

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

A Synergistic Model of Organizational Career Development:  
Bridging the Gap Between Employees and Organizations

by

Kerry B. Bernes

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

CALGARY, ALBERTA

MARCH, 1998

© Kerry B. Bernes 1998



National Library  
of Canada

Acquisitions and  
Bibliographic Services

395 Wellington Street  
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4  
Canada

Bibliothèque nationale  
du Canada

Acquisitions et  
services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington  
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4  
Canada

*Your file* *Votre référence*

*Our file* *Notre référence*

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-31013-2

## **ABSTRACT**

This dissertation argues that, as our global economy becomes increasingly competitive, organizations will be forced to adopt a more comprehensive, future-oriented, and integrated approach to managing their human resources. Unfortunately, the era of restructuring, downsizing, and rightsizing has made this increasingly difficult. Other changes in the world of work (such as the shift from long-term working arrangements to temporary contract work; the less frequent use of concepts such as career paths, career hierarchies, and promotion from within; the increased outsourcing of non-essential tasks; and flattened hierarchies) have collectively put pressure on existing models of organizational career development. After critiquing current models of organizational career development, it is suggested that existing models have begun to lose their usefulness and that a new model of organizational career development needs to be created. Essentially, it is argued that there are two main problems with current models of organizational career development. First, there is a lack of emphasis on how personal visions and organizational visions can be used to facilitate both individual and organizational goals. Second, the existing models lack interactive and balancing processes to equilibrate changing individual and organizational needs. To address the above problems, a comprehensive model of organizational career development is proposed. To emphasize the role of personal and organizational visions, the

constructivist literature on career development and the management literature on organizational vision and mission statements are synthesized and incorporated into the proposed model. Themes from systems theory provide the framework for the proposed model of organizational career development. Systematically parallel employee and organizational concepts and tasks are depicted for each level of the model. Balancing/interactive processes are utilized to bring the employee and the organization into closer alignment, thereby avoiding the situation of treating career development and organizational development as separate entities. A comprehensive framework for applying the model is also provided. Finally, an outline for validating the proposed model of organizational career development is suggested.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The writer is deeply grateful to many people who have supported the completion of this project. Of particular significance has been the challenging yet gentle guidance of the writer's supervisor, Dr. Kris Magnusson. This brilliant scholar has impressed upon the writer the importance of not giving up when external barriers interfere with one's passionate pursuits. Although this project had several difficult points, Dr. Magnusson's empathy, optimism, thoughtful comments, and insights greatly facilitated the movement toward completion.

The writer also acknowledges dissertation committee members Drs. Altmann and Kline for their assistance, helpful suggestions, and constructive criticism along the way. In addition, external examiners Drs. Boberg, Garrison, and Schulz are also thanked for their time and valuable input.

Special thanks are also extended to Deanna for her attention to detail, optimistic outlook, and continuous encouragement when the project felt like it was never going to get done.

Finally, the author wishes to thank his wife and best friend, Jennifer, for her support and encouragement not only for this project but for all of the writer's pursuits. Her unwavering commitment, dedication, and patience greatly enhanced this achievement.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
APPROVAL PAGE .....	ii
ABSTRACT .....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	vi
LIST OF TABLES .....	x
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xi
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION .....	1
Current Models of Organizational Career Development .....	6
Chapter 2: INDIVIDUAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT .....	12
Career Development Theories .....	13
Holland's Theory .....	13
Krumboltz's Theory .....	16
Super's Theory .....	21
Tiedeman's Theory .....	24
Philosophical and Historical Foundations of Constructivism .....	29
Constructivist Approaches to Career Development .....	32
Summary .....	37
Chapter 3: ORGANIZATIONAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT .....	39
General Systems Theory .....	39
Conceptualizations of Organizational Career Development .....	45
Current Trends and Issues Facing Organizations .....	47
Models of Organizational Career Development .....	53
The Lofquist and Dawis Model .....	53

	<u>page</u>
Schein's Model . . . . .	57
Hall's Model . . . . .	62
Brousseau et al.'s Model . . . . .	68
The Practice of Organizational Career Development . . . . .	73
Walker and Gutteridge (1979) . . . . .	73
Gutteridge et al. (1993) . . . . .	79
Bernes and Magnusson (1996) . . . . .	80
Summary . . . . .	82
 Chapter 4: THE PROPOSED MODEL . . . . .	 83
How the Proposed Model was Developed . . . . .	83
The Employee . . . . .	89
Philosophical Level: Personal Vision . . . . .	89
Strategic Level: Personal Career Management Plan . . . . .	97
Practical Level: Acquisition and Demonstration of Specific Competencies . . . . .	 101
Interrelationships Among the Three Levels . . . . .	105
Example . . . . .	107
The Organization . . . . .	108
Philosophical Level: Organizational Vision . . . . .	109
Strategic Level: Organizational Human Resource Strategic Plan . . . . .	 117
Practical Level: Alignment of Employee Competencies to the Required Organizational Competencies . . . . .	 125
Interrelationships Among the Three Levels . . . . .	130
Example . . . . .	131
Balancing/Interactive Processes . . . . .	134

	<u>page</u>
Philosophical Level: Reciprocal Confirmation . . . . .	134
Strategic Level: Critical Discourse . . . . .	137
Practical Level: Monitoring and Management . . . . .	139
Interrelationships Among the Three Levels . . . . .	141
Example . . . . .	142
What is New? How the Proposed Model Differs from Existing Models of Organizational Career Development . . . .	142
Summary . . . . .	144
 Chapter 5: APPLICATIONS OF THE PROPOSED MODEL . . . . .	146
Dimensions of the Proposed Model . . . . .	146
A Framework for Applying the Proposed Model . . . . .	149
Philosophical Level . . . . .	149
Reciprocal Confirmation . . . . .	153
Strategic Level . . . . .	155
Critical Discourse . . . . .	157
Practical Level . . . . .	161
Monitoring and Management . . . . .	163
Alternate Ways of Utilizing the Proposed Model . . . . .	167
 Chapter 6: CONCLUSION . . . . .	170
Summary . . . . .	170
Model Validation . . . . .	177
Content/Construct Validity . . . . .	178
Face Validity . . . . .	179
Global Validity . . . . .	180
Model Propositions . . . . .	182



	<u>page</u>
Generic Research Questions . . . . .	189
Implications . . . . .	191
Conclusion . . . . .	193
REFERENCES . . . . .	195

## LIST OF TABLES

	<u>page</u>
Table 1. Employee Types as Described by Brousseau et al. (1996) . .	70
Table 2. Examples of Specific Strategies to Balance Employee/ Organizational Needs and Goals at the Philosophical Level . . . . .	153
Table 3. Examples of Specific Strategies to Balance Employee/ Organizational Needs and Goals at the Strategic Level . . .	158
Table 4. Examples of Specific Strategies to Balance Employee/ Organizational Needs and Goals at the Practical Level . . . .	164

## LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>page</u>
Figure 1. Garrison and Magnusson's (1996) Transactional View of Effective Teaching and Learning . . . . .	84
Figure 2. A Synergistic Model of Organizational Career Development: Bridging the Gap Between Employees and Organizations . . .	87
Figure 3. Central Issues of Organizational Career Development . . . . .	147
Figure 4. A Three-Dimensional Model of Organizational Career Development . . . . .	150
Figure 5. Philosophical Level: Core Issues, Core Strategies, and Key Tasks . . . . .	151
Figure 6. Strategic Level: Core Issues, Core Strategies, and Key Tasks . . . . .	156
Figure 7. Practical Level: Core Issues, Core Strategies, and Key Tasks . . . . .	162

## **Chapter 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

The impact of advanced technology, corporate mergers, changing demographics, growing concerns about the quality of life, and increased economic competitiveness on a global scale have collectively forced a re-evaluation of the role of human resources in the workplace. Consequently, employees are increasingly being viewed as human capital that requires preventative maintenance by way of education, training, and counselling (Herr, 1992). Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) refer to this change as a shift from financial capital of the industrial society to human capital within the information society. Herr (1992) also states that it has become abundantly clear in the “. . . industrialized nations that there is a direct relationship between economic development and human development. This view has, in turn, resulted in a shift from emphasis on personnel management to that of personnel development” (p. 274).

One way in which organizations have begun to emphasize personnel development has been through the use of organizational career development services. Organizational career development services are designed to help employees fill the gaps between what they currently know and what they need to know so that the organization will remain competitive in the global marketplace. Other interventions, such as total quality management, team

building, restructuring, downsizing, and rightsizing also share the goal of helping the organization to maintain its competitiveness.

A comprehensive organizational career development plan forces the organization to identify its needs and concomitantly plan for its human resource and training requirements. Consequently, a broadly based organizational career development initiative may incorporate any of the above-noted interventions. Models of organizational career development have been constructed to facilitate the achievement of employee and organizational needs by recommending the appropriate career development services for use within organizations (Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, & Larsson, 1996; Hall, 1986; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969; Schein, 1978).

A variety of definitions have been proposed to conceptualize organizational career development. Leibowitz and Lea (1986) describe career development systems as integrated services and procedures which meet the needs of both individuals and organizations. Services meeting individual needs are referred to as career planning (e.g., career planning workshops, teaching of advancement strategies), while those related to organizational needs are termed career management (e.g., performance appraisals, management succession and replacement planning).

Griffith (1980, 1981) adds a third component called 'life planning' to the above definition of organizational career development. The incorporation of life planning services (e.g., family/marital counselling, alcohol/drug

counselling) as a component of organizational career development reflects the view that the work role is significant in the lives of most people and that organizations have a responsibility to minimize the personal problems that may affect the workplace (Herr & Cramer, 1992). Although Griffith (1980, 1981) believes that life planning services should be a component of organizational career development, Bernes and Magnusson (1996) did not find these services to be linked to other career development services or to the intended goals for organizational career development initiatives. Consequently, life planning services appear to be offered in isolation from other career development services.

Providing career development services is one way in which organizations may prepare for an increasingly competitive future. Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) predict that competition will increasingly revolve around a global economy. Hence, organizations must focus on long-term goals in order to ensure that they remain competitive. Furthermore, Bridges (1994) states that organizations can no longer continue to downsize without considering the long-term effects of their 'slash-and-burn' actions on employee and corporate development. As our global economy becomes increasingly competitive, companies will be forced to adopt a more comprehensive, future-oriented, and integrated approach to managing their human resources. The continuity and success of an organization depends, to a great extent, on its ability to attract, evaluate, develop, utilize, and retain well-qualified people.

Providing well-organized and well-administered human resource and career development services has become an increasingly challenging activity. Economic and competitive realities have necessitated a number of organizational changes such as downsizing, alternative work arrangements, and restructuring. These changes have subsequently affected the careers of employees. For example, several writers (Arthur, Claman, & De Fillippi, 1995; Axmith, 1994; Bridges, 1994; Davenport, 1994; Kanter, 1989; Mirus & Smith, 1994) have commented about the shift from long-term working arrangements to temporary contract work. These writers have estimated that in excess of 50% of the workforce will be employed on a contract basis in the near future. With companies increasingly hiring on a short-term, contract, and project-to-project basis, the career paths and career hierarchies of the past no longer provide for the same types of career development opportunities. Specifically, the increased outsourcing of non-essential tasks has resulted in fewer permanent positions and fewer opportunities for advancement. The quick alignment of employees to projects has also presented problems for organizational career development initiatives and has severely dated the usefulness of existing models of organizational career development that rely heavily on concepts such as promotion from within, clear career path structures, hierarchical career advancement, and relatively static job descriptions and duties. In the past, these concepts made sense as technology was advancing at a slow rate and the threat of global competition was minimal.

Organizational career development models from the 1970s and 1980s (cf. Hall, 1986) tended to assume that career development was synonymous with hierarchical advancement along a clear career path. This is consistent with the characteristics of static organizations.

Static organizations reproduce success by establishing a top-down hierarchical bureaucracy that ensures conformity to and repetition of the original goals. Dynamic organizations, however, are forced to invent new successes continuously and are not bogged down by inflexible, inefficient top-down hierarchical structures (Magnusson, 1996). To compete in the global economy, organizations are being forced to become more dynamic.

The above-noted changes and the problem of relying on outdated organizational career development models may explain why Bernes and Magnusson (1996), in their study of the 30 largest organizations in Calgary, Canada, found very little agreement between the intentions of organizational career development services and the actual services provided. For example, Bernes and Magnusson found that the most common intention of career development services was to provide career path information to employees, yet it was the least available career development service. Current models of organizational career development highlight the importance of such information. However, the models have not been updated to reflect changes in employment realities. Consequently, it is not surprising that Bernes and Magnusson found such inconsistencies. The inconsistencies between



organizational career development intentions and service delivery necessitate a brief discussion of several current models of organizational career development.

### Current Models of Organizational Career Development

Lofquist and Dawis (1969), Schein (1978), Hall (1986), and Brousseau et al. (1996) have all proposed models of organizational career development designed for use in organizations. The Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model is influenced greatly by the trait-and-factor theory of career development, which emphasizes the use of numerous standardized assessment instruments to measure the degree of correspondence between the work personality of the individual and the work environment.

The Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model, as a trait-and-factor approach, suffers from many of the same problems as do structural theories of individual career development. For example, the approach is limited, just as structural theories are, to a one-time snapshot of individuals relative to the world of work. It does not consider individual development and change over time. Instead, many tests and resources are used to capture one picture of the individual. Although consecutive snapshots may help to capture an evolving picture, this process is time-consuming and very expensive. Unfortunately, the requirements of the world of work are changing far too fast for a static matching approach to offer enough utility, especially considering the amount of time involved in achieving the initial match.

Another model of organizational career development was proposed by Schein (1978). His model is based upon the assumption of lifelong employment. In fact, Schein (1978) states, “. . . every person in the organization will go through career stages, from being a recruit to ultimately retiring” (p. 209). Schein’s model lists specific early, mid-, and late career issues. Similarly, he lists organizational needs that also tend to reflect the notion of lifelong employment (e.g., planning for staffing, planning for growth and development, planning for levelling off and disengagement, and planning for replacement and restaffing).

Schein’s (1978) model proposes a linear sequence of interventions based upon the assumption that early, mid-, and late career issues follow each other. This assumption appears valid for the time period in which it was written and within the context of static organizations wherein replicating past successes was the goal. However, the idea of employment over such a long time frame is not as valid within today’s world of work or within the context of changing, dynamic organizations.

In Schein’s (1996) more recent writing, he comments about the need for individuals to ensure they understand their career anchors (what is truly important to them) in order to help them weather the storms created by the constant changes in the world of work. Unfortunately, however, he did not revise his model to address the recent changes in the world of work.

A third major theorist in organizational career development is Hall (1986). He presents a six-stage model that involves employees in gathering information about themselves and the organizations in which they work. This information is used to set goals and specifically timed plans for moving up the organizational hierarchy. There are a few major problems with the application of Hall's model. First, it emphasizes the need for organizations to have a clearly defined career path structure. Yet, Zunker (1994), Bridges (1994), and Campbell (1994) all state that as organizations increasingly move from a hierarchical structure to a flatter team-based structure with fewer permanent employees and more employees hired on a contract, project-to-project basis, clear career path structures will no longer exist. Congruent with the notion of clear career path structures, Hall's (1986) model seems to assume that individuals will strive to climb organizational hierarchies and thereby omits other avenues for obtaining personal satisfaction. Although his later writing acknowledges this shortcoming (Hall, 1996), he does not revise his model. Finally, by being universally and generically applied, Hall's (1986) model may run the risk of promoting tool- or technique-driven interventions which may not meet the needs of the employees and the organization being served. Schein (1986) comments on this problem by stating that career development specialists push tools, programs, and normative solutions to career problems without enough emphasis on how such tools can be modified or utilized to better meet the needs of employees and organizations. Schein (1986) suggests

that career development is defined very differently in various industries, professions, and organizations, and that any attempt to define tools and programs that will work across all organizations is doomed to be seen as irrelevant in at least some organizations.

Brousseau et al. (1996) have provided one of the most recent models of organizational career development. They suggest that there are four types of employees: linear, expert, spiral, and transitory. They also state that these employee types can strategically form organizational career teams to meet specific organizational requirements. Although an understanding of these types may facilitate the process of self-awareness/self-assessment, it is important to note that this is just one aspect of self-assessment. Super (1990) and Holland (1985) also provide useful methods of self-assessment. The combining of such methods, along with encouraging individuals to dream about their career wishes, may help employees to crystallize their own personal visions for their careers and lives. Unfortunately, this broader step is not considered by the Brousseau et al. (1996) model. In addition, the model appears to favour organizational needs on a strategic level. In other words, it appears to be a means by which to ensure that organizational needs are met. It does not emphasize how employee needs can be met. Therefore, one may argue that the model does not effectively encourage the balancing of individual and organizational needs.

In summary, there appear to be two main problems with current models of organizational career development. First, there is a lack of emphasis on how personal and organizational visions can be used to facilitate both individual and organizational goals. Second, the current models lack interactive and balancing processes to equilibrate changing individual and organizational needs.

The goal of this dissertation is to present a dynamic and comprehensive model of organizational career development that addresses the above gaps. Chapter 2 begins by reviewing theories of career development, the philosophical and historical foundations of constructivism, and constructivist approaches to career development. The intent of this chapter is to review and synthesize concepts and ideas that may be relevant for capturing the employee perspective on organizational career development. Ideas from the constructivist literature are reviewed to emphasize the notion of multiple realities, the need to negotiate and balance individual realities with external realities, and the need for employees to create emotionally charged visions to provide the energy to overcome external barriers.

Adult career development occurs within larger social and organizational systems. Therefore, Chapter 3 will begin by reviewing relevant aspects of general systems theory as they relate to organizational career development interventions. Conceptualizations of organizational career development and the current trends and issues facing organizations are discussed, and current

models of organizational career development are described and critiqued. Chapter 3 concludes by reviewing the practice of organizational career development. The review of the literature, presented in Chapters 2 and 3, provides an understanding of the individual and organizational issues that are most pertinent to the design of a new model of organizational career development. By discussing the individual/constructivist perspective in Chapter 2 and the organizational/systems perspective in Chapter 3, the intention will be to note how both perspectives are necessary to create an integrated/holistic perspective on organizational career development.

Based on the insights garnered from Chapters 2 and 3, Chapter 4 presents a model of organizational career development that is designed to balance individual and organizational needs. The model possesses balancing and interactive processes for each of three proposed levels of individual and organizational needs. In Chapter 5, applications of the proposed model are discussed within a three-dimensional framework. This framework is anchored around central issues, core strategies, and key tasks for each level of the model. Also provided is a list of specific strategies and examples for balancing the needs and goals of the individual and the organization at each level of the model.

Chapter 6 provides a conclusion to this project by suggesting some ideas for further research and model validation.

## **Chapter 2**

### **INDIVIDUAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

Different perspectives on individual career development provide useful information for consideration regarding employee development. In fact, gaining an understanding of organizational career development necessitates an examination of how individual career plans unfold. Theories of individual career development have been proposed to explain how individual career paths evolve. Unfortunately, however, Super (1992) has suggested that no theory in itself is sufficient. Instead, he submits that theories need each other to collectively address the complexity of career development. Krumboltz (1994) elaborates on this idea by stating that each theory highlights some parts of the terrain while leaving other parts unspecified. According to Krumboltz (1994), each theory is an attempt to depict some part of reality and, in the process, deliberately ignores other complexities: “. . . [a] good theory is simple enough to be comprehensible but complex enough to account for the most crucial variables” (p. 12). Krumboltz (1994) continues by stating that theories, “. . . [as] incomplete pictures of reality, focus on only those aspects of special interest to the theorists” (p. 33).

