be comparing themselves to individuals within their same SES group as opposed to the rest of the population. In other words if they do not have as much as people that they use as their reference group they may feel relatively deprived even though they are much better off than people in a SES group below them. Uys's (1989) study involving members of the Mamelodi township found that individuals that experienced the most relative deprivation were the people in a higher class, better educated and owned their own homes. In other words it was found that people who experience the most relative deprivation are the more influential members of the community. People in higher classes, are better educated and are in higher occupational status positions may be more aware, owing to greater exposure to media and other informative sources, of the possibility that their privileged life style could be threatened in South Africa owing to the economic problems and the fact that the aim is to allow all people equal opportunities. These same people may be feeling relative deprivation as they could suspect that their privileged position and way of living could be under threat.

Advancement was an interesting value as Afrikaans speaking pupils and government school pupils tended to value it more than English speaking pupils and non government school pupils. The very nature of a non government school may provide the pupils with

are African language speaking and tend to be the most economically disadvantage population in the country. This is evident from the fact that 37% of Blacks as opposed to 47% of Whites are economically active. Of the Blacks, that are economically active, only 1.23% are in middle or upper class occupations as opposed to 9% of Whites. (CSS, 1995). Economic security implied that the person would be able to personally *control* their financial future, questions suggest that rewards would not only be externally mediated but would be a result of abilities and personal capacities. Lower SES groups often find it difficult enough to live from day to day let alone plan for and have financial security.

Another reason why Whites and middle class pupils possibly place great emphasis on this value is that traditionally they have been the population that were more comfortable and prosperous. Opportunities were given to them especially in the educational sector which the Blacks were strongly denied. Middle class pupils and Whites may have gotten used to the lifestyle that they are living and now, with the changes in the country, could feel threatened. One's own lifestyle was found to be significantly important to middle class and non government school pupils. In order to maintain the kind of lifestyle that they are used to, economic security is essential and possibly the reason why it is significantly more valued than working class pupils. Afrikaans males particularly valued individualistic needs more than African language speaking males. This may be owing to the fact that they could feel that their separate identity and life style is threatened. This is supported by the fact that Afrikaans speaking pupils valued cultural identity the most out of all the groups.

7.3.3) External, Social and Material Values

In this study it was interesting to note that extrinsic values were valued in some cases more by working class pupils and in others more by middle class pupils. This finding discounts the once believed concept that these two forms of value orientation are on opposite ends of the spectrum (Andrisani & Miljus, 1977).

From the onset it should be noted that there were no significant differences between any of the groups on the value of economic rewards which confirms Langley's (1995b) findings. From this result it is evident that all pupils value the economic motive involved in working quite substantially. It is thought that economic rewards may be the prerequisite of any job on which other activities may be built. What this means is that without the economic aspect it may be unlikely that, in the workplace, other needs could be satisfied. Referring back to Hertzberg et al. (1959) and Maslow's (1954) theories, these results may be partially explained. Although people in higher socio-economic status groups value intrinsic values more this may be owing to the fact that the outside conditions (i.e. economic rewards) are present (Maslow, 1954). Economic rewards may also not result in satisfaction in the work place, as would more intrinsic factors, but if they are not present dissatisfaction could result (Hertzberg et al. 1959). In other words all pupils expect some form of economic reward to be present before they can begin to move psychologically up Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The reason why working class pupils are not at the same level in their desire for intrinsic factors is not because they do not want them, but the very foundation of why they need to work is possibly still an issue for them. Past studies have revealed that higher class individuals take the very basic extrinsic values for granted and a given in their occupations which opens up the path for the focus shifting to more intrinsic motives (Kohn, 1977).

Following on from this is the fact that middle class pupils valued economic security more than working class pupils, Whites valued it more than Blacks and Afrikaans and English speaking pupils valued it more than African language speaking pupils. Blacks generally

there is no way to tell what females and males regard to be achievement and how they would satisfy intrinsic needs.