In fact, career development theories have traditionally attempted to explain career choice in one of four ways. Structural theories describe the career process as the difficulty of matching one's interests, needs, personality, or skills with the appropriate occupation (Weinrach, 1979). Holland's (1985) theory of vocational

personalities and work environments is the most widely used example of a structural theory. Eclectic theories highlight the importance of broader economic, political, gender, social, cultural, and ethnic determinants on career choice and development (Weinrach, 1979). Krumboltz's (1979) social learning approach to career decision making is a comprehensive example of an eclectic theory. Process theories focus on developmental stages and the ongoing goal of improving career opportunities over time (Weinrach, 1979). Super's (1990) life-span, life-space approach to career development is the best example of a process theory. Decision-making theories suggest that meaningful career directions result from learning a process of decision making. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman's (1990) theory of career decision making is a good example of a decision-making theory.

Krumboltz (1994) cautions readers to avoid choosing one theory as each theory has the capacity to suit different purposes. By discussing and remaining open to the strengths of each theory, we may collectively synthesize ideas for inclusion in a new model of organizational career development. Therefore, the strengths of the above four theories will now be discussed so that their contributions may be highlighted and incorporated into the proposed model of organizational career development. A critique of the current models of organizational career development is presented in Chapter 3.

### Career Development Theories

#### Holland's Theory

Holland's (1985) theory of vocational personalities and work environments suggests that a description of an individual's vocational interests



is also a description of the individual's personality. "Personality traits are identified by preferences for school subjects, recreational activities, hobbies, and work; and vocational interests can be viewed as an expression of personality" (Weinrach & Srebalus, 1990, p. 39).

Holland's (1985) theory is considered to be a structural-interactionist theory. This means that the individual influences, and is influenced by, the environment. Weinrach and Srebalus (1990) state that structural-interactionist theories possess the following common beliefs:

1. The choice of an occupation is an expression of personality and not a random event, although chance plays a role.
2. The members of an occupational group have similar personalities and similar histories of personal development.
3. Because people in an occupational group have similar personalities, they will respond to many situations and problems in similar ways.
4. Occupational achievement, stability, and satisfaction depend on congruence between one's personality and the job environment.

(p. 40)

Holland (1985) suggests that individuals can be classified into one of six basic personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. Although one of the six types usually predominates in characterizing people, a compilation of the three most prevalent types results

in a 'Holland profile' or a three-letter code. These three-letter codes characterize people and occupations.

Holland (1985) believes that special hereditary factors (such as biological predispositions governing stature, physical abilities, size, intelligence, social class, gender, etc.) and environmental experiences (such as those within the home, school, community, peer group, etc.) combine to reinforce and influence one's values, personality traits, and interests. Thus, the personality type a person becomes and the vocational environment one seeks out can be affected by the interaction of hereditary and environmental factors.

Four basic assumptions underlie Holland's (1985) theory. The first assumption indicates that, in our culture (i.e., North America), most individuals can be classified as one of the six personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, or conventional. The second assumption contends that there are also six model environments which correspond to the personality types as listed above, and that individuals of a particular type usually congregate within the same field. For example, individuals who are more social than realistic are found in social environments. The third assumption asserts that individuals seek out environments in which they may exercise their skills and abilities, communicate their attitudes and values, and take on compatible problems and roles. The final assumption maintains that behaviour is determined by an

interaction between environment and personality. This implies that one can predict outcomes such as career choice, job changes, and vocational achievement by assessing the degree of fit between one's personality and one's environment (i.e., congruence).

Holland's theory is simple and possesses a great deal of explanatory power. His ability to measure and report the degree of congruence between an individual and the occupational environment through the use of his Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1977) remain the strengths of his theory and represent valuable contributions to the field of organizational career development. For example, the use of his Self-Directed Search can significantly help individuals in the process of self-assessment and can aid organizations in the selection of employees.

Young (1984) and Collin and Young (1986) argue for a broader understanding of career choice and development by suggesting that ecological variables (e.g., political, social, and technological factors) need to be considered by theorists like Holland. Some of these broader factors are emphasized more in Krumboltz's social learning approach to career decision making (Krumboltz, 1979; Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990).

### Krumboltz's Theory

Krumboltz's social learning approach to career decision making is an outgrowth of Bandura's (1977) social learning theory with roots in reinforcement theory and classical behavioralism (Mitchell & Krumboltz,

1990). "It assumes that the individual personalities and behavioral repertoires that persons primarily possess arise primarily from their unique learning experiences, rather than from innate developmental or psychic processes" (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990, p. 145).

In order to understand career choice and development, Krumboltz's theory considers four factors: genetic endowment and special abilities, environmental conditions and events, learning experiences, and task approach skills. The theory suggests that the above factors combine to ". . . influence the career decision-making path for any individual" (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990, p. 148).

Krumboltz's first factor suggests that genetic endowment and special abilities are ". . . inherited qualities that may set limits on educational and occupational preferences and skills" (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990, p. 148). These include race, sex, and physical appearance and characteristics such as irreversible physical handicaps. Genetics and special abilities may allow people to benefit, in greater or lesser ways, from the environmental conditions to which they are exposed.

Environmental conditions and events are generally outside the control of any one individual. They include the number and nature of job opportunities, number and nature of training opportunities, social policies and procedures for selecting trainees and workers, rate of return for various occupations, labour laws and union rules, physical events (e.g., earthquakes,

floods, droughts, etc.), availability of and demand for natural resources, technological developments, changes in social organization, family training experiences and resources, educational systems, and neighbourhood and community influences (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990). Each of these has a multitude of potential effects on the careers of individuals.

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1990) also suggest that the “. . . development of career preferences and skills and the selection of a particular career are influenced by the individual's past learning experiences” (p. 150). Mitchell and Krumboltz believe that these experiences may or may not be readily retrievable by memory due to the infinite and extremely complex patterns of stimuli and reinforcement. However, these learning experiences, whether instrumental or associative, have a large impact on what individuals will perceive to be important in a career. For example, occupational stereotypes often influence individuals in their choice of a career.

According to Mitchell and Krumboltz (1990), task approach skills are the transferable skills that are brought to new tasks or problems. They include performance standards and values, work habits, perceptual and cognitive processes, mental sets, and emotional responses (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990). Learning experiences, genetic characteristics, special abilities, and environmental influences combine to influence one's task approach skills. These skills can be enhanced or modified by individuals to meet new demands. “Task approach skills are used to cope with the

environment, to interpret it in relation to self-observations and world-view generalizations, and to make overt and covert predictions about future events” (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990, p. 159).

The above four factors all interact and are actively interpreted by individuals. Interpretations are used by individuals to formulate generalizations and to construct their own sense of reality. These generalizations and constructions result in beliefs about themselves and the world of work. Ultimately, beliefs influence individuals’ aspirations and actions (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990).

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1990) suggest that effective career planning occurs when individuals: (a) have accurately examined their self-observation generalizations about their interests, values, and skills; (b) have assessed their world-view generalizations about the nature of occupations; and (c) possess the decision-making and task approach skills that are necessary for carrying out their plans and/or goals.

Although people cannot control their heredity,

. . . they can exert some influence on their environments and on the nature of some of their learning experiences. The interactions of all these factors result in self-observation and world-view generalizations and task approach skills, which in turn lead to a sequence of new learning experiences and decision behaviors throughout life. (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1990, p. 163)

Therefore, one may infer from Krumboltz's theory that individuals participate in the workplace in order to express their learned beliefs and generalizations and to seek out the reinforcements they have come to believe are important.

Krumboltz's theory emphasizes the environmental and social influences upon career choice and development (Osipow, 1983). In doing so, it also highlights the individual's role in interpreting and subsequently acting upon his or her environment. These ideas, along with Krumboltz's emphasis on general counselling interventions such as cognitive restructuring, help individuals to become aware of and even change the effects of prior learning. These contributions are valuable to the field of organizational career development because they may help individuals to sort out what they truly want. In addition, the theory does not neglect contextual constraints arising from economic, political, or social events that may be outside the control of individuals. Unfortunately, Krumboltz (1979) does not place sufficient emphasis on an individual's other life roles (outside of a specific occupation) that may be utilized to enhance satisfaction in life and career. Krumboltz's theory also appears to emphasize the process of decision making for one choice and, therefore, does not highlight the power of decision making over the course of a life span. Fortunately, Super's (1990) theory is very strong in these areas.

### Super's Theory

Super's (1990) life-span, life-space approach to career development places an emphasis on developmental stages and the interaction of occupational roles with other life roles. Super's theory is essentially a personal or psychological theory. However, it is also a social theory as it maintains that individuals differ on the basis of personal assessments while balancing the socioeconomic situation and the social structure in which they live and function (Super, 1990).

Super (1990) suggests that the

. . . objectives of developmental career counseling are to foster the development of the counselee and of his or her career, so that he or she may find self-fulfilment in it. Here the term career must be without qualifier and must denote the several major life roles that constitute a life career, for self-realization was never and is not now likely to be achieved only in the work role, particularly in an increasingly automated economy. (Super, 1990, pp. 253-254)

Super (1990) describes a career as “. . . the life course of a person encountering a series of developmental tasks and attempting to handle them in such a way as to become the kind of person he or she wants to be” (pp. 225-226). What one wants to be or become is a function of one's biological, geographical, and social influences combined with intelligence, needs, aptitudes, values, interests, special aptitudes, personality, and achievements.



All of these variables interact to determine one's self-concept. Super (1990) depicts these relationships in his Archway Model. One side of the model summarizes the societal/environmental influences while the other side of the model lists some of the individual factors that collectively determine one's self-concept.

Super (1990) also delineates several stages of career development. Growth involves gaining autonomy, time perspective, and self-esteem. Exploration results in crystallization, specification, and implementation of occupational self-concepts, interests, and a vocational preference. Establishment includes trial, stabilization, consolidation, and advancement. Maintenance necessitates adapting, innovating, and possibly transferring. Decline or disengagement usually means a change or shift in roles. Within this developmental paradigm, people also have several life roles. Super (1990) defines these roles as child, student, leisurite, citizen, worker, and homemaker. Other roles may include parent, spouse, and volunteer. His Life-Career Rainbow helps to exemplify how individuals developmentally shift or change roles over time. Individuals are capable of spending portions of their time fulfilling any of the above roles at any given period. Over the life span, emphasizes change and people are challenged to balance these roles as they develop and grow into the people they wish to become. The role of the career counsellor is to help people define what it is they wish to become. In addition, people may also require guidance to assist them in achieving a sense

of equilibrium among their life roles. Disequilibrium of these life roles often occurs around transitional times. Thus, people are more likely to seek career counselling during these phases (Super, 1990).

Super (1990) claims that society confronts individuals with developmental tasks when they reach certain levels of biological, educational, and vocational attainment. Consequently, he places a large emphasis on career adaptability. Adaptability refers to an individual's readiness to recognize the developmental tasks he or she faces or may face in one's current or next career stage. Adaptability also includes preparing to cope with such tasks.

Super's (1990) life-span, life-space approach to career development is quite comprehensive. By emphasizing the social/environmental influences upon one's career development and by considering more individual traits than Holland (1985), Super's theory essentially subsumes both Krumboltz's (1979) theory and Holland's (1985) theory. Super (1990) believes that individuals participate in the workplace in order to implement their self-concepts. He provides an explicit model to help individuals to implement their self-concepts in the world of work. Step 1 of Super's career counselling model begins with a preview. During the preview stage, the counsellor and the client are engaged in gathering the relevant data necessary in understanding the nature of the presenting problem. Step 2 results in an in-depth view of the problem. Specifically, the relative importance of life roles, values, career maturity,

self-concept, abilities, and interests are assessed. In Step 3, the assessment data obtained in Step 2 are used to help match clients with specific occupations and nonoccupational roles. Super's fourth step is counselling to help the client assimilate the results of the assessment and to formulate a plan of action.

Super's comprehensive model of career counselling and his emphasis on a variety of life roles through which individuals can obtain satisfaction in life represent great contributions to the field of career development. These contributions have provided the field of organizational career development with many useful methods of completing self-assessments and stimulating action planning for individuals. Unfortunately, the role of decision making is less emphasized in Super's theory. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) fill this gap by emphasizing the subjective and intuitive elements within career decision making. Consequently, their ideas, along with Super's propositions, provide for a fuller understanding of career choice and development.

#### Tiedeman's Theory

Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) developed a decision-making model which attempted to combine personal awareness with appropriate external information. Essentially, they believed that the role and process of personal choice and decision making was absent from the existing theories of career development.

The Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) model is comprised of two phases: anticipation and accommodation. The anticipation phase refers to the stages prior to action, and includes four stages: exploration, crystallization, choice, and clarification. During the exploration stage, people investigate possible educational, occupational, and personal alternatives. Crystallization begins as individuals attempt to organize, evaluate, and synthesize information about themselves and the world of work. Thoughts begin to stabilize and distinctions between the alternatives occur. As crystallization takes place, a choice or a decision follows. The degree of clarity, complexity, and freedom available affect the level of motivation and the certainty of carrying through. During clarification, the client begins to formulate a plan for carrying out his or her choice (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963).

The accommodation phase reflects the stages individuals encounter after beginning to implement a decision and is comprised of three stages: induction, reformation, and integration. As clients begin to implement their choices, they come into contact with people and the realities of the settings they enter. During the induction stage, they are receptive to learning from others to ensure their behaviour meets the standards of the environment. After successfully moving through the induction stage, people become less receptive to learning and more assertive. Thus, in the reformation stage, they begin to influence their environment. In the final stage, people experience an integration or a synthesis of their goals with the goals of others in the

environment. The outcome is a sense of equilibrium and a coherent sense of purpose. Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) do not believe individuals need to go through all steps in order; instead, they suggest that some steps may occur simultaneously and that decisions may be reversed.

Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) believe that the process of career development occurs through a continual process of differentiation and reintegration. "Differentiating is a matter of separating experiences; integrating is a matter of structuring them into a more comprehensive whole. Hierarchical structuring is what happens when a new and more comprehensive whole is formed from the continuous separating and merging that go on daily and momentarily with each of us" (Miller-Tiedeman & Tiedeman, 1990, p. 312). The process of occupational change, and change in general, permits opportunities for differentiation and reintegration.

Tiedeman's ideas continued to evolve as he began writing with Miller-Tiedeman in the late 1970s. Together they developed the notion of 'LifeCareer' to reflect the idea that life is career and career is life (Miller-Tiedeman, 1988). They went on to suggest that a key task for individuals is to separate personal realities from common realities. Personal realities are defined as acts, thoughts, behaviours, or directions that people feel are right for them. Common realities are what society tells people to do. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) state that their theory does not predict the behaviour of individuals; instead, it ". . . is a value-functioning model that

allows a person to put his or her own decision-making activity into perspective for himself or herself (personal reality)" (p. 321). They postulate that an awareness of decision making is related to career advancement. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) also believe that the language people use to describe their careers mirrors their beliefs about themselves. "Comprehension of the 'rightness' of one's personal reality arises from the evolution of consistency in one's words and actions" (Miller-Tiedeman & Tiedeman, 1990, p. 321).

Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) believe that people are self-organizing systems, capable of creating their own realities and acting on their worlds. "Self-construction and career making are fashioning life as you want it—seeing yourself as the designer and builder of your life" (Miller-Tiedeman & Tiedeman, 1990, p. 329).

Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) also believe that humans are prone to imprisoning themselves in the status quo instead of developmentally freeing their spirit to soar in the realms of what might be. To enter the realm of what 'might be,' they suggest that individuals need to move into the self-aware level of ego development and utilize "I" power. "I" power provides the energy for turning the impossible into the possible and for sticking with personal realities, not common realities (Miller-Tiedeman & Tiedeman, 1990). By sticking with personal realities, the process of LifeCareer emphasizes purpose, not work. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) suggest that

people's entire lives are their careers and that, if they become adept at listening to their own personal wisdom rather than societal dictates, they will be prepared for whatever career changes are to come.

Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman's (1990) emphasis on the subjective and intuitive elements within career decision making adds a different perspective to the theories of career development. They postulate that participation in the workplace results in new challenges. These challenges promote higher levels of differentiation and reintegration, ultimately resulting in more self-aware individuals who seek a sense of meaning and purpose from their involvement in the workplace. Their ideas, when combined with Krumboltz's theory, may encourage individuals to balance political, economic, social, and cultural constraints with the capacity to dream and create personal visions for the future. These are key ideas for the realm of organizational career development because individuals within organizations must constantly balance their own dreams with the realities of organizational demands.

Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) take a primarily subjective and philosophical stance in their attempt to provide an understanding of career choice and development. Unfortunately, however, they may be accused of neglecting structural constraints such as gender and cultural inequities, social class barriers, and physical handicaps.

As suggested by Super (1992) and Krumboltz (1994), the area of career development is very complex. Fortunately, Holland's theory has provided

researchers and practitioners with some methods for matching individuals to the world of work. Meanwhile, Krumboltz's theory has highlighted the broader environmental and social influences upon career choice and development. Super's comprehensive model of career counselling and his emphasis on a variety of life roles through which individuals can obtain satisfaction in life has also helped to reduce the complexity of career development. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman's emphasis on crystallizing personal realities and visions in order to provide energy for the management of external constraints was also noted as a significant contribution to the field of career development.

The application of constructivist thought has recently resulted in new insights into the realm of career development. Congruent with Super's (1992) and Krumboltz's (1994) notion of the need for many theories to help explain complex phenomena like career development, Lent (1994) suggests that constructivist thought may have something to add to existing theories of career development and may therefore help to expand our ability to synthesize career development theory. The remainder of this chapter will therefore provide an overview of the philosophical and historical foundations of constructivism and constructivist approaches to career development.

### Philosophical and Historical Foundations of Constructivism

Several writers provide a brief account of the historical and philosophical roots of constructivist thought. This is usually done for the



purpose of painting a philosophical backdrop for the arguments the authors are attempting to make. Throughout these accounts, three main philosophers from the 18th and 19th centuries are consistently cited: Vico (Candy, 1987; Mahoney, 1988; Peavy, 1994; Phillips, 1995; Von Glaserfeld, 1989), Kant (Gergen, 1985; Grossman Dean, 1993; Mahoney, 1988; Peavy, 1994; Phillips, 1995), and Vaihinger (Mahoney, 1988; Peavy, 1994).

Vico, known as the founder of the philosophy of history, has contributed two major themes to constructivist thought. First, he noted that history is cyclical and that patterns repeat themselves. Second, Vico contended that humans create order by projecting familiar categories onto unfamiliar particulars. In this manner, Vico argued that people get to know a world that has been constructed by themselves and consequently find relative stability within their constructions. Vico believed that knowing is not separate from an individual's engagement with living. Instead, he suggested that knowing is a personally engaged embodiment of life (Candy, 1987; Mahoney, 1988; Peavy, 1994; Phillips, 1995; Von Glaserfeld, 1989).

Kant revolutionized philosophy by emphasizing a 'top-down' epistemology that contradicted the 'bottom-up' approach of the empiricists of his time (e.g., Bacon, Locke, and Hume). He argued that the mind, not external objects, is the core reference point for epistemology. Kant believed that experiences are transformed by *a priori* structures of mentation and that these structures provide personal meaning and purpose for individuals

(Gergen, 1985; Grossman Dean, 1993; Mahoney, 1988; Peavy, 1994; Phillips, 1995).

Vaihinger “. . . was the first to offer an extensive and formal presentation of some of the most basic features of modern constructivism” (Mahoney, 1988, pp. 22-23). His philosophy of ‘as if’ provided the basic conceptual framework for Adler’s theory of personality. “These ‘as if’ notions paved the way for therapists to help clients to try experimenting with new ways of perceiving and acting in the world” (Peavy, 1994, p. 5). Vaihinger believed that human thought was purposive and that thoughts may not necessarily be actual or valid representations; however, these representations provide a critical function in maintaining equilibrium. Vaihinger, in his law of ideational shifts, maintains that some ideas (not all ideas) pass through three stages of development. He calls these stages the fictional, the hypothetical, and the dogmatic. A fictional idea requires a considerable amount of energy to maintain itself. A hypothetical idea is being ‘tested’ and therefore requires some mental energy. Dogmatic ideas require the least amount of mental energy to sustain because the thought becomes a part of the individual’s system of mentation (Mahoney, 1988). Fictional thoughts generally disappear over time because they are not fixed in the system. However, dogmatic ideas are difficult to alter as

. . . the mind will strongly resist such movement and will undertake it only when it is sufficiently shaken or shocked out of its equilibrium.

Even then, if at all possible, the mind will hold on to a formerly dogmatic idea—if not as a hypothesis, then as a permanent, persistent, or provisional fiction. (Mahoney, 1988, p. 26)

The power of hypothetical ideas, synergistically applied during emotional or contextual disequilibrium, represents some of the central tenets upon which current constructivist psychotherapy is practised (Lyddon, 1990; Mahoney, 1991).

### Constructivist Approaches to Career Development

Constructivists perceive life as a continuous process of meaning-making and constructivist psychotherapy views the construing and reconstruing of meaning as the main purpose of counselling (Borgen, 1991; Carlsen, 1988). Constructivists do not believe in one objective reality; instead, they believe in multiple, socially created realities. Realities are constructed within a particular culture at a particular time through the sharing of opinions, values, beliefs, and assumptions (Candy, 1987; Peavy, 1994; Peavy & Gray, 1992). They also view knowledge acquisition as an active process of interpretation. In other words, people actively shape and construct their knowledge—they are not passive recipients of knowledge (Candy, 1987; Mahoney & Patterson, 1992; Peavy, 1994).

Also, constructivists believe that individuals create their own personal meanings (Borgen, 1991). Consequently, they believe that counsellors need to understand the beliefs, values, and assumptions individuals hold about

themselves and their worlds. Thus, the meaning that is inferred through language, phrases, and metaphors is particularly relevant within counselling (Peavy, 1994). They also suggest that personal meanings may be influenced by cultural and/or contextual elements. For example, someone may be a member of a particular ethnic group and belong to a student group. Therefore, it is important to explore these multiple 'cultures' with clients to fully understand the origins and influences of their beliefs, values, and assumptions (Peavy, 1994). This point highlights the importance of recognizing individual differences and the uniqueness of subjective experiences.

Constructivists conceptualize the development of a person's life and identity as an evolving story:

From a storied perspective the development of a person's self-identity can be conceptualized as an issue of life-storying and client problems can be seen as stories that have gone astray. Thus, counselling activities can be seen as processes of co-authoring more viable client stories. When people begin to see themselves as authors of their own life stories, they can begin to understand and experience concepts such as empowerment, personal responsibility and agency. They can see that life is not just a series of haphazard events but a series of crossroads and junctions that they have played a major part in selecting. One of the

most enlightening aspects of this storied perspective is that life can be viewed as full of opportunities and choices. (Peavy, 1994, pp. 11-12)

Cochran (1992) elaborates on this storied perspective by suggesting that people go through four phases as they begin to re-story and act upon their lives. He calls the first phase the 'phase of incompleteness.' It is characterized by conflict, disruption, or disequilibrium. This sense of disequilibrium creates a "... gap between what is and what ought to be" (Cochran, 1992, p. 194). A sense of yearning, breadth of reflection, and diversity of perspectives is apparent in this phase. "The second phase of positioning is concerned with preparations, getting into position to actualize something" (Cochran, 1992, p. 194). The third phase occurs as one begins to make something actually happen. "The phase of completion is the end, offering closure to what was aroused in the beginning and elaborated over the middle" (Cochran, 1992, p. 194). Cochran uses this framework to highlight the need for career counsellors to emphasize the beginning and ending as much as they emphasize the middle parts. In this manner, counsellors must encourage and stimulate the uncomfortable phase of disequilibrium in order for meaningful change to occur. Similarly, counsellors need to help clients to feel a sense of closure and completion and to educate them about the continuous nature of this cycle within life.

Cochran (1992) believes that a deeper form of career counselling can be derived from recovering the meaning of agents who live a career and allowing

them to author “. . . life stories rather than just completing general tasks” (p. 196). Essentially, this means that individuals need to create personal visions or directions for their lives, balance these visions with contextual constraints, and act upon their visions of how things ought to be. Cochran (1994) states that people are helped to exercise agency through exploring meaningful motives, setting goals, making choices, planning, striving, and reflecting. Therefore, career counselling, according to Cochran (1994), is about helping a client to achieve “. . . movement toward the agent one wants to be and the story one wants to live” (p. 211).

Constructivist theorists (Cochran, 1990, 1992, 1994; Carlsen, 1988; Peavy, 1992, 1994; and Savickas, 1993) emphasize the subjective reasons why individuals participate in the workplace.

What exists for individuals is purpose, not positions on a normal curve. Counselors are now becoming increasingly interested in augmenting their interventions by addressing the individual's subjective career, that is, life story. Comprehensive career counselling attends to both the public/objective meaning and the private/subjective meaning of interests, abilities, values and choices. (Savickas, 1993, p. 213)

From this quote, one can see that Super (1992), Krumboltz (1994), and Savickas (1993) all share the view that multiple theories and methods are necessary in helping us to comprehend the complexities of individual career development.

Savickas (1993), Peavy (1992), and Cochran (1990, 1992, 1994) all suggest that individuals participate in the workplace in order to determine a direction in life, provide a purpose for life, seek personal meanings, and initiate a quest of making sense of their worlds. Therefore, they advocate for autobiographical storytelling, meaning-making, reconstructing of coherent life stories, and placing the subjective experiences of clients in the forefront.

Another basic tenet of constructivist thought revolves around the notion of social responsibility. Constructivists value respectful, collaborative, and empowering interactions wherein meanings and realities are constantly negotiated (Peavy, 1994; Peavy & Gray, 1992). Negotiated meanings and realities allow opinions to be fully expressed, understood, and respected, and therefore facilitate responsible interactions between people.

The final basic tenet of constructivist theory to be discussed centres around the significance of emotions. Emotionality is viewed as a powerful and primitive source of knowledge. It is seen as a critical part of the system's functioning and is not subordinate to cognition. Emotionality is considered to be a catalyst or powerful agent in the disorganization of the client's system and therefore helps with the reorganization of the client's constructs (Lyddon, 1990; Mahoney, 1991).

The constructivist paradigm offers many advantages to the field of organizational career development. In particular, its strengths include the emphasis on people as creators of their own realities, seeking meaning and

purpose in life, and as agents who can design and build fulfilling lives (Cochran, 1992, 1994; Peavy, 1992, 1994; Savickas, 1993). These concepts add significant power to conceptualizations of organizational career development because they suggest the need for people to create emotionally charged visions to provide the fuel and motivation to deal with contextual/external realities within the world of work. Without these strong visions, people may become immobilized by the many barriers and constraints inherent within the world of work.

### Summary

This chapter began by suggesting that individual career development is a complex area that requires many theoretical perspectives to create an optimal level of understanding. With this idea in mind, theories of career development and the constructivist paradigm were reviewed. The strengths of each position were highlighted and considered for their relevance in organizational career development. Holland's theory displays a keen ability to match individuals within the world of work. Krumboltz's emphasis on the broader social, political, and economic factors that affect learned beliefs and generalizations were also deemed important within the realm of organizational career development. Super's theory provided some thorough ideas for self-assessment and career counselling interventions to facilitate the implementation of the self-concept across the various life roles. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman emphasized the need for individuals to create



personal visions and to work toward the achievement of these visions. Meanwhile, the constructivist paradigm suggested that individual realities need to be constantly negotiated with external realities and that people need to become active agents in their career planning by setting personal visions and plans for the enactment of such visions.

This review has highlighted some useful ideas for the individual side of a new model of organizational career development. In the next chapter, the focus of attention shifts from understanding individual career development to the larger systems in which individuals live their careers.

### **Chapter 3**

## **ORGANIZATIONAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT**

Adult career development occurs within larger social and organizational systems. A multitude of interconnections potentially influences the career planning of individuals and the career management of employees. A systems perspective allows one to consider and understand the complexity of the interconnections that potentially influence the career development of individuals within organizational settings. In Chapter 2, conceptions of individual career development were explored; this chapter begins by discussing the relevant aspects of general systems theory as they relate to organizational career development services. Some conceptualizations of organizational career development are also provided. Next, the current trends and issues facing organizations are discussed. Within this context, existing models of organizational career development are critically evaluated, and the practice of organizational career development is reviewed. Finally, a summary of the strengths and weaknesses of existing approaches is presented, and a case for the need for a new model is made.

### General Systems Theory

General systems theory (GST) evolved from the work of Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968) which described a system as being comprised of interacting and interdependent parts. The concept of interaction implies a relationship

of mutual influence. "The word 'system' means literally to cause to stand together" (Bowler, 1981, p. 1). Systems stand together as entities through a series of processes, relations, and dynamic tensions. Carlsen (1988) defines a system as "... any structure that exhibits order and pattern" (p. 28). Order is achieved through the process of equilibration or the balancing of opposing forces or polarities. Systems never achieve the state of perfect balance known as equilibrium but instead utilize positive and negative feedback to remain on course.

The hierarchical organization of systems results in subsystems that lead other systems (Bowler, 1981). In the context of organizational career development, the leading subsystems are comprised of employee visions or outcomes and organizational visions or outcomes. As leading subsystems, visions and purposes determine the necessary processes and structures that employees and organizations will use to pursue their goals. Processes are defined as the sequential states of a system over time and are synonymous with ordered change (Bowler, 1981). Structures are the relatively enduring or stable set of relations within a system. They are the specific entities that make the process of change possible. In other words, structures govern or regulate the transformation and development of the system (Bowler, 1981). Consequently, within organizational career development, employees and organizations, as systems, need to develop their respective sets of outcomes, processes, and structures. In addition, an even larger system needs to be

created to facilitate the process of balancing organizational and employee needs/goals. Fortunately, GST reminds us that this task of balancing is never complete and the goal of the balancing process must therefore be toward equilibration and not equilibrium, as the state of complete equilibrium is unachievable.

General systems theory suggests that for anything to exist it has to be related to something else. In other words, to be is to be related (Bowler, 1981). Therefore, an entity that is related to nothing cannot exist “. . . because there is no way to describe its presence in any situation” (Bowler, 1981, p. 3). Consequently, GST is concerned with how things are related to each other (i.e., the patterns of relations). According to GST, things may be related but still possess boundaries. The GST concept of ‘holon’ expands upon this idea. A holon refers to an entity that is a whole and a part at the same time, depending on how one looks at it (Koestler, 1967). This concept moves one beyond the ‘either/or’ position of reductionism versus holism by encouraging the study of phenomena from both reductionist and holistic perspectives. The act of being a whole and a part at the same time is referred to as the ‘Janus effect’ (Koestler, 1967).

Open systems have permeable boundaries. They influence, and are influenced by, their environment. Closed systems have impermeable boundaries and therefore do not allow for any input into or output from the system. Consequently, closed systems tend toward entropy (a lack of order,

randomness, disorder, or chaos) (Bowler, 1981). By being selectively open, systems can assimilate and/or accommodate constructive inputs while rejecting destructive inputs. In the context of organizational career development, an open system allows for the mutual exchange of growthful inputs between the organization and its employees. In this manner, mutual growth is fostered when the organization allows itself to be influenced by its employees. Similarly, by remaining open, employees can be stimulated by the organization. Being selectively open is a key concept within GST. By not being selective, individuals and organizations run the risk of being influenced by anything—even things that are incongruent with their personal visions. An organization's vision or an individual's vision provides the means for regulating the system and, consequently, preventing the system from information overload, conflict, and/or confusion. Thus, having a flexible vision or purpose permits individuals and organizations to remain selectively open and avoid the state of entropy associated with closed systems.

The GST concept of multiple causality is another key idea for consideration in the realm of organizational career development. Multiple causality refers to the view that it may take a number of things working together to produce a particular effect (von Bertalanffy, 1968). The GST concept of multiple causality is similar to the Gestalt claim that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. In other words, by combining things we can

create an impact that is larger than the sum of all the pieces. This is often referred to as a synergistic reaction.

The word “synergy” comes from the field of chemistry and medicine where it is used to describe the reality that certain combinations of chemicals or drugs create a reaction greater than the sum of individual reactions. For example, when a person combines the intake of alcohol with valium, the resulting impact on the physiological system is much greater than the reactions created by the independent action of each drug. Because of the power of this synergistic reaction, taking the drugs in tandem can bring lethal result. (Carlsen, 1988, pp. 26-27)

The above example demonstrates the potential negative results of synergistic reactions. However, the example speaks to the power that can be achieved when multiple events are intentionally combined. This idea, along with the concept of ensuring systems remain selectively open, represents some of the most powerful ideas that GST has to offer the realm of organizational career development.

As will be seen toward the end of this chapter, organizational career development interventions to date have existed in a state of fragmentation. They are frequently disconnected from each other and from other human resources initiatives. In addition, they are frequently unbalanced in favour of services provided to the benefit of organizations. Such one-sidedness reflects potentially closed organizations that underestimate the contribution employees

can make to the organization when provided with the appropriate opportunities for career development.

Miles and Snow (1991) use the concept of 'best fit' to articulate the alignment of multiple strategies within organizations. They define fit as ". . . a process as well as a state—a dynamic search that seeks to align the organization with its environment and to arrange resources internally in support of that alignment" (p. 633). Miles and Snow (1991) also suggest that

. . . it is becoming increasingly evident that a simple though profound core concept is at the heart of many organization and management research findings as well as many of the proposed remedies for industrial and organizational renewal. The concept is that of fit among an organization's strategy, structure, and management processes. (p. 632)

Miles and Snow (1991) illustrate that the most successful organizations ensure that their strategies, processes, and structures are all working in concert with each other.

Systems theory suggests that multiple strategies and services need to be combined to synergistically create opportunities for employees and organizations. Fortunately, the GST concept of equifinality suggests that these strategies and services can be combined in a multitude of different ways because open systems can move to some final state through a variety of methods and from a variety of initial states. This idea reinforces the

importance of approaching employees and organizations from the perspective of their uniqueness and individualizing programs to meet their particular needs and goals. When one adopts a systems perspective, organizational career development can be viewed as a series of interrelated services, each working to help organizations and individuals to reach their respective goals.

With this understanding of systems theory as a backdrop, some conceptualizations of organizational career development will now be discussed.

### Conceptualizations of Organizational Career Development

Gilley (1989) articulates that the “. . . purpose of career development is to help employees analyze their abilities and interests so as to better match personnel needs for growth and development with the needs of the organization” (p. 50). Therefore, career development systems are ideally implemented in an organized, formalized, and planned manner and are designed to balance individual and organizational needs. The ongoing set of services is ideally linked to corporate human resource initiatives (Leibowitz, Farren, & Kaye, 1986).

Leibowitz and Lea (1986) describe career development systems as integrated services and procedures which meet the needs of both individuals and organizations. Services meeting individual needs are referred to as career planning while those related to organizational needs are termed career



management (Gilley, 1989; Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Schmidt, 1990). Career planning is a “. . . deliberate process for becoming aware of self, opportunities, constraints, choices, and consequences; identifying career-related goals; and programming work, education and related developmental experiences to provide the direction, timing, and sequence of steps to attain a specific career goal” (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983, p. 23). Career management is “. . . an ongoing process of preparing, implementing, and monitoring career plans undertaken by the individual alone or in concert with the organization’s career systems” (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983, p. 23).

Griffith (1980, 1981) adds a third component called ‘life planning’ to Leibowitz and Lea’s (1986) description of organizational career development. This category, within the description of organizational career development services, represents the view that work is a central place in the lives of most people and that many stressors are caused by the workplace (Herr & Cramer, 1992). In order to assuage these stressors, organizations often provide life planning services (e.g., stress management, time management, family counselling, etc.).

For the purposes of this project, career development is considered to be comprised of career planning, career management, and life planning services. Thus, organizational career development will herein be considered to be the outcomes, processes, and structures that result from the interaction of these services.

Career development responsibilities are seen to be shared by both the individual and the organization (Hall, 1986; Schein, 1978). The individual's role is to engage in self-assessment and skills identification, to work towards setting realistic career objectives, and to complete action planning to meet those goals. The organization's role is to assist individuals by providing the means and opportunities for career planning while meeting its own needs for qualified employees. Therefore, organizations need to combine a blend of approaches into a comprehensive program directed to the unique needs and concerns of their employees and their organization.

The concepts and definitions provided above form the foundation for models of organizational career development. However, before addressing those models, the general context in which those models must operate—that is, the trends and issues facing organizations today—will be explored. Such a strategy is consistent with a general systems approach because the current trends and issues facing organizations have an impact on organizations' career development plans.

### Current Trends and Issues Facing Organizations

Technological advancements and free-trade agreements have shifted competition from the local and national level to the global level. Consequently, North American organizations are increasingly having to compete in a global economy. To help them compete, organizations are beginning to restructure in search of synergies; build external alliances; encourage innovation and

entrepreneurship within all employees; and adopt a more comprehensive, future-oriented, and integrated approach to managing their human resources (Bridges, 1994; Kanter, 1989).

Several writers (Arthur et al., 1995; Axmith, 1994; Bridges, 1994; Campbell, 1994; Davenport, 1994; Kanter, 1989; Mirus & Smith, 1994) suggest that pressures from global competition are resulting in team-based rather than hierarchical organizational structures. To improve their ability to respond to change, organizations are increasingly relying on a core group of workers and hiring additional staff on a part-time, temporary, or project basis (Axmith, 1994). This allows organizations to more readily compete in a global economy because individuals and their particular skill sets are contracted for only the period required. Contracted workers are not being paid when they are between projects, thereby increasing efficiency and reducing costs for the organization.

Bridges (1994) suggests that people employed on a temporary, contract, or part-time basis are increasingly forming their own businesses. In support of this idea, Crompton (1993) states that between 1981 and 1991, self-employment in Canada (excluding agriculture and fishing) grew at twice the rate of full-time employment (40% vs. 18%). Similarly, Mirus and Smith (1994) report that the number of self-employed people in Canada grew by 71% between 1976 and 1991, while full-time employment grew by only 25%. Campbell (1994) states that the percentage of part-time employees in the

workforce increased by over 15% since 1975 and further predicts that, by the year 2000, 50-75% of the workforce will be employed in temporary, part-time, or contract positions.