Another interesting result, which may add further insight into the understanding of working class, Black, African language speaking and females collectivistic actions, is on the value of prestige. Significantly high prestige scores by the latter groups may be owing to the discrimination each of these groups has had to contend with in the past. As this legacy of discrimination is being strongly opposed these groups may feel hopeful that opportunities are more available to them now. For instance Black pupils may value prestige more than Whites as they have only recently been experiencing a society in which equal employment is law as traditionally the higher level jobs have been reserved for Whites only (Bluen & Barling, 1983). This may also now be more applicable to females. They now may have become interested in prestige as the realisation of such a value is more likely with affirmative action policies. For Whites and males the prestige attached to jobs may not be regarded as an essential work value as traditionally jobs that are higher up on the ladder have been solely preserved for Whites and males (Bluen & Barling, 1983). Bluen & Barling (1983) also reported that White South African males tended to not accord a great deal of value to social stat .

Inner orientated and humane needs are generally concerned with aspects that may be internalised or extended in a giving way beyond the person. From this sample and the subsequent results it is speculated that pupils may not all perceive intrinsic satisfactions to be quantified and acquired through the same avenues. This may highlight the fact that pupils may rank values in a similar fashion but the intensity or prevalence of that value may differ depending on feelings of communal responsibility, circumstances and orientations. In the next section, values that are more extrinsic in nature and may be achieved through external mechanisms, will be discussed and the importance thereof highlighted.

reason why females have acquired knowledge with regards to traditional gender stereotyping (Ibid.). Even within the school situation gender socialisation may be occurring that insinuates what appropriate career paths are for males and females (Eckart & Tracy, 1992). By determining how individuals would rank their values and what is most important to them is not sufficient information to determine how they would endeavour to pursue the satisfaction of those values. In other words females may still regard personal development and achievement to be a result of successfully raising a family. Thus it can not be unequivocally stated that females are no longer gender role bound as one can not be certain what they are basing their rankings of values on.

It is, however, essential to note that females valued the intrinsic value of achievement more than males. This suggests that females are more achievement orientated. On the other hand it could demonstrate that females are more concerned with achieving than males as they are uncertain as to how achievement orientations may be transferred into the work situation owing to the pressure placed on them to compare work and family roles (Card et al. 1980).

Gender differences that were found in this study are not in opposition to other studies and continue to suggest that females value being more personally developed than males (Langley, 1996). It does not give any further information as to how the female pupil would facilitate achievement and personal development but it is the writer's opinion that it could be as a result of helping others and serving a higher power. Achievement motivation of females has been argued to be different to the need for achievement displayed by males (Fitzgerald & Crites, 1980). The latter has been said to be unfounded in theory as numerous females have been studied and the result indicated that they had the same achievement motivation as males (Ibid.). Depending on the theory adopted, some may say that females may be motivated to achieve within the communal arena (Stein & Bailey, 1975; cited in Fitzgerald & Cites, 1980) which is where altruistic needs could be satisfied. The latter theory is dated and changes may have occurred in the way females hope to achieve and in which setting. Owing to the nature of the questionnaire

for this may be that males may have internalised the importance of physical aspects and begun to correlate it with an indication of one's masculinity (Mayers, 1997). If males are interested in masculinity, especially at this point in their development, then it is felt that scores would have naturally been higher on physical strength. The reason why this may not have been the case is that the questions capturing this tended to insinuate that they would like to work with heavy equipment in more menial jobs. Males may thus be more interested in this value than depicted but, owing to the nature of the questions, not perceived it to be in conjunction with their ideas of physical strength.

The reason for the latter statement is that, in African cultures especially, values of skill, courage and the ability to demonstrate the values of the 'warrior' are extremely important in the development of the male (Boon, 1996). Although there were no significant differences between the race groups it is noted that Blacks do in fact value physical strength more than any of the other race groups. Black males are constantly tested and test friendships they have with others to demonstrate courage and preparedness, the more they succeed the more they advance in the 'pecking' order (Boon, 1996). This advancement could be regarded as intrinsic in nature and a total passion to improve as well as 'an understanding and acceptance that the individual and the team are crucial to life' (Boon, 1996, p. 42). Credo Mutwa (cited in Boon, 1996) likens the ideal of the 'warrior' ethic to the work place where everyday the 'warrior' must come to the 'battlefield' (workplace) filled with inspiration not anger. If he encounters a problem help can be requested from the chief or Induma, but if he must act along he must do so in a manner that does not destabilise the rest of the group. (Ibid.). Once again the importance of the collectivised community is demonstrated.