In the past, employment contracts frequently implied lifelong employment in exchange for employee loyalty. Success was often gauged by one's movement up the corporate hierarchy. Successful careers are now increasingly being based upon one's contribution to organizational outcomes as people jump from project to project. Consequently, one's pay and future are becoming more contingent on individual and team-based performance. In addition, companies are having to provide the training, coaching, and financial backing to help employees develop their skills and entrepreneurial ideas (Kanter, 1989).

There are both positive and negative outcomes of these changes. On the positive side, they increase opportunities by giving people the chance to develop their own ideas, pursue exciting projects, and be directly compensated for their efforts. "The excitement of projects in which people are empowered to act on their own ideas makes work more satisfying and more absorbing, increasing the sense of accomplishment" (Kanter, 1989, p. 356). In addition, enhanced collaboration across departments and organizations is becoming more common. Organizations may benefit by reducing labour costs and emphasizing the entrepreneurial spirit within all employees (Bridges, 1994; Kanter, 1989).

On the negative side, organizational pressures to reduce costs have affected job security. In fact, unemployment statistics in Canada have increased from 4.2% in the 1950s to over 11% in the 1990s (Kroeger, 1994). Unemployment rates have increased as organizations have downsized to save money. Unfortunately, however, many of these initiatives have proven to be unsuccessful (Foot & Stoffman, 1996; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994). In fact, Foot and Stoffman (1996) suggest that massive downsizing initiatives are a reflection of “. . . management asleep at the switch” (p. 64). Foot and Stoffman state that organizations should not suddenly and quickly reduce their staff. Instead, they suggest that organizations should de-layer their bureaucratic hierarchies, help people plan their careers, and provide them with the training they need to make valuable contributions within flatter, more horizontally based organizations. Unfortunately, Foot and Stoffman (1996) also acknowledge that technological advancements are reducing the size of the workforce. They predict that this trend will continue and suspect that employees with the least amount of training will be the most affected.

Another disadvantage of these changes is that “. . . an organization with more opportunities to contribute—and to get rewarded for it—makes more people feel like devoting more time to work, thus affecting their personal lives” (Kanter, 1989, pp. 42-43). The unpredictable hours and the lack of predetermined responsibilities, both of which often come with project work, can severely limit time and energy for non-work roles.

Another concern revolves around the notion of loyalty. Unfortunately, if employees are encouraged to rely on themselves, it may be difficult for organizations to gain employee loyalty when deemed necessary or desirable. In the past, such loyalties were part of the implicit contract between employer and employee. Now organizations may need to offer assignments which employees feel are 'résumé-enhancing' in order to gain such commitments (Kanter, 1989).

Kanter (1989), in recognition of the positive and negative aspects of global competition, lists 10 recommendations to support organizational flexibility while still providing a measure of employee security:

. . . [a] human resource development tax credit; industry-level training partnerships; accelerated technology and language education; union-management partnerships to plan workplace changes; incentives for profit-sharing and performance bonuses; stronger safety nets for displaced employees; day care; flex-year opportunities; flexible use of severance and unemployment benefits; and portable pensions. (p. 370)

By increasing the knowledge and efficiency levels of their employees, career development initiatives have an important role to play in improving the competitiveness of organizations in the global marketplace. Unfortunately, however, providing well-organized and well-administered human resource and career development services has become an increasingly challenging activity.

As companies more frequently hire on short-term, contract, and project-to-project bases, the career paths and career hierarchies of the past no longer provide for the same types of career development opportunities. More outsourcing of non-essential tasks has also resulted in fewer positions and less opportunity for advancement. The quick alignment of employees to projects has also presented problems for organizational career development initiatives and has severely dated the usefulness of existing models of organizational career development that rely heavily on concepts such as promotion from within, clear career path structures, and hierarchical career advancement.

These changes and the problem of relying on outdated organizational career development models may explain why Bernes and Magnusson (1996), in their study of the 30 largest organizations in Calgary, Canada, found very little agreement between the intentions of organizational career development services and the actual services provided. For example, they found that the most common intention of career development services was to provide career path information to employees, yet it was the least available career development service. Existing models of organizational career development highlight the importance of such information. However, the models have not been updated to reflect changes in employment realities. Consequently, it is not surprising that Bernes and Magnusson (1996) found such disparities. The inconsistencies between organizational career development intentions and service delivery necessitate an investigation of current models of organizational

career development. Each model will be critiqued from the perspective of current challenges faced by organizations.

### Models of Organizational Career Development

Four models of organizational career development from the following writers have been proposed to link individual and organizational needs: Lofquist and Dawis (1969), Schein (1978), Hall (1986), and Brousseau et al. (1996). Each of these models is reviewed and critiqued below.

#### The Lofquist and Dawis Model

Lofquist and Dawis (1969) produced the first model attempting to link individual and organizational needs. Their model is influenced greatly by the trait-and-factor theory of career development. Consequently, they make extensive use of testing to measure the degree of correspondence between the work personality of the individual and the work environment of the organization.

Lofquist and Dawis (1969) believe that an individual's work personality can be determined by measuring one's abilities and one's needs. To assess abilities, Lofquist and Dawis utilize the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) (U.S. Department of Labor, 1979). This test provides norm-referenced data on an individual's verbal ability, numerical ability, spatial ability, form perception, clerical ability, eye-hand coordination, finger dexterity, manual dexterity, and general learning ability. To assess needs, Weiss, England, Dawis, and Lofquist (1967) developed the Minnesota Importance



Questionnaire (MIQ), comprised of 190 items. The 190 items were originally scored onto 20 need scales. Lofquist and Dawis (1984) subsequently used factor analysis techniques to refine the MIQ. It now possesses the following six scales: achievement, comfort, status, altruism, safety, and autonomy.

To assess the work environment, Lofquist and Dawis (1969) measure the job's ability requirements and the job's system of reinforcement. The job's ability requirements are measured by the Occupational Aptitude Pattern-Structure (OAPS) (U.S. Department of Labor, 1979). This document lists the GATB scores required to be successful in specific occupations. The job's system of reinforcement is measured by the Minnesota Job Description Questionnaire (MJDQ) (Borgen, Weiss, Tinsley, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1968). The MJDQ measures the degree to which the individual needs identified by the MIQ are being met within the work environment. The degree to which these needs are being met determines the employee's level of satisfaction on the job. Lofquist and Dawis (1969) use the term 'satisfactoriness' to describe the degree to which an individual's abilities match the ability requirements of the job. Consequently, Lofquist and Dawis (1969) believe that the degree of satisfaction and satisfactoriness may lead them to predict whether the employee will be promoted, transferred, fired, retained, or will leave the organization. To aid them in correlating GATB scores with those of the OAPS, they have developed the Minnesota Satisfactoriness Scales (MSS). Similarly, they have developed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to assess

the degree of correspondence between the MIQ and occupational reinforcer patterns. Collectively, the MSS and MSQ are not only used to predict whether the employee will be promoted, transferred, fired, retained, or will leave the organization; they are also used to predict the number of months or years the individual will stay on the job.

In critiquing this approach, Osipow (1983) suggests that most of the work on this model occurred between 1969 and 1973. Since 1973, very little has been done to elaborate on the model. Osipow (1983) questions why this model has not been applied since then by its proponents or by others.

As a trait-and-factor approach, the Lofquist and Dawis model suffers from many of the same problems as do structural theories of individual career development. For example, the approach is limited, just as structural theories are, to a one-time snapshot of individuals relative to the world of work. It does not consider individual development and change over time. Instead, many tests and resources are used to capture one picture of the individual. Although consecutive snapshots may help to capture an evolving picture, this process is time-consuming and very expensive. Currently, the requirements of the world of work are changing far too fast for a one-time static matching approach to offer enough utility, especially considering the amount of research needed to assess the organizational and individual factors involved in achieving the initial match.

Sharf (1992) also questions this approach by suggesting that an emphasis on testing may be impractical because the measurement of possibly hundreds of skills and needs may be awkward and difficult to fully achieve.

Another criticism may revolve around the model's goal of producing job tenure on the basis of this one-time matching. Bridges (1994) suggests that such a goal is unnecessary and counterproductive to individuals and organizations in today's work environment. Along these same lines, Bridges (1994) states that

. . . long production runs, extended chains of command, fixed job descriptions—all these things made sense in the slower-moving factories and offices of the pre-electronic world. But today these things are too rigid. The structures, procedures, and roles of the past are too slow for a world driven and networked by electronic data. (p. 15)

On the positive side, the Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model emphasizes the observable measurement of abilities, needs, and reinforcements and subsequently matches these traits to the needs of particular occupations. The Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model, however, does not suggest strategies or methods that could help organizations or individuals to, firstly, set goals or, secondly, develop systemic strategies to achieve their goals. Instead, the model simply attempts to match individuals with appropriate jobs. By not encouraging individuals and organizations to create their own visions and then by not providing the strategies to enhance movement toward the achievement

of set goals, the Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model has limited applicability to today's dynamic organizations.

### Schein's Model

Schein (1978) provided another model to describe a comprehensive linking of individual and organizational needs. Schein's model outlines individual career development tasks such as entering an organization, being socialized within the context of the organization, and accepting the organization as a place of employment. Schein also describes organizational processes such as planning for staffing, planning for growth and development, planning for levelling off and disengagement, and planning for replacement. Schein believes that both individual and organizational needs can be met through effective human resource planning and development initiatives. His model lists several activities designed to link organizational and individual needs. These activities include job analysis, job design, job assignment, coaching, performance appraisal, promotions, job changes, training and development options, career counselling, career planning, continuing education, job enrichment, job rotation, retirement planning, human resource inventorying, and job postings. It is important to note that Schein does not simply list these activities but illustrates in his model that specific services need to be tied to specific organizational and employee needs. Individual needs vary in early, middle, and late career stages. Organizational needs vary depending on business cycles. Effective and comprehensive matching takes

into account both individual and organizational needs. The result is organizational effectiveness and individual career satisfaction. A key principle underlying Schein's (1978) model is that organizations must engage in these matching activities in order to strategically utilize human resource planning to meet corporate goals.

Although the term 'matching' is used by Schein (1978), his model may be considered to be both a structural and a process approach to organizational career development. By matching individual and organizational needs, one may be tempted to conclude that it is a structural approach; however, his model also incorporates a developmental perspective and includes the notion of recycling. Recycling is evident when he describes business cycles. For example, during expansion, Schein believes companies should emphasize activities that allow them to plan for staffing and growth (e.g., recruitment procedures, training, etc.). In flat times, he emphasizes activities such as job enrichment and job rotation.

In addition to these ideas, Schein (1978, 1996) developed the notion of career anchors. Career anchors are individual preferences that people attempt to maintain. Schein (1996) has found that people usually have strong preoccupations with either autonomy/independence, technical/functional competence, security/stability, general managerial competence, entrepreneurial creativity, service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge, and lifestyle. Schein (1978) states that these types must be clearly understood because individuals

“. . . want quite different things out of their careers, measure themselves quite differently, and therefore have to be managed quite differently” (p. 128).

Schein (1996) suggests that individuals can utilize the concept of career anchors to help them weather the storms caused by all the changes (e.g., downsizing, rightsizing, flattening, etc.) in the world of work. By understanding what is truly important to them, Schein believes that people can more readily manoeuvre themselves into positions and situations that are more likely to meet their needs. Schein (1996) suggests that people begin to clarify their internal sense of career as they become aware of their career anchors.

The normal career involves a subjective sense of where one's going in one's work life, as contrasted with the 'extracurricular,' the formal stages and roles defined by organizational policies and societal concepts of what an individual can expect in the occupational structure. (Schein, 1996, p. 80)

By gaining a sense of one's internal career, one essentially establishes a personal vision that can guide an individual toward his or her self-defined goals. Without this awareness and without the vision, goals may never be set or achieved. This can leave individuals entirely at the whim of organizational changes. This point reconfirms the necessity of self-awareness/self-evaluation as an important component of individual career development.

Although Schein's career anchors instrument is used quite widely in organizations to help with both career planning and career management, one of the model's greatest shortcomings is the fact that it is based upon the assumption of lifelong employment with one organization. In fact, Schein (1978) states, ". . . every person in the organization will go through career stages, from being a recruit to ultimately retiring" (p. 209). Consequently, he lists specific early, mid- and late career issues. Similarly, he lists organizational needs that also tend to reflect the notion of lifelong employment (e.g., planning for staffing, planning for growth and development, planning for levelling off and disengagement, and planning for replacement and restaffing). Essentially, Schein's (1978) model proposes a linear sequence of interventions based on the assumption that early, mid-, and late career issues follow each other. This assumption appears valid for the time period in which it was written and within the context of static organizations wherein replicating past successes is the goal (Magnusson, 1996). However, the idea of employment over such a long time frame is not valid within today's world of work or within the context of changing, dynamic organizations. In fact, several writers (Axmith, 1994; Bridges, 1994; Davenport, 1994; Kanter, 1989; Mirus & Smith, 1994) have commented about the shift from long-term working arrangements to temporary contract work. These writers have estimated that over 50% of the workforce will be employed on a part-time, temporary, or contract basis in the near future. With companies increasingly beginning to

hire on short-term, contract, and/or project bases, Schein's (1978) model appears outdated. In fact, recent developments in the area of contract work may mean that organizations will need to cultivate their own smaller core group of employees and that contract workers who wish to be hired for certain projects will increasingly be left with the responsibility for their own career development. This saves the employer money in training and salary costs; however, the organization may run the risk of not having the necessary talent available when it is required. For example, some industries in Calgary, Canada are already having a difficult time finding the workers they need when they need them (e.g., home construction, computers). These difficulties may become more pronounced if organizations continue to downsize.

A final criticism of Schein's (1978) model has to do with his stage of planning for levelling off and disengagement. With a core group of employees and outside contract workers being hired on a project-to-project basis, this stage of Schein's model (and the high costs associated with it) may no longer be necessary. In other words, there may be no need for money to be spent on such programs when the project is completed and the employees are gone. Obviously, this will depend on a number of factors, such as the organization, the industry, and the mandate of the next project.

Like Lofquist and Dawis (1969), Schein's (1978) model does not emphasize the idea that individuals and organizations may have unique visions and purposes. Instead, Schein (1978) assumes that individuals in early, mid-,



or late career stages will require services designed for that particular stage. By recognizing a greater diversity of needs, Schein's model would need to recommend a larger variety of potential interventions. Activities from this larger selection would be utilized on an as-needed basis as opposed to applying the same strategies to everyone within a common phase of their career (e.g., early, middle, or late). Similarly, he suggests that linkages between these employee needs can be achieved through the parallel structures of business cycles. Essentially, Schein statically matches strategies to preconceived individual and organizational needs. Unfortunately, these assumptions limit the degree to which Schein's model may be individualized for use within various organizations. By not being fluid, his list of strategies cannot be synergistically modified to create movement toward the achievement of unique individual and organizational goals. Unfortunately, this significantly affects the model's applicability to dynamic organizations.

In Schein's (1996) more recent writing, he comments about the need for individuals to ensure they understand their career anchors (what is truly important to them) in order to help them weather the storms created by the constant changes in the world of work. Unfortunately, however, he did not revise his model to address the recent changes in the world of work.

#### Hall's Model

Hall (1986) provides a six-step model of organizational career development. Step 1 is referred to as the 'Career Context' stage. In this stage,

the employee must exhibit some level of motivation for career exploration. Meanwhile, the organization must have an internal labour market, the need for movement, a fairly clear career path structure, and a policy of promoting employees from within the organization.

Step 2 is referred to as the 'Information' stage. During this stage, the employee is responsible for completing a self-assessment of his or her own values, skills, interests, and experience. The organization is responsible for assessing each employee's level of performance, his or her potential for growth within the organization, and for documenting the various job assignments that individual employees have fulfilled. The organization is responsible for keeping all of the above information in an integrated career information system. In addition to such record keeping, the organization also provides career counselling services and information to employees about the career opportunities that are available within the organization.

Step 3 is referred to as the 'Goals' stage. In this stage, individuals are required to synthesize information about themselves into some life goals. Organizations are required to identify and communicate their future business objectives and their future staffing needs. At this stage, information about specific candidates and information about the available career opportunities culminates in the establishment of career development goals.

Step 4 is referred to as the 'Plans' stage. In this stage, individual employees are required to break down their career development goals into

specifically timed strategies for achieving each goal. Meanwhile, the organization is involved with establishing a human resource development strategy to ensure that the necessary talent is available when it is needed. This leads organizations to define the key assignments an employee should have received before entering a new role within the organization. When organizational human resource development strategies are communicated, and the key assignments necessary for particular roles are made clear, employees are able to refine their individual strategies into specific career plans.

Step 5 is referred to as the 'Resources' stage. During this stage, employees must utilize problem-solving and coping skills to ensure that their plans are implemented. At this time, it is essential for the organization to help employees to implement their plans by providing the necessary support. Support services include personal contacts with key managers, a peer support system, and training in the effective use of networking skills.

Step 6 is referred to as the 'Performance' stage. During this stage, employees and organizations refocus on the issue of performance, this time in the new role. Good performance may trigger a repeat of steps 1 through 5 and result in another cycle of career growth.

Hall's (1986) model appears to make heuristic sense. In fact, it effectively delegates the responsibility for career development equally between the individual and the organization. However, it greatly emphasizes the need for organizations to have a clearly defined career path structure. This is

difficult to achieve as organizations increasingly move from a hierarchical structure to a flatter, team-based structure. With fewer permanent employees and more employees hired on a contract, project-to-project basis, clear career path structures will no longer exist (Bridges, 1994; Campbell, 1994; Zunker, 1994). In other words, organizations appear to be less capable of structuring and communicating clear career path structures amidst wide-scale organizational change. A related and similar issue has to do with Hall's (1986) concept of promotion from within the organization. As already stated, this element appears to be suffering the same demise as the clear career path structures. In flatter organizations, the idea of promotion becomes a dated concept. Even Hall's notion of the existence of an internal labour market is being questioned. Internal labour markets are rapidly shrinking as organizations move to smaller core groups of employees and contract out pieces of their business. This trend appears to save organizations money; however, issues over the alignment of shared visions between the organization and outside service providers will need more attention in the future than they have received in the past. While contracting out may save costs, it also has the potential of decreasing the quality of service if outside employees lack a sense of ownership in the organization's vision and strategic plans.

Hall's (1986) emphasis on career counselling may also be questioned. With a smaller group of employees, such services are required to increase efficiency by ensuring individual visions are aligned with organizational

demands. However, with more contract workers, these services may need to be modified to ensure that the skills, interests, visions of outside employees are aligned with the organizational demands or, more specifically, the demands of the project.

Even Hall's (1990) emphasis on providing employees with a diversity of career opportunities in order to tap their full potential is a dated concept. Unfortunately, organizations today are concerned about competition and survival as well as return on investment to stockholders. Consequently, career opportunities are based on necessities and not on providing an array of options in order to motivate employees.

Although all of the above points are valid criticisms of Hall's (1986) model, probably the strongest criticism has to do with the model's surface-level heuristic value. Congruent with the notion of clear career path structures, Hall's (1986) model seems to assume that individuals will strive to climb organizational hierarchies and it thereby omits exploring other avenues for obtaining personal satisfaction. Although his later writing acknowledges this shortcoming (Hall, 1996), he does not revise his model. Finally, by being universally and generically applied, Hall's (1986) model may run the risk of promoting tool- or technique-driven interventions which may not meet the needs of the employees and the organization being served. Schein (1986) comments on this problem by stating that career development specialists tend to push tools, programs, and normative solutions to career problems without

enough emphasis on how such tools can be modified or utilized to better meet the needs of employees and organizations.

It is not possible to take a single method or career intervention and simply 'plug it into' the organization. Like any other intervention, the change must fit with the existing culture, and the principles of good planned change must be used. (Schein, 1986, p. 334)

Schein (1986) also states that "identification, development, appraisal, and reward processes must fit into the culture and task structure of the powerful line managers of the organization or they will simply be sidelined and viewed as irrelevant" (p. 321). He suggests that career development is defined very differently in different industries, professions, and organizations, and that any attempt to define tools and programs that will work across all organizations is doomed to be seen as irrelevant in at least some organizations.

Hall's (1986) model suffers from outdated concepts such as clear career path structures, promotion from within, the existence of an internal labour market, and ensuring an array of career opportunities. The heuristic value of his model may promote tool- or technique-driven interventions that are not aligned with employee and organizational needs. Specifically, his model does not suggest strategies for balancing individual and organizational needs. In addition, it does not emphasize the role of personal visions and organizational visions as a source of energy for the setting and achieving of individual and organizational goals.

### Brousseau et al.'s Model

In response to the recent changes in the world of work, Brousseau et al. (1996) have proposed a new model of organizational career development. The main thesis of this model is that organizations have embraced the need for change more than is necessary. Brousseau et al. (1996) argue that organizations and individuals both need stability and change.

Organizations should not, however, merely abandon past, static, narrow concepts about careers in favor of new, more change-oriented career concepts that are equally narrow. This repeated cycle of out-with-the-old-and-in-with-the-new is likely to increase rather than reduce pandemonium. Instead, a more powerful strategy is to incorporate older, more static career concepts along with newer, more dynamic career concepts into a pluralistic strategy for dealing with careers and organizational arrangements. (Brousseau et al., 1996, p. 53)

These ideas are very similar to those of Super (1992) and Krumboltz (1994) about the need for many theories to help explain the complex nature of individual career development (see Chapter 2). Following Brousseau et al.'s (1996) arguments, one could extend the views of Super (1992) and Krumboltz (1994) to the realm of organizational career development models. In this manner, it may be necessary to have access to several models of organizational career development and to utilize the model that most suits the

needs of the particular organization and its employees. Consequently, if an organization needs to emphasize employee and job matching, it would use the Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model; if it wants a model that addresses business cycles and early-, mid-, and late-career issues, it would use Schein's (1978) model; and if it wishes to emphasize career paths and upward mobility, it could use Hall's (1986) model.

Brousseau et al. (1996) suggest that being limited to one approach (the static or the dynamic) may “. . . significantly constrain the ability of organizations to dynamically interact with not only different types of individuals but also with the ebbs and flows of change in specific areas of the environment” (p. 55). Congruent with this idea of maximum flexibility, Brousseau et al. (1996) highlight that most organizations already possess the necessary diversity within its various employees to be able to respond with flexibility to most situations.

Brousseau et al. (1996) suggest that there are four types of employees: linear, expert, spiral, and transitory. The career motives and associated behavioural competencies of each type of employee, according to Brousseau et al. (1996), are outlined in Table 1.

Brousseau et al. (1996) also state that these employee types can collectively form organizational career teams to meet differing organizational requirements. For example, an organization that requires growth, according to Brousseau et al. (1996), will need to lower its prices for its products. It will



**Table 1**

Employee Types as Described by  
Brousseau et al. (1996)

<b>Employee Type</b>	<b>Career Motives and Associated Behavioural Competencies</b>
linear	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• leadership, competitiveness, cost efficiency, logistics management, profit orientation</li> </ul>
expert	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• quality, commitment, reliability, technical competence, stability orientation</li> </ul>
spiral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• creativity, teamwork, skill diversity, lateral coordination, people development</li> </ul>
transitory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• speed, networking, adaptability, fast learning, project focus</li> </ul>

therefore need a linear organizational team because linear employees possess competitiveness, cost efficiency, logistical management skills, and a profit orientation.

. . . [A] spiral culture would better support a strategy calling for creativity and diversification. An expert culture would better support a strategy aimed at maintaining the organization's position based on high-quality and high-reliability products and services. A transitory culture would suit a strategy of exploiting new opportunities by getting into new markets quickly with highly innovative or easy-to-use products or services. (Brousseau et al., 1996, p. 60)

Brousseau et al.'s (1996) model of organizational career development requires the organization to establish its strategy and assess the career motives of its employees. It then requires the organization to evaluate the gap between what is needed from employees and what the employees have to offer. The organization then identifies the optimal structure and selects the career management practices that may be necessary to fill in the gaps between what the employees have to offer and what it needs from its employees.

Three options for career management practices are offered by the Brousseau et al. (1996) model: counselling, contracts, and cafeteria. Counselling refers to training programs to increase the necessary skills of employees based on organizational demands. The use of contracts is another way of encouraging employees to commit to organizational needs. For example, employees who possess technical expertise may receive contracts that are designed to favour this activity and to keep such employees on par with their managerial equivalents. Cafeteria models involve “. . . non-linear pay systems, such as pay-for-performance and skill-based pay plans, which compensate individuals on the basis of the range of skills and work functions at which they have demonstrated proficiency” (Brousseau et al., 1996, p. 63).

The power of this model is clearly evident in its main thesis of valuing all types of contributions because all types—linear, expert, spiral, and transitory—are necessary at different times. The model illustrates how types can be used to meet differing organizational strategies. The ‘types’ articulated

by Brousseau et al. (1996) are similar to Schein's (1996) career anchors. Consequently, like Schein's career anchors, they may prove useful in helping employees with self-awareness and self-assessment. As useful as that might be, it is important to note that this is just one aspect of self-assessment. Super (1990) and Holland (1985) also provide useful methods of self-assessment. The combining of such methods, along with encouraging individuals to dream about their career wishes, may help employees to crystallize their own personal visions for their careers and lives. Unfortunately, this broader step is not considered by the Brousseau et al. (1996) model. Instead, the model appears to favour organizational needs on a strategic level—ensuring that organizational needs are met, but not placing sufficient emphasis on how employee needs can be met. Therefore, one may argue that the model does not effectively encourage the balancing of individual and organizational needs.

In summation, all of the aforementioned models of organizational career development lack an emphasis on how personal visions and organizational visions can be used to facilitate movement toward the achievement of individual and organizational goals. These models also lack interactive and balancing processes to equilibrate changing individual and organizational needs. Unfortunately, a review of the survey research on organizational career development services indicates that these deficits are also apparent within the practice of organizational career development. The next section provides a

review and a critique on the state of practice in organizational career development.

### The Practice of Organizational Career Development

Most of the research into the practice of organizational career development has taken the form of survey research. Unfortunately, most of it is very dated (e.g., Abdelnour & Hall, 1980; Barkhaus, 1983; Clement, Walker, & Pinto, 1979; Griffith, 1980, 1981; Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Kleiman, 1984; Levine, 1985; Morgan, Hall, & Martier, 1979; Pinto & Walker, 1978; Portwood & Granrose, 1986; Seybolt, 1979; Wowk, Williams, & Halstead, 1983). Three studies, however, collectively capture the main themes of the above research and will be discussed in further detail: Walker and Gutteridge (1979), Gutteridge, Leibowitz, and Shore (1993), and Bernes and Magnusson (1996).

#### Walker and Gutteridge (1979)

The most comprehensive study of career development within organizations was conducted by Walker and Gutteridge (1979). They surveyed 1,117 members of the Human Resources Division of the American Management Association. Two hundred and twenty-five U.S. company representatives that belonged to this association replied to Walker and Gutteridge's (1979) request for information on organizational career development practices.

The Walker and Gutteridge (1979) study provided information on the level of acceptance of career development services within organizations, why services were developed, what services were provided, which services were the most and least frequently applied, which services were the newest, specific factors that made organizational career development services better, career management services that were most and least likely to be linked to career planning services, and future needs of organizations. These findings will now be briefly reviewed. As well, relevant information from the above-noted studies will be interspersed when applicable and/or when similar findings are reported.

Walker and Gutteridge (1979) found widespread acceptance of the benefits of career development services; however, there was a large discrepancy between ideal services and the reality of the practices found (also Seybolt, 1979). This was due to the overall finding that, for many of the companies surveyed, career development was a “. . . largely informal, experimental, and fragmented activity” (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979, p. 2). Companies felt that the tools were readily available but that the application of these tools was a challenging endeavour.

Career development services were developed to meet the specific needs of special employee groups, such as fast-track managers, and then later applied to other employee groups. Programs were usually incorporated to serve employer needs such as management development, desire to promote

from within, need to develop worker productivity, turnover concerns, and affirmative action policy commitments (also Griffith, 1981). Employee requests for career planning services were also mentioned as a reason for initiating programs. Companies without career development programs cited the following as reasons: too many other priorities, cost, lack of time, inadequate model or theoretical basis, lack of direction, lack of personnel with the education or experience to implement services, lack of participation, recessionary times, staff reductions, and lack of suitable materials (Barkhaus, 1983; Walker & Gutteridge, 1979).

Walker and Gutteridge (1979) found that most companies provided basic services such as informal staff counselling and employee communications. Workshops and workbooks were found to be fairly new but growing activities. Particular emphasis was given to psychological testing and assessment, referral to external counsellors, and outplacement counselling for executives and middle managers. Few companies reported forecasting future needs and developing programs to meet those needs. Training of supervisors in career counselling was found to be the top priority for the future efforts of these companies. With this as the top priority, it is not surprising to note that companies found the greatest frustration to be “. . . the difficulty of equipping and motivating supervisors and managers to act as career counsellors, a factor that is believed to be central to effective career planning. Lack of success in

this area seemed to tarnish the overall evaluation” (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979, p. 34).

The most frequently applied career planning services were: informal counselling by personnel staff (88.7%); career counselling by supervisors (55.8%); workshops on interpersonal relationships (48.8%); job performance and development planning workshops (42.4%); and outplacement counselling (37.3%). Career services that dealt with employee communication were found to be the most common. Such topics included: educational assistance; employment equity and affirmative action policies; job requirements; training and development options; and job vacancies. Career path information was the least common type of employee communication (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979).

The least frequently applied career planning services were: life and career planning workshops (11.4%); assessment centres for career development purposes (14.6%); individual self-analysis and planning workshops (15.6%); career counselling by specialized staff counsellors (20.5%); and training supervisors in career counselling (25%) (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979). These results are also similar to those of Gutteridge and Otte (1983), Portwood and Granrose (1986), and Barkhaus (1983).

The newest services were found to be training of supervisors in career counselling, career planning workbooks and workshops, and communications on career paths. These services were available for less than 3 years (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979). Services offered longer than 5 years included informal

counselling by personnel staff, referrals to external counsellors/resources, and communications regarding educational assistance (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979).

A few factors were found to increase the rated effectiveness of company services. Companies that made the administration of services the full-time responsibility of the personnel/human resource staff rated their programs to be more effective than companies that made it the part-time responsibility of supervisors or staff. Additionally, companies that had linked career planning and career management services rated their programs as more effective. Unfortunately, however, Walker and Gutteridge (1979) found career management services (services designed to meet organizational needs) outweighed career planning services (services designed to meet employee needs). Companies that reported the support of top management were also more likely to rate their services as being more effective (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Walker & Gutteridge, 1979). Similarly, Walker and Gutteridge (1979) found that companies that rated their overall programs as moderately or very effective maintained the following practices: career counselling by supervisors, training of supervisors in career counselling (also Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Levine, 1985), career counselling by specialized staff counsellors, life and career planning workshops, individual self-analysis workbooks, and communication of career path information.



The most common career management practices that were linked to career planning services included: job rotation (87.3%); management succession and replacement planning (86.7%); promotion and transfer practices (80.2%); external training and development programs (80.1%); and performance appraisals-planning and review (79.2%). The least common services to be linked included: outplacement counselling (47.2%); job descriptions/evaluations (52.0%); recruitment practices (58.7%); and personnel information systems (59.2%) (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979).

Companies reported a need for further development in expanding and integrating services, improving and formalizing practices, developing performance appraisals and individual assessments, providing more information to employees on job requirements and job availability, conducting pilot programs on new techniques such as workbooks and workshops, and providing more attention to the needs of retiring workers (Walker & Gutteridge, 1979).

Overall, Walker and Gutteridge (1979) found the state of organizational career development to be fragmented and informal. However, participants indicated widespread acceptance of career development and predicted that organizational career development services would greatly expand in the years to come.

Gutteridge et al. (1993)

Gutteridge et al. (1993) conducted another survey of organizational career development services. Their intent was to compare their results with those of the Walker and Gutteridge (1979) survey. They had predicted that

. . . the two sets of survey results would be markedly different given downsizing, delayering, plateauing, diversity, global competition, and other business realities as well as the observable growth of organizational career development tools and techniques—but we were wrong. Overall, our most striking finding was how similar the results of the two surveys were, how little has changed in the state of the practice since the late 1970's. (p. 29)

Only small changes were noted between the two surveys. For example, turnover was a much bigger issue in 1979 than in 1993 and motivating employees under conditions of limited growth was a larger issue in 1993. The 1979 prediction that career development services would expand within organizations was not supported by the 1993 results. Overall, Gutteridge et al. (1993) report that “. . . career development practices have not yet fulfilled the promising potential predicted by survey respondents in 1979” (p. 33).

The above comparison between 1979 and 1993 was conducted on U.S. organizations; however, Gutteridge et al. (1993) also examined organizational career development services provided in Europe, Australia, and Singapore. They found that, in Singapore, organizational career development services

were more likely than in the U.S. to be linked to business objectives. Organizations in Singapore were more likely to view career development as a mandatory function designed to enhance their competitiveness.

Of the four regions, U.S. managers were the least supportive of organizational career development. For example, they reported that they were less capable and less willing to hold career discussions with their employees. The U.S. organizations also devoted the least number of staff to organizational career development, while European organizations devoted the most. "Only 29 percent of responding U.S. organizations rated their systems as effective or very effective, as opposed to 52 percent for Australia, 62 percent for Singapore, and 58 percent for Europe" (Gutteridge et al., 1993, p. 101). On the basis of their data, Gutteridge et al. (1993) proposed three reasons that may account for the lower U.S. ratings:

1. Fewer staff available to support career development systems.
2. A weaker link between career development and strategic business plans.
3. Reduced incidence of managers holding career discussions with their employees. (p. 101)

#### Bernes and Magnusson (1996)

Bernes and Magnusson (1996) conducted a survey of career development services within Canadian organizations. Their results were comparable to the Gutteridge et al. (1993) study in the sense that they also

found very little expansion in the field based on the Walker and Gutteridge (1979) data. Bernes and Magnusson (1996) also found very little agreement between the intentions for career development and the services that were actually available. "For example, the key goals for career development were to promote job satisfaction, enhance employee productivity, reduce employee turnover, and increase employee motivation. However, it was unclear what specific services were employed to meet these goals" (Bernes & Magnusson, 1996, p. 572). Consequently, Bernes and Magnusson (1996) speculated that career development services are provided within organizations on the basis of their good intentions and not to address particular needs. Therefore, it is not surprising that career development services have not expanded as was expected in 1979. Today, career development services still appear to be fragmented and disconnected from each other and from the outcomes organizations are striving to achieve. In addition, career management services still outweigh career planning services. These results led Bernes and Magnusson (1996) to hypothesize that these deficiencies may be a result of the lack of an adequate model of organizational career development. It was felt that a more adequate model would provide practitioners with a conceptual basis for their work within organizations and thus improve their impact on employees and organizations. These views prompted the present dissertation.

### Summary

Based on the above discussion, it is apparent that a new model of organizational career development is required. Ideally, the model will emphasize how personal visions and organizational visions can be used to establish and facilitate movement toward the development of individual and organizational goals. The model also needs to utilize interactive and balancing processes to equilibrate changing individual and organizational needs. The review of organizational career development practice supported these views by suggesting that current career development services are disconnected from each other and that services designed to benefit the organization (career management services) outweigh services designed to meet individual needs (career planning services).

This chapter began by reviewing the relevant aspects of general systems theory and then provided some conceptualizations of organizational career development. The current trends and issues facing organizations were also briefly discussed. This provided a context for a critical evaluation of existing models of organizational career development. The critique of existing models and the review of the state of practice in organizational career development supported the idea that a new model of organizational career development needs to be created. The next chapter provides an overview of the proposed model.

## **Chapter 4**

### **THE PROPOSED MODEL**

The primary goal of this dissertation has been to design a model of organizational career development that allows for the balancing of individual and organizational needs and goals. Chapters 2 and 3 have presented the individual and organizational issues that are most pertinent to a new model of organizational career development.

This chapter describes how the proposed model was developed and provides a theoretical overview of the model. Potential applications of the model are presented in Chapter 5.

#### How the Proposed Model was Developed

Garrison and Magnusson's (1996) transactional view of effective teaching and learning was reconceptualized and expanded upon to create the proposed model of organizational career development. The goal of Garrison and Magnusson's model (see Fig. 1) was to conceptualize the balancing of effective teaching and learning. Congruent with the notion of balance, they developed three levels of learning/teaching with a balancing/interactive process for each level of the model. On the individual level, individuals construct their own meaning (see box 1A). In other words, they determine what they perceive to be meaningful. Individuals become responsible for their own learning and set individual learning goals when they are engaged in learning that they deem

**Figure 1**

Garrison and Magnusson's (1996) Transactional  
View of Effective Teaching and Learning

	<b>Individual Level</b>	<b>Balancing/ Interactive Processes</b>	<b>Collective Level</b>
<b>Level I</b>	1A  Constructivism  Individual Meaning	1B  Reciprocal confirmation	1C  Collaboration  Worthwhile knowledge
<b>Level II</b>	2A  Responsibility  Individual learning goals	2B  Critical discourse	2C  Control  Standards/ integrity
<b>Level III</b>	3A  Reflection  Specific learning experiences	3B  Monitoring/ management	3C  Regulation  Specific learning activities

to be meaningful (see box 2A). Individuals then reflect on those goals to establish and engage in specific learning experiences (see box 3A).