Another interesting results is that females valued intrinsic needs more than males which lends to the challenge that females may no longer feel gender role bound (Betz & Fitzgerald 1987; cited in Douce & Hanson, 1990). Gender bias has resulted in concerns that females potential has been limited and that they have not been afforded the same opportunities to advance into higher positions (Shore, 1992). Socialisation may be the

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8.4) Conclusion

Any study that involves human's and aspects of their psychological functioning can never be completely controlled as there will consistently be numerous unanswered questions and possibilities. In this study, however, one may say with a degree of confidence that grade eleven pupils do not have a homogenous value portfolio although sub-groups with in the larger sample may be identified owing to the similarities that they demonstrate in their value priorities.

The concept of values and work values are, in the opinion of the writer, still ideals which people have not even begun to understand. Not only do we tend to haphazardly define them but we also underestimate their power. The unending possibilities for organisations and individuals alike are boxed into a few term.., which we often view as the ultimate in what may be regarded as a limited construct. Studies are based on hierarchical conceptualisations which limit and underestimate the extensive possibilities a comprehensive understanding of values may afford us.

negative aspects of the organisation and the job (Greenhaus & Callanan 1994). The organisation would also be able to gauge whether the job that is on offer will actually be able to satisfy the needs of the person. Realistic recruitment is a way to select people who are already motivated to achieve organisational objectives as they have congruent values or needs (Mapes, 1996). Without a full understanding as to what people want out of work tension and stress may eventuate which could hinder both the organisation and the employee (Van Der Walt, 1994). By having a comprehensive portfolio of what the person values the matching of people to jobs and organisations may be more successful.

Values need to be studied, however, in a more uniform fashion as various definitions and questions are used to depict a seemingly replicable value. In this study an attempt was made to highlight and analyse the question the test developer had used to define and capture various values. By doing this a more comprehensive picture could be provided as to the appropriateness of the terms given to describe certain values.

Another reason why individuals work values are an essential topic is to assist in the successful transition of the New South Africa as far as economics, politics and labour problems are concerned. A disparity between people's values may make the handling of diversity, affirmative action and the understanding of cultural differences more difficult. By accepting that values, both life and work, may capture the essence of a person's functioning labour problems and implementations may be approached in a different manner.

Adolescents are the future work force and businesses need to acknowledge what is important to them as far as what they value or need in order for future development. The understanding of our youth's work values could be regarded as one essential building block in the establishment of a successful and harmonious New South Africa.

It would also be interesting to determine how having a part time job may effect how an individual prioritises their work values. The type of part time work may also yield interesting responses as there could be differences owing to the various work settings.

The definitions of the various values and questions used to capture their importance could be the focus of an entire study. The reason for this is that various authors and test developers may have differing perceptions as to what each value constitutes and which questions may in fact depict them. More conformity is needed in the definition and study of values. This may be extended further by determining what people are basing their values on and through which avenues they hope to satisfy them.

Lastly, a comparison could be made between individuals who have recently entered the world of work and those who are preparing to enter it. This would assist in determining whether work values are in fact able to be altered or possibly the intensity of the desire simply reduced by the reality of the work situation.

8.3) Implications

By determining what people value one may establish what the meaning of work is in their lives (Harpaz, 1985). People do not tend to all value the same things in the work situation which may be seen from the results of the present study. By analysing one's work values the implication is that the meaning of work and what motivates the person to work to attain their valued needs and goals is captured (Sverko & Vizek-Vidovic, 1995).

By studying the work values of adolescents who are nearing the end of their schooling careers, work entry portfolios may be established. These portfolios provide both the individual and various institutions (i.e. Universities, colleges and organisations) of what is important to those individuals in their future lives and careers. For an organisation this knowledge may assist in fulfilling objectives of realistic recruitment programs. Realistic recruitment is the preparation of the potential job incumbent for both positive and

good reliability (Ibid.). By using a Likert scale it is not possible to determine the reason why one value may be more important than the other.

Fourthly, in other similar studies another questionnaire namely, the Life Role Inventory was also administered in order to determine what the most important role is in the person's life (i.e. Leisurite, homemaker). The reason why this could not also be done in this study was owing to time constraints. The Values Scale (Langley, 1995a) and the Biographical questionnaire took about an hour to administer depending on the language proficiency of the pupils. The schools were even reluctant to allow a hours time and the additional questionnaire may have extended the time required by half and hour. One hour is two class periods and schools were not prepared to allow a third class period to be forfeited.

Fifthly, It would have been interesting to ask the pupils which of them had part time work as this would have provided some indication as to which of them may have had some influence on their work values from the work situation itself.

Finally, owing to the design of this research it is not possible to discount numerous rival hypothesis and make inferences. The differences may not be as simply recognisable as supposed owing to the effects of more than one demographic variable on the values. The reason why multivariate tests could not be adequately used was owing to the fact that there would not have been sufficient individuals in each cell and results may have not been meaningful.

8.2) Suggestions for Future Research

One of the first suggestions that may be made is that the individual African language speaking and Black cultural groups should be studied in order to determine if there are differences in their work values. Although these groups may all be native to the African continent they could have some very interesting and diverse work value orientations.

Chapter Eight

Limitations, Suggestions for Future Research, Implications and Conclusion

8.1) Limitations

As with any research there are always limitations. In the following the limitations of this study will be expanded upon.

Firstly, the sample that was selected may be regarded as a limitation from the onset. Random selection of schools and pupils was not possible owing to limited access which makes generalisability of results difficult. It was, however, attempted to select schools on the basis that they may represent the larger population but this can not be guaranteed.

Secondly, the fact that grade eleven pupils were only sampled may reduce the value of the results. The study was only restricted to a specific time period when work values are presumed to be formulated (Wijting et al. 1977). It may have also been more beneficial to test grade twelve pupils who are more likely to be seriously considering their future occupations. The reason why grade eleven pupils were selected was two fold: firstly, they are in the 16 to 18 age group and is argued that they should be at a point in their career development that their values are already crystallised (Gottfredson, 1981) and secondly, the principals at most of the schools that were approached were not prepared to give the time required to administer the questionnaires in the pupils matric year.

Thirdly, the Value Scale (Langley, 1995a) utilises a Likert type response scale and it does not restrict the pupil to prioritising which value they would place first and so forth. Thus, it does not force the pupil to rank their 22 values. Likert scales have been criticised for their lack of reproducibility and these scales have no interval measures which means that it is not easy to determine if scores in the middle range changed from mildly positive to mildly negative (Oppenheim, 1966). Likert scales have certain advantages such as having

(Question 6 continued).

Mother	Passed std. 5 [ ] Passed std. 8 [ ] Passed matric [ ] University/college completed [ ]
Guardian	Passed std. 5 [ ] Passed std. 8 [ ] Passed matric [ ] University/college completed [ ]

7) If you ticked the box for university/college education for any of the above relations please write what the highest level they got to in this area:

Father.....

.....

Mother.....

.....

Guardian.....

.....

8) Who do you live with most of the time? (During the school term).

Both Parents [ ]

Father [ ]

Mother [ ]

Guardian [ ]

9) Do you have any of the following in your house? (Mark in the box with a X as many as you have in your house)

Electricity [ ]

Running water [ ]

A television or televisions [ ]; if more than one how many? .....

P.T.O.

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS:
Please complete all the questions in this questionnaire. If a line appears after the question you have to write out the answer. If a block appears after the question please mark the correct box or boxes if necessary with a X.

1) Testee number: .....

2) Sex: Male [ ] or Female [ ].

3) What area do you live in? (What is the name of your suburb or township?).
.....

4) How long have you been at this school?

0-1 years [ ]; 1-2 years [ ]; 2-3 years [ ]; 3-4 years [ ]; more than 4 years [ ].

5) Which other high schools have you been to school at, for how long and which areas were they in? (Leave out if not applicable)

Name of school	For how long	Area (town/district)

6) What are the present occupations and educational success of your parents or guardian.

Relationship	What job does he/ she do?	Educational Level
Father		Passed std. 5 [ ] Passed std. 8 [ ] Passed matric [ ] University/college completed [ ]

P.T.O.

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The Principal,

Dear 28th May 1997

I am an Industrial Psychology masters student at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of the masters course one is required to complete a research project which I am currently doing under the supervision of Mr. Larry Mayers. I request permission for std. 9 pupils at to participate in my study.