On the collective level, teachers collaborate to determine what may be deemed as worthwhile knowledge (see box 1C). However, the balancing/interactive process at this level (see box 1B) is critical for effective teaching and learning to occur because worthwhile knowledge becomes meaningful through the process of reciprocal confirmation. In other words, the individual and the teacher both have a role to play in determining what constitutes worthwhile and meaningful knowledge. It is through this process of balancing that effective teaching and learning occur. In box 2C, teachers break the elements of what they have deemed worthwhile knowledge (box 1C) down into standards of performance that must be controlled to maintain the integrity of the discipline being taught. Once again, however, the task of setting standards results in effective teaching and learning through a balancing/interactive process. The balancing/interactive process at this level prompts the individual and the teacher to engage in some form of critical discourse (see box 2B). This discourse allows the teacher to communicate expectations and encourages the individual to take responsibility for his or her own learning. Finally, teachers establish specific learning activities that will facilitate the achievement of the objectives set in box 2C. The balancing or interactive process at this level engages individuals and teachers in monitoring and managing the specific learning experiences and activities to ensure individual learning goals are met



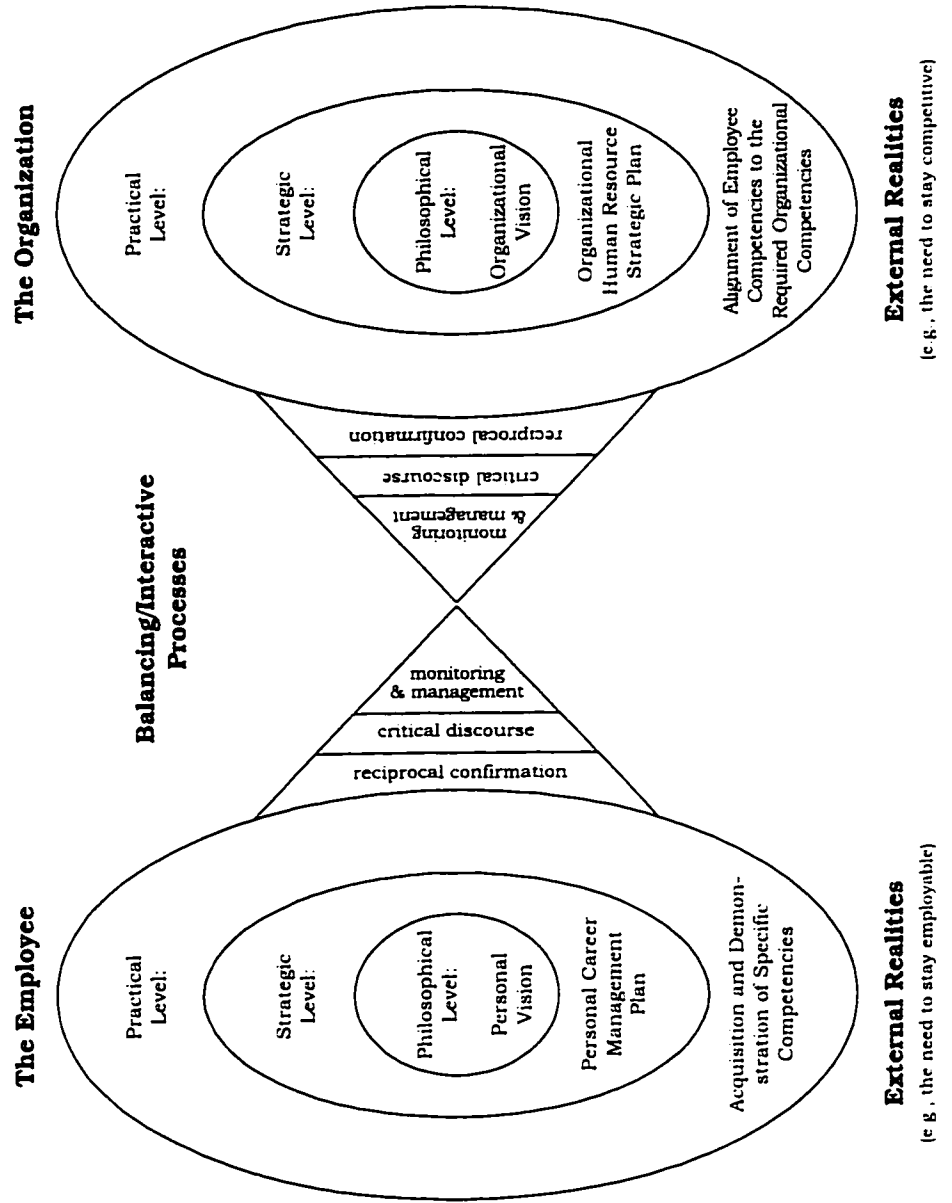
and collective standards have been achieved. Essentially, this model moves from the philosophical and generic (level 1) to the practical and specific (level 3).

Garrison and Magnusson's (1996) emphasis on the balancing of individual and collective needs and goals at various levels, and the use of interactive processes to achieve this balance, was very appealing considering the results of the survey literature on organizational career development presented in Chapter 3. As discussed in Chapter 3, organizational career development interventions lack a sense of connectedness and balance. These deficits were reported in the surveys that summarized organizational career development interventions as fragmented and heavily weighted toward meeting organizational needs.

Garrison and Magnusson's (1996) model was reconfigured and made less linear in both appearance and application. This was accomplished by incorporating the systems concept of unity, as represented by circles or rings (see Fig. 2). Within this systemic depiction, the context of organizational career development was emphasized by focusing on the employee perspective, the organizational perspective, and the interactive processes designed to balance the needs of employees and organizations. The general/philosophical outcomes that the reconceptualized model strives to achieve are shown in Figure 2.

**Figure 2**

**A Synergistic Model of Organizational Career Development:  
Bridging the Gap Between Employees and Organizations**



Consistent with a systemic depiction, parallel employee and organizational concepts were developed for each level of the model. The systems language (as discussed in Chapter 3) to denote these levels of hierarchical organization includes outcomes, processes, and structures. Outcomes are represented by the centre rings (Personal & Organizational Visions; see Fig. 2). They are the long-term goals toward which the individual and/or the organization are working. Processes are the strategies, plans, or methods for achieving the longer-term outcomes. The structures are the specifics; in this case, they are the competencies required by the employee and the organization to ensure movement toward personal and organizational visions. To simplify the terminology, the inner rings are referred to as the 'philosophical level,' the middle rings the 'strategic level,' and the outer rings the 'practical level.' These terms are used to illustrate movement from the broader philosophical vision to the strategic plans and then to the practical need for the acquisition and demonstration of specific competencies. More specifically, the model encourages employees and organizations to dream (philosophical level), plan (strategic level), and then perform (practical level).

The personal and organizational vision circles are intentionally represented by the core rings to denote their role in regulating the other subsystems. Meanwhile, the focus on competencies is represented by the outer rings to denote their role in providing feedback to the rest of the system regarding the requirements of the world of work—specifically the

competencies required to remain employable (in the case of the employee) and competitive (in the case of the organization) (see Fig. 2). This feedback helps employees and organizations to adjust to changes in the world of work and therefore monitor their plans and strategies to ensure the most optimal fulfillment of their respective visions. This use of systems concepts to create parallel structures between employees and organizations is new to models of organizational career development. Each component of the model will now be described.

### The Employee

An employee is anyone who receives compensation for services rendered to an organization. This includes full-time, part-time, temporary, and contract workers. In order to elaborate upon the employee side of the model, each level will be described separately. Finally, an employee example will be provided to illustrate the interrelationships among the three employee levels.

#### Philosophical Level: Personal Vision

The model begins with the generic goal of encouraging employees to establish their own personal vision. The need for employees to begin by establishing a personal vision relates back to the constructivist ideas that were presented in Chapter 2.

A personal vision provides one with an idealistic view of one's life and career. In other words, it provides an answer to the question: *In the best of all worlds, what would you like for your career and life?* Despite the

idealized nature of this question, establishing a personal vision allows employees to become authors of their own life stories, wherein they can begin to interact with the external environment with a sense of empowerment, personal responsibility, or agency (Cochran, 1992; Peavy, 1994). From this perspective, people begin to “. . . see that life is not just a series of haphazard events but a series of crossroads and junctions that they have played a major part in selecting” (Peavy, 1994, p. 11).

Cochran (1992) suggests that when people attempt to answer the questions, *What is?* and *What ought to be?*, they establish personal visions for themselves. Armed with a vision, people can become agents capable of designing and building fulfilling lives. In other words, they crystallize [a] reason[s] for living. Miller-Tiedeman and Tiedeman (1990) believe that personal visions emphasize personal desires and goals. Without strong visions, people may become immobilized by the many barriers and constraints inherent in the world of work.

By holding on to a strong vision, people may become more responsible, exert more control over their careers, and become more emotionally involved in their careers (Cochran, 1992; Peavy, 1994; Senge, Roberts, Ross, Smith, & Kleiner, 1994). This helps them to avoid career entrenchment concerns (Carson & Phillips Carson, 1997) wherein they stay in the same job despite their disinterest and dissatisfaction with the job. Hall (1996) uses the term ‘protean career’ to denote a career that is driven by the person, not the

organization. Hall (1996) suggests that when individuals become responsible for their career success and manage their careers in accordance with their personal vision, they begin to follow “. . . the path with a heart” (p. 10). The path with a heart involves doing what you love to do, with the added bonus of getting paid for it (Hall, 1996). Similarly, Senge et al. (1994) state that those of us

. . . who spend our waking hours earning a living essentially have two choices. We can come up with a vision for our career. Or we can let somebody else determine what kind of work we do, turn that part of our life over to them, and spend our time at work in a state of nonexistence. (p. 208)

Constructivist theory would predict that personal visions will vary because different people will possess differing perspectives on reality. Consequently, how one views his or her life to date and how one envisions future opportunities in life and career will have an impact on the vision one chooses to pursue. However, constructivist theory also suggests that individual realities need to be negotiated with external realities. For example, one may envision a life filled with leisure and this may be possible based on few economic needs and plenty of economic resources. However, when economic needs are high and resources are low, then these economic (or external) realities will necessitate that the individual renegotiate his or her individual sense of reality with external perspectives. This may encourage the

individual to reconsider his or her place in the world of work. Similarly, Krumboltz's (1979) theory reminds us that individuals may underestimate their abilities to overcome external barriers due to deflated self-observation generalizations, wherein they believe they cannot accomplish their goals. According to Krumboltz (1979), these individuals require cognitive restructuring interventions to help them align their individual realities with more appropriate and self-enhancing external realities. The intervention may also include assisting individuals to obtain the necessary task approach skills through the external practice of specific activities designed to enhance their abilities.

Super (1990) believes that career planning can help an individual to clarify the kind of person he or she wants to be. What one wants to be or become is a function of one's biological, geographical, and social influences combined with intelligence, needs, aptitudes, values, interests, special aptitudes, personality, and achievements. All of these variables interact to determine one's self-concept (Super, 1990). According to Super (1990), individuals engage in a variety of life roles in order to implement their self-concepts.

Personal visions are determined by the same multitude of factors that determine self-concepts. Both terms are derived from the same variables; however, the words 'personal visions' are used in this dissertation to emphasize the personal visualizing of potential dreams, wishes, and desires.

Like self-concepts, personal visions differ on the bases of differing self-assessments and self-perceived notions of career and life opportunities. In other words, people need to negotiate their personal visions (which are based upon internal realities) with contextual issues (which are based upon external realities).

According to Schein (1996), career anchors are individual preferences that people attempt to maintain. Schein (1996) has found that people usually have strong preoccupations with either autonomy/independence, technical/functional competence, security/stability, general managerial competence, entrepreneurial creativity, service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge, and lifestyle. Schein (1978) states that these types must be clearly understood because individuals “. . . want quite different things out of their careers, measure themselves quite differently, and therefore have to be managed quite differently” (p. 128). By understanding what is truly important to them, Schein believes that people can more readily manoeuvre themselves into positions and situations that are more likely to meet their needs.

Although Schein's (1978) career anchors self-assessment instrument is readily available, he has found that many individuals do not become aware of their career anchors until they are faced with “. . . a promotion, a firing or a move . . .” (Schein, 1996, p. 81). Unfortunately, waiting for a promotion, firing or a move to learn about what is truly important to you as an individual may be too late. By gaining a sense of one's internal career (i.e., one's career



anchor) earlier, one essentially begins to establish a personal vision that can guide an individual toward his or her self-directed goals. Without this awareness and without the vision, goals may never be set or achieved and individuals may remain entirely at the whim of organizational changes (Senge et al., 1994; Schein, 1996). Although this captures the rationale for establishing personal visions as early as possible, some individuals will inevitably continue to put this process off while others will be more proactive.

Practitioners can help individuals to establish personal visions by engaging them in a variety of exercises. For example, guided visualizations (Crozier, 1994), pride stories (Alberta Advanced Education & Career Development, 1996), and the dependable strengths articulation process (Peavy, 1994) can all be used to help crystallize personal visions. Senge et al. (1994) also combine elements of some of the above exercises with values clarification to help individuals establish their visions.

In sum, the ability to visualize and see life as one wishes increases self-responsibility for the outcomes of one's life (Miller-Tiedeman & Tiedeman, 1990). A vision for the future also provides a personal anchor for the individual during times of change (Jones & De Fillippi, 1996; Schein, 1996). Both of these are particularly important as changes accelerate in the world of work.

Many writers in the field of career development have alluded to the necessity of creating personal visions (Cochran, 1992; Miller-Tiedeman &

Tiedeman, 1990; Peavy, 1994; Senge et al., 1994; Super, 1990). Schein (1978), however, is the only one to bring the concept to a particular model of organizational career development and does so through his concept of 'career anchors.' Career anchors exemplify the idea of tapping into what matters most to individuals; therefore, the idea reflects the intent behind the concept of a personal vision. Although the concept of career anchors can be considered one component of a personal vision, career anchors may also be considered to be too limiting. In other words, a personal vision may not necessarily be as easily categorized as Schein (1978, 1996) suggests. Instead, the concept of a personal vision, as used in this dissertation, encompasses anything that is important to the individual. It does not rely on the categorization of meaning systems. Therefore, although the use of 'personal visions' in this dissertation is not unique to the broader field of career development, it does represent an addition and/or modification to current conceptualizations of personal visions as used in existing models of organizational career development (e.g., Schein's [1978] model).

Vondracek and Fouad (1994) use the term 'developmental-contextualism' to describe the behaviours that result "... from the interaction of the developing individual and the multiple contexts within which he or she lives" (p. 210). They suggest that the emphasis on the interplay between internal and external realities makes the use of theories specific to particular cultural or socioeconomic groups redundant because all individuals,

regardless of race or background, are required to balance these polarities. Therefore, it is argued that the proposed model maintains applicability across the various socioeconomic and cultural divisions “. . . because, at its core, contextualism incorporates socioeconomic and cultural influences on individual vocational behavior” (Savickas, 1994, p. 237). This does not mean that the outcomes or end products for different people are always the same. In other words, the process of developing a personal vision is the same for everyone; however, the actual vision and its implementation differ widely based on a multitude of individual differences. These differences may be culturally and/or socioeconomically based. Cultural and/or socioeconomic variables influence the visions that people set for themselves because these variables help to shape an individual and thus an individual's perspective of 'the ideal.' Consequently, what is ideal for one may not be ideal for someone else. For example, a male secretary may have a personal vision of working in an environment wherein he has the opportunity to socialize, to work between the hours of 9:00 a.m. and 3:00 p.m. while his children are in school, to never bring work home with him, and to maximize his time with his children. These aspects of his vision identify what is important to him. This varies among people; however, the process of determining what matters most to individuals does not differ. Some individuals already know what matters to them, whereas others may be helped to articulate their personal visions through the above-mentioned exercises.

Similarly, contract workers may have different perspectives regarding their definition of 'the ideal;' however, the process of defining and articulating their personal visions is the same. For example, some contract workers may enjoy the variety they experience as they move from one role to another. Others may envision a more permanent role within one organization.

The importance of creating a personal vision is not diminished by situational, cultural, or environmental considerations. However, these considerations may have a profound influence on the visions people set for themselves and the likelihood of them attaining their goals. In other words, socioeconomic and cultural factors can inhibit people from reaching the goals they have set for themselves. This does not mean that people should not establish personal visions. Instead, visions and their possible barriers help to inform one's personal career management plan. By exploring strategies for the fulfillment of the personal vision, the personal career management plan provides the means through which the vision is harnessed.

#### Strategic Level: Personal Career Management Plan

The employee's task at this level is to plan for how he/she can implement his/her vision. The employee begins by assessing the gap between what ought to be (the personal vision) and what is (the present) (Cochran, 1992). By comparing the desired with the present, the issues that require attention become clarified and major priorities are articulated. This facilitates the process of exploring possible strategies to close the gap between the

present and the ideal. Therefore, the establishment of a personal career management plan is the process whereby an individual envisions his/her future and then develops the necessary plans to achieve that future.

In order to determine the most appropriate methods of closing the gap between the desired and the present, the employee may engage in the process of self-assessment whereby the strengths and weaknesses of the individual are identified. Super's (1990) theory and his comprehensive model of career counselling may facilitate the process of identifying strengths and weaknesses and thereby help the employee to formulate a plan of action.

As stated in Chapter 2, Super's (1990) comprehensive model of career counselling involves four steps. Step 1 begins with a preview wherein the counsellor and the client are engaged in gathering the relevant data necessary in order to understand the nature of the presenting problem. Step 2 results in an in-depth view of the problem. Specifically, the relative importance of life roles, values, career maturity, self-concept, abilities, and interests may be assessed. In Step 3, the assessment data obtained in Step 2 may be used to help clients to select specific occupational and nonoccupational roles. Super's fourth step includes counselling to help the client assimilate the results of the assessment and to formulate a plan of action.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Super's (1990) theory incorporates more individual traits than Holland (1985) and, like Krumboltz (1979), also emphasizes the social/environmental influences upon one's career

development. Consequently, his theory may greatly assist counsellors in helping individuals to develop personal career management plans. As discussed in the last section, social/environmental factors may influence one's personal vision and they may also affect the likelihood of fulfilling one's personal vision. For example, the secretary (as referred to earlier) may be successful in achieving his personal vision as long as he has an employed spouse. However, should he be affected by divorce or should his spouse become unemployed, he may have an increasingly difficult time fulfilling his vision as he may be required to work longer hours in order to support his family. Similarly, if his employment situation were to change (e.g., a new boss), he may be affected by a multitude of changing circumstances (e.g., sexism) that no longer makes his job sociable and enjoyable. Such unfortunate circumstances may lead to revisions in his personal vision or to revisions in his personal career management plan. In other words, the man may need to explore alternative methods of fulfilling his vision or he may have to alter his perspective of what would be most ideal based on changing circumstances.

Although circumstances may frequently change, the process of envisioning the ideal, acknowledging the present, and then making plans to achieve larger portions of the ideal does not change.

Developing a personal career management plan requires the individual to negotiate his or her personal vision within the confines of external realities.

Essentially, the individual has to balance his or her dreams, wishes, and desires with external demands. External realities may place a variety of demands upon the individual (e.g., the need to stay employable, the need to develop new competencies, etc.). The individual's task at this level is to plan for how he or she can obtain progressively larger pieces of his or her personal vision through his or her interaction with the world of work. This requires the individual to have a great deal of clarity on his or her personal vision. It also requires the individual to assess the needs of the external environment (i.e., the world of work). The individual also needs to explore how to bridge the gap between what is and what ought to be (Cochran, 1992). This may involve the individual in gathering information, exploring ideas, obtaining feedback from others, establishing short- and long-term plans, and setting targets for the implementation of such plans.

The personal career management plan provides for a structured implementation of one's personal vision over time. Essentially, it provides a road map of how to utilize one's strengths to obtain what one desires. This requires the individual to have a good understanding of his or her strengths. Therefore, the self-assessment ideas articulated by Holland (1985) and Super (1990) may be valuable tools for exploration at this level.