The aim of my study is to determine what the career values are of std. 9 pupils living in South-Africa. Career values have been said to be the starting point in career choice which relates to the need an individual wishes to satisfy in the pursuance of a career. Std. 9 pupils are at the late adolescent stage and it is at this time that they begin to evaluate the relative importance of work in their value system. I wish to look at the relationship between variables such as socio-economic status, gender, language e.t.c. and the meaning of work in the lives of a sample of std. 9 pupils.

Two instruments will be used to collect information namely : The Values Scale (1995) and a biographical questionnaire. The Values scale takes between 30 and 50 minutes to complete and the biographical questionnaire should take about 10 minutes to complete. A few extra minutes will also be required to give the pupils instructions as to how to complete the questionnaires. The names of the pupils will not appear on either of the questionnaires ensuring anonymity.

Once my research is completed I will be pleased to send you a copy of the results which should give you some indication of the career values of your std. 9 pupils as a group. All results obtained will be kept confidential and only general group trends will be presented.

and the std. 9 pupil's participation will be much appreciated and greatly valued. Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Belinda Anne Brebnor (Tel. 011: 678-2179)

Mr. Larry Mayers, M.A. (Supervisor).

The University of the Witwatersrand rejects apartheid and racial segregation. It is committed to non-discrimination particularly in the constitution of its student body, in the selection and promotion of its staff, and in its administration.

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(Question 6 continued).

Mother	Passed std. 5 ☐ Passed std. 8 ☐ Passed matric ☐ University/college completed ☐
Guardian	Passed std. 5 ☐ Passed std. 8 ☐ Passed matric ☐ University/college completed ☐

7) If you ticked the box for university/college education for any of the above relations please write what the highest level they got to in this area:

Father.....

.....

Mother.....

.....

Guardian.....

.....

8) Who do you live with most of the time? (During the school term).

Both Parents ☐

Father ☐

Mother ☐

Guardian ☐

9) Do you have any of the following in your house? (Mark in the box with a X as many as you have in your house)

Electricity ☐

Running water ☐

A television or televisions ☐; if more than one how many? .....

P.T.O.

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS:
Please complete all the questions in this questionnaire. If a line appears after the question you have to write out the answer. If a block appears after the question please mark the correct box or boxes if necessary with a X.

1) Testee number .....

2) Sex: Male [ ] or Female [ ].

3) What area do you live in? (What is the name of your suburb or township?).
.....

4) How long have you been at this school?
0-1 years [ ]; 1-2 years [ ]; 2-3 years [ ]; 3-4 years [ ]; more than 4 years [ ].

5) Which other high schools have you been to school at, for how long and which areas were they in? (Leave out if not applicable).

Name of school	For how long	Area (town/district)

6) What are the present occupations and educational success of your parents or guardian.

Relationship	What job does he/ she do?	Educational Level
Father		Passed std. 5 [ ] Passed std. 8 [ ] Passed matric [ ] University/college completed [ ]

P.T.O.

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The Principal,

Dear 28th May 1997

I am an Industrial Psychology masters student at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of the masters course one is required to complete a research project which I am currently doing under the supervision of Mr. Larry Mayers. I request permission for std. 9 pupils at to participate in my study.

The aim of my study is to determine what the career values are of std. 9 pupils living in South-Africa. Career values have been said to be the starting point in career choice which relates to the need an individual wishes to satisfy in the pursuance of a career. Std. 9 pupils are at the late adolescent stage and it is at this time that they begin to evaluate the relative importance of work in their value system. I wish to look at the relationship between variables such as socio-economic status, gender, language e.t.c. and the meaning of work in the lives of a sample of std. 9 pupils.

Two instruments will be used to collect information namely : The Values Scale (1995) and a biographical questionnaire. The Values scale takes between 30 and 50 minutes to complete and the biographical questionnaire should take about 10 minutes to complete. A few extra minutes will also be required to give the pupils instructions as to how to complete the questionnaires. The names of the pupils will not appear on either of the questionnaires ensuring anonymity.

Once my research is completed I will be pleased to send you a copy of the results which should give you some indication of the career values of your std. 9 pupils as a group. All results obtained will be kept confidential and only general group trends will be presented.

and the std. 9 pupil's participation will be much appreciated and greatly valued. Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Brebner

Belinda Anne Brebner (Tel. 011: 678-2179)

Mr. Larry Mayers, M.A. (Supervisor).

The University of the Witwatersrand rejects racism and racial segregation. It is committed to non-discrimination, particularly in the constitution of its student body, in the selection and promotion of its staff, and in its admission criteria.

Dit is nou of dit sal in die toekoms belangrik vir my wees om ...		It is now or will in the future be important to me to ...	
90.	die resultate van my pogings te sien.	90.	see the results of my efforts.
91.	te weet dat beter dinge op my weg lê.	91.	know I am on my way to better things.
92.	in staat te wees om my omgewing mooier te maak.	92.	be able to make my surroundings more beautiful.
93.	ander te help, al beteken dit dat ek my eie gemak gedeeltelik moet prysgee.	93.	help others, even if it means giving up some of my own comforts.
94.	ander mense te laat verstaan dat my instruksies uitgevoer moet word.	94.	have other people know that my instructions are to be followed.
95.	my eie werksure te bepaal.	95.	set my own working hours.
96.	aan nuwe dinge te dink om te maak of te doen.	96.	think up new things to make or do.
97.	in te pas terwyl ek steeds aan my herkoms getrou bly.	97.	fit in while being true to my cultural values.
98.	geld te maak.	98.	make money.
99.	te weet dat ek selfs in moeilike tye finansieel oor die weg kan kom.	99.	know I can manage financially even in hard times.
100.	my eie lewenswyse te ontwikkel.	100.	develop my own lifestyle.
101.	persoonlike groei te ervaar deur my bedrywighede (die dinge wat ek doen).	101.	exprience personal growth through the things I do.
102.	dinge te doen wat fisiese fiksheid verg.	102.	do things that require physical fitness.
103.	op gesteun te word wanneer liggaamlike krag noodsaaklik is.	103.	be relied upon when physical strength is essential.
104.	erkenning te kry van ander vir die werk wat ek gedoen het.	104.	have people recognize the work I have done.
105.	planne te kan beraam of besluite te kan neem wat 'n mate van risiko inhou.	105.	be able to make plans or decisions that involve some risk.
106.	kontak met mense te maak.	106.	make contact with people.
107.	in aanraking te wees met mense van wie ek hou.	107.	be in touch with other people that I like.
108.	my talente in diens van 'n Opperwese te gebruik.	108.	use my talents in the service of a Supreme Being.
109.	verskillende plekke te kan besoek as deel van my werk.	109.	be able to visit different places as part of my job.
110.	in 'n aantreklike of selfs 'n pragtige omgewing te werk.	110.	work in attractive or even beautiful surroundings.

96-38

Dit is nou of dit sal in die toekoms belangrik vir my wees om ...	It is now or will in the future be important to me to ...
67. my sterk punte te benut.	67. make the best use of my strong points.
68. te voel dat ek regtig iets bereik het.	68. have a feeling of having really done something.
69. te kan dink aan bevordering.	69. be able to think in terms of advancement (promotion).
70. deur die mooie omring te wees.	70. be surrounded by beauty.
71. 'n mens te wees wat ander help wat hulp nodig het.	71. be a person who helps others in need of assistance.
72. besluite te neem wat deur ander nagevolg word.	72. make decisions that others follow.
73. my eie baas te wees.	73. be my own boss.
74. iets te skep wat verskil van enige iets wat voorheen gemaak is.	74. make something different to anything made before.
75. te voel dat ek deur lede van die taalgroep aanvaar word.	75. feel accepted by members of my own language group.
76. goeie behuising te he.	76. have good housing.
77. te weet dat 'n toevallige terugslag nie regtig my inkomste sal raak nie.	77. know that an occasional setback will not really affect my income.
78. my werk teen my eie tempo te doen.	78. do my work at my own pace (tempo).
79. die mens te word wat ek wil wees.	79. become the person I want to be.
80. liggaamlik fiks te wees.	80. be physically fit.
81. gerespekteer te word vir my fisiese krag.	81. be respected for my physical strength.
82. as 'n besondere mens beskou te word.	82. be seen as a special person.
83. die opwindende gevoel van gevaar te beleef.	83. feel the thrill (exciting feeling) of danger.
84. met mense te praat.	84. talk to people.
85. 'n werk te he waar ek maklik vriende kan maak.	85. have a job where I can easily make friends.
86. tot die verbetering van die samelewing te kan bydra.	86. be able to contribute to the improvement of society.
87. te reis as deel van my werk.	87. travel as part of my work.
88. by 'n plek te werk waar 'n gerieflike temperatuur in stand gehou word.	88. work in a building in which a comfortable temperature is maintained.
89. iets te doen wat ek weet ek goed kan doen.	89. do something I know I can do well.