Establishing short- and long-term plans creates a broadly based plan for engaging in the activities required for the implementation of personal visions over time. The objective is to select the plans that ensure the best alignment,

or fit, between external environmental opportunities and the internal strengths and weaknesses of the individual. To remain on target, individuals must continuously self-evaluate and set goals for the acquisition and demonstration of required competencies. This leads to the final level on the employee side of the model (see Fig. 2).

#### Practical Level: Acquisition and Demonstration of Specific Competencies

To facilitate employee career development, the practical level encourages the individual to break down his/her personal career management plan into the necessary competencies required for the attainment of his/her short- and long-term goals (see Fig. 2). Employee competencies refer to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that underlie effective performance in a particular role (Hendry & Maggio, 1996; McLagan, 1996).

Knowledge factors may include knowledge about the world of work, particular organizations, work roles, where organizations and/or their competition are moving, and internal and external opportunities and constraints (Niven, 1997). Skills include role-specific skills (e.g., financial analysis and accounting) and transferable skills (e.g., the ability to market oneself, job search skills, written and oral communication, and time management). Attitudes refer to one's beliefs about change, work, and interpersonal relationships as well as the meaning of work in the larger context of one's life.



To help individuals to remain employable under the current changes in the world of work, Niven (1997) provides several suggestions. Specifically, he suggests that individuals need to become knowledgeable by learning what organizations need and the directions they are moving toward. Employees also need to keep informed by developing internal and external networks, take stock of their skills, develop themselves and their skills, and take charge of their careers by pursuing activities that are congruent with their personal visions and skills (Niven, 1997). Individuals who are currently employed need to find ways of demonstrating their competencies in order to show an impact upon organizational objectives. Finally, individuals need to learn how to deal with stress and constant changes within the world of work (Niven, 1997).

Senge (1990) suggests that the ultimate criterion for successful long-term employability resides with one's pursuit of ongoing learning. Senge (1990) and Senge et al. (1994) believe that this is critical to individual employability and to the long-term survival of organizations in an increasingly competitive global marketplace. (These ideas are expanded upon further in the next section which describes the organizational side of the model.) Senge (1990) also suggests that ". . . if learning is related to a person's own vision, then that person will do whatever he or she can to keep learning alive" (p. 193). This point reinforces the importance of establishing a personal vision and then using one's strengths to create movement toward larger and larger approximations of the ideal—the personal career management plan.

Essentially, the process of acquiring and demonstrating the competencies that are required to achieve one's goals is easier when an individual is pursuing his/her own personal vision (Senge, 1990; Senge et al., 1994).

Individuals need to consider their strengths when they establish their personal career management plans. In addition, they need to accentuate their strengths in order to become and stay employable. By recognizing their strengths and weaknesses, individuals can develop personal improvement plans to ensure their continued employability. For example, the increasing use of computers in the workplace may necessitate that individuals develop computer skills in order to obtain employment and remain employable.

When individuals focus on competencies, they can clarify expectations and develop a contribution-based mentality that accentuates individual accountability toward organizational objectives. In other words, it provides individuals with the means to demonstrate their impact upon organizational goals. In fact, each time an employee is asked to complete a task, he/she is provided with an opportunity to illustrate how his/her competencies can make an impact upon the organization. For example, an employee may be asked by a telephone company to create an electronically generated map of its phone booths. By adding complex and useful features to this monitoring system, the employee may have gone above and beyond the initial request. Such initiative may have provided the organization with added benefits in reduced costs, for example, or the monitoring system may be so good that the idea could be

marketed to other organizations. The project may have started out as a fairly routine request and subsequently resulted in a form of intrapreneurship for this organization. In any event, the example illustrates the importance of not only acquiring specific skills but also demonstrating them. Consequently, it is through the demonstration and performance of specific competencies that enhancements to one's personal career and the organization are possible.

The 'Changes in the World of Work' section of Chapter 3 illustrated that external environmental realities require individuals to be continuously acquiring and demonstrating their competencies in order to stay employable. This is true for those who currently hold positions as well as for those who are between jobs or contracts. Employability simply means the ability to become or stay employable in any capacity (e.g., full-time, part-time, temporary, contract, etc.) and within any organization. It does not necessarily imply employability with the current employer. In fact, current employment realities suggest that to stay employable, employees may be required to examine options within and outside their current organizations. Within their current organizations, employees are encouraged to consider options that are hierarchically above, below, and equivalent to their current positions.

Through their interaction with the external environment, individuals need to repeatedly be involved in determining which of their existing competencies they need to maintain and/or enhance. In addition, they need to specify plans for the development and demonstration of their competencies.

This focus on continuous learning helps individuals to ensure their personal visions and plans are being acted upon while at the same time ensuring their employability.

### Interrelationships Among the Three Levels

To facilitate employee development, employees are encouraged to dream (philosophical level), plan (strategic level) and then perform (practical level). Consequently, the practical level does not stop with the specification of plans for competency enhancement. Instead, it encourages employees to begin and continue the active process of acquiring and demonstrating their competencies.

From a systems perspective, an individual's personal vision provides a hierarchical organization to his or her career and life planning. In other words, the personal vision leads the other systems—in this case, the personal career management plan and the acquisition and demonstration of specific competencies. The personal vision becomes the self-organizing, self-regulating system through which plans and competencies are formulated. As a selectively open system, the outer ring (the planning centre for the acquisition and demonstration of competencies) is directly in contact with the external environment. Consequently, the environment may provide feedback to the individual about the need for specific (perhaps new) skills, opportunities, etc. The individual may then create new plans and, depending on the information, change his/her personal vision.

The systems language (as discussed in Chapter 3) to denote these levels of hierarchical organization includes outcomes, processes, and structures. The philosophical level is represented by outcomes or personal visions; they are the long-term goals toward which the individual is working. Processes (strategies, plans, or methods) are represented at the strategic level as ideas for achieving the longer-term outcomes. At the practical level, structures are the specifics; in this case, they are the competencies required by the personal career management plan to ensure movement toward the achievement of personal visions. These terms are used to illustrate movement from the broader philosophical vision to the strategic plans and then to the practical need for acquiring and demonstrating specific competencies. More specifically, the model requires employees to dream (philosophical level), plan (strategic level), and then perform (practical level).

The personal vision is intentionally diagrammed as the core ring to denote its role in regulating the other subsystems. Meanwhile, the acquisition and demonstration of competencies is diagrammed as the outer ring to denote its role in providing feedback to the rest of the system regarding the requirements of the world of work—specifically the competencies required to remain employable and to subsequently achieve individually determined goals. To illustrate the flow of logic inherent in the employee side of the model, an example will now be provided.

### Example

Let us assume that an engineer (Ms. Smith) working for a natural gas company dreams of being able to utilize her creative talents toward making a unique impact on the organization. In order to realize this personal vision, the employee must first engage in planning so that she can understand her own strengths and explore how these strengths can be used to achieve the desired impact. This may lead Ms. Smith to consider the various problems encountered by the organization and to explore how her strengths can be used to overcome one of the problems faced by the organization. To clarify this example, let us further assume that Ms. Smith discovers that her particular unit is having difficulties repairing gas lines in the winter because the ground is frozen. To overcome this problem, she assesses her level of understanding (competency) and then partakes in developmental learning activities (e.g., courses, reading, discussions, exploration sessions, etc.) in order to search for possible solutions. Ms. Smith then discovers that using straw and alternative heating devices can quickly thaw the ground and facilitate the efficient repair of gas lines.

The above example illustrates how a dream (personal vision) can lead to a plan and how the acquisition and demonstration of specific competencies can ensure realization of the plan and the dream. Contributions of this nature also promote one's ability to stay employable in uncertain times. Furthermore, the process is identical whether the employee is full-time,

part-time, temporary or on contract. Consequently, the employee side of the model accounts for all types of employment situations. For example, Ms. Smith could have been unemployed and this discovery could have led to employment with one or several organizations.

Another individual may have no idea what he or she wants. By engaging him or her in guided fantasies (creative visualizations), we may be able to help this person to create a personal vision. In order to help the person decide how to achieve at least an initial portion of his/her personal vision (e.g., start working on the development of a personal career management plan), we may assess his/her strengths by completing some of the self-assessment materials recommended by Holland (1985) and Super (1990). This may lead to ongoing plans for development (acquisition of specific competencies) in order to help the individual realize larger portions of his/her vision over time.

This concludes the description of the employee side of the model. The next section provides a description of the organizational side of the proposed model.

### The Organization

An organization refers to any group of two or more people that comes together for a common purpose. The organizational side of the proposed model is diagrammed to parallel the above-noted employee conceptualizations (see Fig. 2). In order to elaborate upon the organizational side of the model, each level will now be described separately. Finally, an organizational example

will be provided to illustrate the interrelationships among the three organizational levels.

#### Philosophical Level: Organizational Vision

On the organizational side, the model begins with the generic goal of encouraging the organization to articulate its vision (see Fig. 2). “An organizational vision is a realistic, credible, attractive future for [an] organization. It is the articulation of a destination toward which an organization or part of an organization should turn its focus. It is a future that in many ways is more desirable than the present” (Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, & McGrath, 1996, p. 219). Like personal visions, organizational visions inspire action by engaging employees in bold missions with superordinate goals (Quinn et al., 1996). Collins and Porras (1994) have suggested that visionary companies set tangible and energizing goals that are clear, compelling, and serve as a unifying focal point of effort. Collins and Porras (1994) refer to these goals as ‘big hairy audacious goals’ (or BHAG for short) to denote their role in reaching out and grabbing people by the gut. For example, Toyota’s vision of creating a totally new line of automobiles that exceeded all existing standards for high performance and luxury resulted in the Lexus—the most highly rated vehicle in customer satisfaction every year since its appearance in the showroom (Quinn et al., 1996). Quinn et al. (1996) suggest that great organizational successes like the Lexus example are a result of powerful alignment between organizational visions, strategies, and goals.



Quinn et al. (1996) also point out that an organizational strategy “. . . is only as powerful as the vision that drives it” (p. 221). Consequently, organizations hoping to create great successes must begin by articulating their organizational visions. In this manner, the articulation of an organizational vision serves as the foundation for strategic planning and goal setting (Below, Morrissey, & Acomb, 1987; Hill & Jones, 1989; Quinn et al., 1996).

An organization's mission statement is a succinct statement of its vision. The mission statement serves the purpose of operationalizing the vision and focusing the organization's attention and energy (Fuqua & Kurpius, 1993). The mission statement “. . . defines the unique purpose that sets an organization apart from all others and identifies the scope of the firm's operations in terms of products and markets” (Bennis, Mason, & Mitroff, 1989, p. 18). The mission and major goals of an organization provide the context within which intended strategies are formulated and the criteria against which emergent strategies are evaluated. The mission sets out why the organization exists and what it should be doing (Hill & Jones, 1989). “By defining the mission, a clear focus should be provided regarding what product or service the organization intends to provide, how it will render its services, and who it tends to serve” (Frey, 1990, p. 78). Essentially, organizations attempt to formulate and communicate their view of the future—their vision—through a mission statement (Morgan, Bennis, Mason, & Mitroff, 1988).

By articulating an organizational vision and mission, organizations begin to take charge of their own futures—just as individuals do when they establish their personal visions (Quinn et al., 1996).

Without knowing where it is you want to go, either as an individual or as an organization, you won't know how to get there and you may wind up somewhere else! If you don't articulate what it is you want to accomplish, you won't be able to determine how best to get it done. (Quinn et al., 1996, p. 221)

Consequently, without a vision and mission an organization or an individual is like a ship floating aimlessly (Bennis et al., 1989). Managers who function without an overall sense of vision and mission typically spend the majority of their time 'putting out fires' under the pressures of present-day activities (Bennis et al., 1989). Unfortunately, it is estimated that the typical manager spends only 1-3% of his or her time envisioning the future (Hamel & Prahalad, 1994). This is an insufficient amount of time to be spent on such an important activity because "... [if] managers don't have detailed answers to questions about the future, their companies can't expect to be market leaders" (Hamel & Prahalad, 1994, p. 126). In fact, several authors have confirmed that organizations with more comprehensive visions and missions are higher performers in financial terms (Bennis et al., 1989; Collins & Porras, 1994; Hill & Jones, 1989; Latham & Wexley, 1994).

Collins and Porras (1994) suggest that visionary organizations are the premier organizations in their industry. Visionary organizations

. . . have the respect and admiration of their peer organizations and a long history of having a significant impact on the world around them. Visionary companies are truly institutions that have had multiple generations of chief executives, have been through multiple product or service lifecycles, and have been around for at least 50 years. (Quinn et al., 1996, p. 220)

Collins and Porras (1994) suggest that it is the degree to which the organization has been built to be visionary rather than the visionary qualities of an individual chief executive officer that has an impact on long-term success.

Latham and Wexley's (1994) research may help to explain why visionary organizations are so successful. They found that whenever groups of employees are expected to set goals, they tend to surpass the achievement of employees who do not set goals. Organizations and individuals that take the time to produce vision and mission statements may, in effect, become more successful simply by setting goals. The strategic level of the proposed model helps individuals and organizations to find ways of implementing their visions of an ideal future.

Developing an organizational vision and mission should be an ongoing project sustained by continuous debate within an organization (Hamel &

Prahalad, 1994). To stimulate this debate, several writers (Below et al., 1987; Fuqua & Kurpius, 1993; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994; Hill & Jones, 1989; Thompson, 1990) have provided questions that may guide organizations into clarifying their future ideals. Below et al. (1987) provide a rather lengthy list of questions such as:

1. What business should we be in?
2. Why do we exist (what is our basic purpose)?
3. What is unique or distinctive about our organization?
4. Who are our principal customers, clients or users?
5. What are our principal products/services, present and future?
6. What are our principal market segments, present and future?
7. What are our principal outlets/distribution channels, present and future?
8. What is different about our business from what it was between three and five years ago?
9. What is likely to be different about our business three to five years in the future?
10. What are our principal economic concerns, and how are they measured?
11. What philosophical issues are important to our organization's future?
12. What special considerations do we have in regard to the following stakeholders (as applicable)?

- Owner/stockholders/investors/constituents
- Board of directors
- Parent organization
- Legislative bodies
- Employees
- Customers, clients or users
- Suppliers
- General public
- Others (specify)

(pp. 38-39)

To help organizations to establish vision and mission statements, Below et al. (1987) state that the above questions can be provided to the executive planning team for individual analysis and response. Then a facilitator can compile the results prior to a discussion meeting, or the facilitator can elicit individual responses within the team meeting. In either case, the facilitator's role is to encourage debate and, finally, consensus on each of the above questions. The facilitator then helps the group to decide which elements will become a part of the organization's vision and mission statement. The vision and mission statement consequently become the basis for ensuring consistency and clarity of purpose throughout the organization and provide a point of reference for all major planning decisions. Departments or units within the organization can then use it to determine their own roles, missions, and objectives. Essentially, the vision and mission statement serve as a clear

description of the organization's perspective and how it wants to be perceived by all of its various stakeholders (Below et al., 1987).

Hill and Jones (1989) suggest that when organizations develop vision and mission statements, they need to define themselves by focusing on customers, not products. For example, railways diminished in importance because they thought were in the railway business. Instead, they should have thought they were in the transportation business and expanded. IBM, on the other hand, began by manufacturing typewriters and mechanical tabulating equipment. However, IBM viewed itself not as a supplier of mechanical tabulating equipment and typewriters but as providing a means for information processing and storage. With this perspective, it seemed to be a logical step for IBM to move into computers, software systems, office systems and photocopiers (Hill & Jones, 1989).

Hamel and Prahalad (1994) take a further step beyond the vision and mission statements as presented by Below et al. (1987) and Hill and Jones (1989). After constructing the vision and mission statements, senior managers then need to develop a process for pulling together the collective wisdom within an organization. "Concern for the future, a sense of where opportunities lie, and an understanding of organizational change are not the province of any group; people from all levels of a company can help define the future" (Hamel & Prahalad, 1994, p. 127). Hamel and Prahalad (1994) believe that senior executives are not the only ones with vision and that one of their

roles is to capture the foresight that exists throughout an organization. Doing so, however, requires a selectively open system wherein good ideas are incorporated and ideas that are inconsistent with overall perspectives are rejected. Potential forums for creating communication on an organization's vision are discussed in Chapter 5.

Obtaining employee input into organizational vision and mission statements helps to translate the vision into terms that have meaning to the people who would realize the vision (Kaplan & Norton, 1996). Obtaining employee input also facilitates the process of expressing statements as an integrated set of objectives and measures that make sense to individual employees (Kaplan & Norton, 1996). Consequently, the organizational vision becomes a synthesis of many people's perspectives.

Below et al. (1987) state that the success of an organization's vision and mission is directly proportional to the degree of commitment managers and employees make to the process. Therefore, they must believe in the vision and the way it is developed if they are going to give it their best effort. However, Below et al. (1987) also suggest that the thinking, dialoguing, confronting, revising, and consensus-seeking is as valuable as the vision itself in shaping the future of an organization. The team-based dialoguing and planning builds organization-wide belief and commitment as participants feel a sense of ownership (Below et al., 1987). "Participation is critical to success and

strategies that ignore the principle of participation are likely to fail in the long haul” (Frey, 1990, p. 80).

Although the concept of an ‘organizational vision’ has been discussed in the management literature (Below et al., 1987; Bennis et al., 1989; Collins & Porras, 1994; Fuqua & Kurpius, 1993; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994; Hill & Jones, 1989; Latham & Wexley, 1994; Morgan et al., 1988; Quinn et al., 1996; Thompson, 1990), it has not been emphasized in the current models of organizational career development. Consequently, the utilization of this concept within the proposed model of organizational career development represents an addition to the field of organizational career development.

In sum, the process of clearly envisioning an organization’s or an individual’s desired future has a major motivating potential because human beings strive to achieve their ideal. By involving members of an organization in the envisioning process, commitment and ownership are developed (Frey, 1990). A clearly articulated organizational vision represents the foundation for the strategic utilization of human resources.

#### Strategic Level: Organizational Human

##### Resource Strategic Plan

The concept of the organizational human resource strategic plan parallels the concept of the employee’s personal career management plan. The organization’s task at this level is to plan for how it can implement its vision through the strategic utilization of its human resources. This requires the



organization to begin by engaging in the process of strategic planning. This is initiated by assessing the gap between the desired future (the organizational vision) and the present (Frey, 1990). By comparing the desired with the present, the issues that require attention become clarified and major priorities are articulated (Hill & Jones, 1989). This facilitates the process of exploring possible strategies to close the gap between the present and the ideal. Therefore,

. . . strategic planning may be defined as the process whereby guiding members of an organization envision its future and develop the necessary procedures and operations to achieve that future. The purpose is to ensure that an organization's activities are focused and its resources are managed in a consistent, strategic fashion. (Frey, 1990, p. 78)

In order to determine the most appropriate methods of closing the gap between the desired and the present, the organization engages in an analysis of its external environment. The goal of external analysis is to identify strategic opportunities and threats in the organization's environment (Hill & Jones, 1989; Schuler & Walker, 1994). This involves analyzing the competitive position of the organization and its major rivals along with examining the social, governmental, legal, international, and technical factors that may affect the organization (Golembiewski, Hall, Nethery, Shepherd, & Hilles, 1992; Hill & Jones, 1989).