Dit is nou of dit sal in die toekoms belangrik vir my wees om ...

44. goeie sanitere fasiliteite (bv. 'n kloedkamer) by die werk te he.
45. my vermoens te ontwikkel.
46. 'n hoe standaard in my werk te bereik.
47. bevordering te kan kry.
48. niet mooi dinge in my werk gemoeid te wees.
49. so te werk dat die wereld vir almal 'n beter plek word.
50. die persoon te wees wat sake by die werk beheer.
51. die vryheid te he om die werk op my eie manier te doen.
52. die geleentheid te he om nuwe idees by die werk uit te toets.
53. te voel dat ek sowel as ander lede van my kulturele groep by die werk aanvaar word.
54. goed besoldig te word vir watter werk ek ook al doen.
55. 'n versekerde toekoms te he.
56. te werk waaraan ek wil wanneer ek wil.
57. persoonlike bevrediging uit my werk te put.
58. fisies aktief in my werk te wees.
59. my liggaamlike krag te gebruik.
60. op grond van my werk hoog geag te word.
61. gevaarlike take te aanvaar indien hulle my interesseer.
62. saam met ander mense te wees terwyl ek werk.
63. saam met my eie soort mense te wees.
64. voorspoed en vrede in die wereld te bevorder.
65. werksaktiwiteite dikwels af te wissel.
66. teen die weer beskerm te wees terwyl ek werk.

It is now or will in the future be important to me to ...

44. have good sanitary facilities (e.g. a cloakroom) at work.
45. develop what I can do well (my abilities).
46. reach a high standard in my work.
47. be able to get promotion.
48. be concerned (busy) with beautiful things in my work.
49. work in a way that makes the world a better place.
50. be the one who manages things at work.
51. be free to get on with a job in my own way.
52. have a chance to try out new ideas at work.
53. feel that I as well as other members of my cultural group are accepted at work.
54. be well paid for whatever work I may do.
55. have a secure future.
56. work at what I want to when I want to.
57. find personal satisfaction in my work.
58. be physically active in my work.
59. use my physical strength.
60. be held in high esteem (respect) because of my work.
61. take on dangerous tasks if they interest me.
62. be with other people while I work.
63. be with my kind of people.
64. further welfare and peace in this world.
65. change work activities frequently.
66. be protected from the weather while I work.

Dit is nou of dit sal in die toekoms belangrik vir my wees om ...	It is now or will in the future be important to me to ...
23. werk te doen wat my vermoens benut (my aanleg).	23. do work that makes use of what I can do well (my abilities).
24. te weet dat my inspanning raakgesien sal word.	24. know that my efforts will be noticed.
25. vinnig vooruitgang te maak in my beroep.	25. get ahead quickly in my career.
26. geniet te put uit die skoonheid van my werk.	26. find pleasure in the beauty of my work.
27. betrokke te wees by werk waar die doel is om mense te help.	27. be involved in work (in which the goal is) helping people.
28. 'n leier by die werk te wees.	28. be a leader at work.
29. my eie besluite by die werk te neem.	29. make my own decisions at work.
30. iets nuuts in my werk te skep.	30. create something new in my work.
31. te werk waar mense met my kulturele agtergrond ook goeie werksmoontlikhede het.	31. work where people of my cultural background also have good job possibilities.
32. 'n goeie inkomste te hê.	32. have a good income.
33. te weet dat ek altyd 'n bestaan sal kan voer.	33. know that I can always make a living.
34. my lewe op my manier te leef.	34. live my life my way.
35. idees te hê oor wat om met my lewe te doen.	35. have ideas about what to do with my life.
36. deel te neem aan sport en ander fisiese aktiwiteite.	36. take part in sport and other physical activities.
37. kragtige masjinerie te hanteer.	37. handle power machines.
38. erkenning vir my prestasies te ontvang.	38. be recognized for my accomplishments (success).
39. te voel dat daar 'n mate van risiko of gevaar in my werk is.	39. feel that there is some risk or some danger in the work I do.
40. liewer in 'n groep as alleen te werk.	40. work in a group rather than by myself.
41. dinge te doen saam met mense van wie ek hou.	41. do things with people I like.
42. te leef volgens godsdienstige beginsels.	42. to live according to religious principles.
43. 'n aantal verskillende dinge deur die loop van die dag te doen.	43. do a number of different things during the day.

DIE WAARDESKAAL (WS)

Dit is nou of dit sal in die toekoms belangrik vir my wees om ...

1. al my vaardighede en kennis te gebruik.
2. resultate te behaal wat my goeie werk van my sal aantoon.
3. vooruitgang te maak in my beroep.
4. die lewe mooier te maak.
5. mense met probleme te help.
6. aan ander te vertel wat hulle moet doen.
7. op my eie te handel.
8. nuwe dinge te ontdek, te ontwikkel of te ontwerp.
9. te woon waar mense van my godsdiens en kulturele groep ook aanvaar word.
10. 'n hoe lewenstandaard te handhaaf.
11. 'n gevoel van ekonomiese sekuriteit te he.
12. volgens my eie opvattings te leef.
13. as persoon te ontwikkel.
14. baie liggaamlike oefening te kry.
15. fisies hard te werk.
16. bewondering te ontvang vir my kennis en vaardighede.
17. waaghalsige dinge aan te vang.
18. saam met ander mense dinge te doen.
19. saam met vriende te wees.
20. te help om die wereld 'n beter plek te maak.
21. elke dag op die een of ander manier verskillend van die vorige te ervaar.
22. genoegsame werksruimte en lig te he om in te werk.

THE VALUES SCALE (VS)

It is now or will in the future be important to me to ...

1. use all my skills and knowledge.
2. have results which will show that I have done well.
3. get ahead in my job.
4. make life more beautiful.
5. help people with problems.
6. tell others what to do.
7. act on my own.
8. discover, develop (start) or design new things.
9. live where people of my religion and cultural group are also accepted.
10. have a high standard of living.
11. have a feeling of economic security.
12. live according to my own ideas.
13. develop as a person.
14. get a lot of physical exercise.
15. work hard physically.
16. be admired for my knowledge and skills.
17. do risky things.
18. do things together with other people.
19. be with friends.
20. help to make the world a better place.
21. have every day be different in some way from the one before.
22. have enough work space and light to work in.

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WAARDESKAAL (WS)
VALUES SCALE (VS)

Groep : Onderwys
Group : Education

WAARDESKAAL (WS)
VALUES SCALE (VS)

(Question 9 continued)

Flushable toilet or toilets ☐

A television or televisions ☐; if more than one how many? .....

A computer or computers: ☐; if more than one how many? .....

10) About how many of any kind of book do you have in your house?
None ☐; 1-20 ☐; 21-100 ☐; more than 100 ☐.

11) Does your family own a car? yes ☐ or no ☐

12) What languages did you learn at home to speak and write properly?
.....
.....
.....

13) What language does your family speak most often at your house?
.....

14) What two careers or jobs have you thought about in the last year as what you would like to do when you leave school?
Career/job: .....

Career/job: .....

Please let the tester know that you have finished by putting your pencil down and sitting back. Thank you for your assistance!

(Question 9 continued)

Flushable toilet or toilets ☐

A television or televisions ☐; if more than one how many? .....

A computer or computers: ☐; if more than one how many? .....

10) About how many of any kind of book do you have in your house?
None ☐; 1-20 ☐; 21-100 ☐; more than 100 ☐.

11) Does your family own a car? yes ☐ or no ☐

12) What languages did you learn at home to speak and write properly?
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.....
.....

13) What language does your family speak most often at your house?
.....

14) What two careers or jobs have you thought about in the last year as what you would like to do when you leave school?
Career/job: .....

Career/job: ....

Please let the tester know that you have finished by putting your pencil down and sitting back. Thank you for your assistance!

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