The next component of strategic planning involves an internal analysis whereby the strengths and weaknesses of the organization are articulated. An internal analysis also identifies the quantity and quality of resources available to the organization (Golembiewski et al., 1992; Hill & Jones, 1989). Finally, a series of strategic alternatives are identified. "The objective is to select the strategies that ensure the best alignment, or fit, between external environmental opportunities and threats and the internal strengths and weaknesses of the organization" (Hill & Jones, 1989, p. 12). For example, based on a compilation of the above information, an organization may choose to implement a strategy of cost leadership. The goal in this case is to sell its products cheaper than its competitors, thereby gaining a larger share of the market. Following this strategy, the organization attempts to reduce and control the costs associated with the production of its merchandise.

Although the above description of strategic planning tends to assume a fairly rational thought process, Mintzberg (1994) suggests that organizations need to remain open to the power of unplanned, creative, and intuitive emergent strategies. Emergent strategies do not follow the above logical presentation of strategic planning. Instead, they emerge in an unforeseen, unplanned, and unintended manner. For example, the Honda Motor Company came to the United States to introduce 250cc and 305cc motorcycles. They changed to the 50cc simply because that was what Sears wanted to sell, and it became a big seller. "The critical point that emerges from the Honda

example is that in contrast to the view that strategies are planned, successful strategies can emerge within an organization without prior planning” (Hill & Jones, 1989, p. 7).

The above example also illustrates the importance of focusing first on organizational visions and secondly on strategic plans. In other words, had Honda insisted on capturing the North American market with the 250cc and 305cc strategy, they may have lost out. By shifting their strategy to the 50cc, their vision of penetrating the North American market was achieved. In fact, the 50cc motorcycle allowed Honda to initially enter the North American market. Later, North Americans started to demand larger motorcycles. Consequently, Honda initially benefitted from the 50cc and, later, the 250cc and the 305cc. In other words, Honda kept its vision intact, but adapted its strategy. Essentially, Honda benefitted more by adapting its strategy than it would have if the original strategy was successful because they were able to sell all three motorcycles—not just the 250cc and 305cc as originally intended. This example reinforces the centrality or importance of focusing on the vision and not fixating on a particular strategy.

Essentially, Mintzberg (1994) argues that emergent strategies are often successful and may be more appropriate than intended strategies. In addition, he suggests that strategies can develop anywhere in which people have the capacity to learn and the resources to support their ideas. Emergent strategies are usually the result of bottom-up processes whereas intended strategies are

usually the result of a top-down process. Consequently, top management within organizations need to provide forums for the exchange of information between employees and management in order to capture the potential of emergent strategies. Ideas for establishing these lines of communication are presented in Chapter 5.

Top management still has to evaluate emergent strategies in order to determine whether the emergent strategy fits the organization's needs and capabilities. "Such evaluation involves comparing each emergent strategy with the organization's goals, external environmental opportunities and threats, and the organization's own internal strengths and weaknesses" (Hill & Jones, 1989, p. 9).

As an organization articulates its business strategy (e.g., cost leadership, product differentiation, etc.), it also has to consider whether it has developed (or can develop) the necessary human resources. Organizations are becoming more inclined to include human resource managers in the strategic planning process because personnel costs are beginning to be seen as a critical factor in evaluating strategic alternatives (Butler, Ferris, & Napier, 1991).

Without the right people in the right positions, no strategy—however well-formulated in other respects—is likely to succeed. This recognition has led to the recent development of the field of strategic human resource planning (Hill & Jones, 1989). Strategic human resource planning has been defined as ". . . the identification of needed skills and active management of employee

learning for the long-range future in relation to explicit corporate and business strategies” (Butler et al., 1991, p. 131).

In the past, strategic planning often took place without the active involvement of the human resources manager (Benimadhu, 1995). More recently, “. . . [an] overwhelming majority of human resource executives (92 per cent) stated that they regularly participate in their organization’s strategic planning process” (Benimadhu, 1995, p. 8).

The emphasis on human resource planning and the involvement of human resource executives in organizational strategic planning is the result of the increasing reliance on employees to achieve competitive advantage (Benimadhu, 1995). As major developments in the global environment reduce opportunities for competitive advantage through traditional factors such as technology, access to raw materials, and proximity to markets, organizations have increased their attention on their employees as a means of attaining competitive advantage (Benimadhu, 1995; Butler et al., 1991; Dolan & Schuler, 1994; Pfeffer, 1994; Stone & Meltz, 1993). The most effective means of obtaining competitive advantage through employees is by ensuring that employee competencies are aligned with organizational objectives (Benimadhu, 1995). This helps to alleviate waste and to ensure that employees have the competencies that are required by the organization (Butler et al., 1991).

An acknowledgement of the fact that “. . . most of today’s business imperatives, such as quality, customer satisfaction and competitiveness, are

employee-based and employee-delivered” (Benimadhu, 1995, p. 1) has also been a factor in enhancing the role of strategic human resource planning in organizations. The fact that employees cost organizations 30-80% of all revenues is another factor stimulating the interest in the strategic utilization of human resources (Cascio, 1993).

Organizations that have been effective in linking human resources to their strategic plans have tended to outperform organizations where this has not been the case (Benimadhu, 1995; Butler et al., 1991; Hill & Jones, 1989). Some examples of successful organizations include IBM, General Electric, Ford (Butler et al., 1991), Bombardier, Royal Bank, and Canadian Occidental Petroleum (Benimadhu, 1995).

Bombardier has had a return-on-investment average of 23% per year from 1990-1995. Benimadhu (1995) attributes this financial success to effective linkages between strategic plans and the strategic utilization of human resources. If the behaviour, aspirations, and dedication of the workforce can be directed toward supporting the overall business plan, the above financial results may be achieved by eliminating waste and by increasing the efficiency of the organization’s workforce (Butler et al., 1991).

The first step toward the strategic utilization of human resources is to complete a human resources forecast. This is an attempt to project the quantity and quality of the workforce that will be required to implement the strategic plans (Butler et al., 1991; Dolan & Schuler, 1994; Hill & Jones,

1989; Schuler & Walker, 1994). The next step involves the development of a human resources inventory which lists the human resources currently available within the organization. The last step involves identifying the gap between what is available and what is needed. To remediate deficiencies, the organization may decide to hire new employees and/or train existing employees (Butler et al., 1991; Dolan & Schuler, 1994; Hill & Jones, 1989; Schuler & Walker, 1994).

Schuler and Walker (1994) suggest that the process of strategic human resource planning is so critical to the success of the organization that it should not be left completely to the human resources department. Instead, they recommend that responsibilities for human resource planning be shared between line managers and the human resources department. In this manner, line managers take responsibility for their portion of the strategic plan—including the effective management of their human resources. For example, if a particular department is responsible for producing unique, technologically sophisticated equipment, they need to ensure they have the right staff and the right human resource practices in place to support the mandate of the department. Consequently, the department needs to work collaboratively with the human resources department to ensure that performance appraisals and reward systems facilitate and reinforce the creative production of new equipment. In contrast, a departmental mandate of cost control would require a different emphasis when it comes to

performance appraisals and reward systems. When the right staff are combined with the most appropriate control processes (e.g., performance appraisals and reward systems), the organization may be seen as strategically engaged in human resource planning (Butler et al., 1991).

In essence, the strategic plan and the human resource strategic plan provide a 'road map' of how the organization plans to fulfill the vision it has set for itself. By establishing short- and long-term plans, the organization begins to create a broadly based strategy for engaging in the activities required to ensure the successful achievement of its vision. Ultimately, the resultant activities selected by the organization will require specific employee competencies. This leads to the next level on the organizational side of the model (see Fig. 2).

#### Practical Level: Alignment of Employee Competencies to the Required Organizational Competencies

In order to achieve the vision the organization has set for itself, it needs to break down its strategic plans into the necessary competencies that it requires from its employees for the attainment of its short- and long-term goals (see Fig. 2). Employee competencies refer to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that underlie effective performance in a particular role (Hendry & Maggio, 1996; McLagan, 1996). Organizational competencies are the firm, specific resources and capabilities that enable the organization to develop, choose, and implement value-enhancing strategies. Organizational competencies



include all firm-specific assets, knowledge, skills, and capabilities within the organization's structure, technology, and processes (Wilson, 1994). Essentially, organizational competencies refer to those areas in which the organization is competent and therefore give it a competitive advantage (Kandola, 1996). For example, Honda's expertise in 'dealer management' (its ability to train and support its dealer network with operating procedures and policies for merchandising, selling, floor planning, and service management) provides a competitive advantage (Stalk, Evans, & Shulman, 1992).

As discussed in the last section, organizations need to consider their strengths when they establish their strategic plans. Organizations attempt to utilize their strengths in order to achieve an advantage over their competition. Recognizing its strengths and weaknesses leads to the identification of specific competencies required by the organization in order to remain competitive. For example, Sony's competencies in miniaturization have created a competitive advantage (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). This advantage required specific employee competencies in engineering, sales, and marketing. "To bring miniaturization to its products, Sony must ensure that technologists, engineers, and marketers have a shared understanding of customer needs and of technological possibilities" (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990, p. 2). Once an organization has chosen a strategy that accentuates its strengths (organizational competencies), it can then define the employee competencies required in order to implement its strategic plans (Kandola, 1996; Souque,

1996). This does not preclude an organization from defining its strategy— and even shifting strategies—based on employee performance. Lists of employee competencies can be used as criteria for training curriculum design, recruitment, selection, assessment, coaching, counselling, mentoring, career development, and succession planning (Hendry & Maggio, 1996; McLagan, 1996).

Although the idea behind competency-based systems (wherein an organization defines, measures, develops, and rewards employees for a combination of skills, knowledge, behaviour, attitudes, and results) have been around since the 1980's, it is only recently that the use of competencies has been applied to human resource strategies that are aligned with business strategies (Hendry & Maggio, 1996). In fact, Souque (1996) surveyed 1,150 organizations and found that half of the organizations had a competency framework, while several others reported that such a framework was in preparation. He suggests that this indicates that “. . . competency-based performance management and human resource development is becoming the model of choice for Canadian industry” (Souque, 1996, p. 1). According to 85% of the respondents in Souque's (1996) study, a competency framework has resulted in the strategic utilization of training and development to support organizational strategic plans.

Organizations that define the competencies required from their workforce are able to articulate the central measures of success and assess,

develop, and compensate employees accordingly. The competencies provide a 'road map' for coaching and training employees and promote the establishment of a learning organization (Hendry & Maggio, 1996).

Senge (1990) and Senge et al. (1994) suggest that a learning organization has the ability to learn faster than its competitors and that the rate at which employees learn is the only sustainable competitive advantage left to organizations. Senge (1990) defines a learning organization as one where people continually expand their capacity to create results, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together.

As the world becomes more interconnected and business becomes more complex and dynamic, work must become more 'learningful.' It is no longer sufficient to have one person learning for the organization, a Ford, or a Sloan or a Watson. It's just not possible any longer to 'figure it out' from the top, and have everyone else following the orders of the 'grand strategist.' The organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels in an organization.

(Senge, 1990, p. 4)

Focusing on competencies clarifies expectations and encourages a contribution-based mentality and individual accountability. This enhances employee commitment and their capacity to learn (Hendry & Maggio, 1996).

"Far from being the flavor of the month, competency-based human resources will be increasingly adopted by those firms that see a competitive advantage in the potential of their people" (Hendry & Maggio, 1996, p. 73).

In general, there are two approaches to defining the competencies that are critical to performance excellence in organizations. The first approach is 'micro'-oriented and begins by defining competencies at the individual job level, with position-specific criteria that build toward the critical success of the organization as a whole. The other approach is 'macro'-based and begins at the corporate level. For reasons that include efficiency and integration of core competency and business strategies, it is usually preferable to start at the macro level (Hendry & Maggio, 1996). Therefore, an organization should begin by clarifying its vision and strategic plans. Only then can the competencies required of individual employees be determined (Hendry & Maggio, 1996; Kandola, 1996). Examining the organization's vision and strategic plans provides management with a sense of the skills, knowledge, experience, and attitudes that would be needed in the near future. By evaluating the gap between existing competencies and future needs, the organization can recruit new employees or provide training and experience for current employees to shift their focus and to be prepared with the right competencies at the right time (Shillaber, 1990). "Human resource planning becomes strategic by recognizing and addressing that gap before it becomes a resource shortfall" (Shillaber, 1990, p. 172). Employees in an area that is

likely to be downsized can begin training in another area in order to develop skills that would be useful to another department.

The earlier an organization begins to examine its competencies (needs and resources), the less discomfort it will experience as its internal or external environments change. Therefore, the process of reviewing what competencies are required by the strategic plans should be ongoing. In addition, managers should be prepared for changes in their industry or related businesses and internal demographic shifts (e.g., in competencies or retirement eligibility) that may influence the competency mix that will be available to the organization in order to meet future business needs (Shillaber, 1990).

Like individuals, organizations need to remain in touch with external realities in order to modify their visions and strategic plans as well as to update the competencies they require from their workforces. This focus on continuous monitoring and subsequent refining provides feedback to the organization to ensure its continued competitiveness and thus its existence.

#### Interrelationships Among the Three Levels

Like employee development, organizational development begins when organizations dream (philosophical level), plan (strategic level), and then perform (practical level) (see Fig. 2). Consequently, the practical level on the organizational side of the model does not stop with the specification of the required employee competencies. Instead, it encourages organizations to begin and continue to actively align employee competencies with the required

organizational competencies. Placement of employees in suitable positions is based on the compatibility of demonstrated employee competencies and required competencies.

Similar to personal visions, the organization's vision has a central role to play in regulating the rest of the system. In other words, the strategies and competencies required must be aligned and congruent with the vision of the organization. Miles and Snow (1991) use the concept of 'best fit' to articulate the need for this alignment. They also state that the most successful organizations project this sense of alignment.

The outer ring (the alignment of employee competencies to the required organizational competencies) maintains contact with the external environment and thus provides the organization with feedback about changing external realities. This information is used to help the organization manoeuvre and adapt to changing external demands. In systems theory, an organization that utilizes this feedback is referred to as an open system. Selectively open systems seek out growthful inputs (new ideas) to remain alive and vibrant. Again, an example will be provided to illustrate the intent of the organizational side of the proposed model.

### Example

The vision of a natural gas company may be to provide efficient, safe, and cost-effective gas service to homes and businesses. To accomplish this, the gas company needs to establish some plans or strategies for service

delivery. Therefore, it needs to know the specific needs of consumers as well as the potential pitfalls of dealing with this dangerous substance and then implement strategies for successful and safe consumption. By understanding the needs of the population being served, the gas company can establish plans and strategies to meet the needs of its customers. For example, service requirements can be assessed, payment options can be outlined, installation procedures can be identified, and procedures for dealing effectively with breakdowns can be established.

Once the gas company has determined what specifically needs to be delivered in order to achieve its vision of providing natural gas to its customers, it then needs to determine the competencies it will require from its workforce (full-time, part-time, temporary, contract, etc.) to ensure the successful implementation of its strategic plans. In this case, the gas company may determine that it needs people with expertise in installation, safe and efficient maintenance, accounting, and computerized billing. By breaking down the necessary competencies to the specifics needed, the gas company can then use these criteria to select candidates for employment, to monitor effectiveness, and to reward employees.

Unfortunately, the whole issue of staff alignment has become more complex with the recent changes in the world of work. Organizations that rely excessively on contract employees will have to ensure that they have access to the necessary talent when they need it. As stated in Chapter 3, this is already

becoming increasingly difficult in some industries such as home construction and computers. In addition, the use of contract workers necessitates the rapid alignment of workers to projects. However, the workers may not be available when needed and the organization may not know enough about the contract workers to be able to make the necessary quick and effective alignments. Finally, contract workers may lack commitment to a particular organization. In order to retain these employees, organizations may be pressured to revise their reward systems accordingly. Clearly, these factors need to be taken into consideration in order for organizations to determine the most suitable type of employee to hire.

Up to this point, this dissertation has presented the proposed model in terms of 'best of practice' suggestions from the fields of career development (pertaining to the employee side of the model) and organizational development (pertaining to the organizational side of the model). The current models of organizational career development do not suggest how to bring these two domains together. Unfortunately, career development and organizational development are usually treated as separate entities. In the next section, and in Chapter 5, the full power and potential value of the proposed model are shown by providing a comprehensive framework for bridging the gaps between employee career development and organizational development.



### Balancing/Interactive Processes

The two triangles in the middle of Figure 2 graphically represent the balancing/interactive processes. The goal of these processes is to bring the employee and the organization closer together—in other words, to create closer alignments between the employee and the organization. Consequently, the triangles are drawn to denote the bridging of employees and organizations (hence, the title of this dissertation: “A Synergistic Model of Organizational Career Development: Bridging the Gap Between Employees and Organizations”). Essentially, the balancing/interactive processes are designed to help bring employees and organizations closer together, thereby avoiding the situation of treating career development and organizational development as separate entities.

Each of the balancing/interactive processes will now be discussed separately and then an example will be provided to illustrate the interrelationships among the processes. Specific tasks and activities for facilitating the processes of reciprocal confirmation, critical discourse, and monitoring and management are provided in Chapter 5.

#### Philosophical Level: Reciprocal Confirmation

The first step toward employee and organizational alignment involves the balancing/interactive process of reciprocal confirmation (see Fig. 2). The process of reciprocal confirmation refers to the goal of creating mutually

agreed-upon visions. In other words, it refers to the process of creating a shared vision between employees and the organization.

If any one idea about leadership has inspired organizations for thousands of years, it's the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future we seek to create. One is hard pressed to think of any organization that has sustained some measure of greatness in the absence of goals, values, and missions that become deeply shared throughout the organization. IBM had 'service'; Polaroid had instant photography; Ford had public transportation for the masses, and Apple had computing power for the masses. Though radically different in content and kind, all of these organizations managed to bind people together around a common identity and sense of destiny. (Senge, 1990, p. 9)

As stated previously, employees and organizations need to identify their visions. The process of reciprocal confirmation encourages employees and organizations to share their respective visions. Throughout the process of sharing, employees have an impact upon organizational visions and vice versa.

Prior to an employment relationship, the organization looks for people likely to contribute to the attainment of the organizational vision and the individual seeks an affiliation that is likely to contribute to the achievement of his/her personal vision (Burack & Singh, 1996).

The possession of a shared vision leads to greater levels of employee commitment (Senge, 1990; Senge et al., 1994). Meanwhile, higher levels of employee commitment lead to higher levels of productivity and reduced turnover (Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). Specifically, Meyer et al. (1989) found that higher levels of affective commitment (when employees really care about the organization, its vision, etc.) were the best predictors of higher productivity ratings. This is congruent with the idea that a shared, meaningful, and affective vision produces the energy that employees and organizations need in order to achieve extraordinary results (Plas, 1996; Quinn et al., 1996; Senge, 1990; Senge et al., 1994). "One of the most important messages that psychology has to offer the world of work is the observation that people are connected and committed to the organizations and groups for which they have important feelings" (Plas, 1996, p. 24).

To create a shared vision, organizations need to provide employees with the opportunity to share their visions, to have input into the organization's vision, and to create opportunities for sharing the organization's vision. Specific strategies for achieving these goals are provided in the next chapter.

The process of reciprocal confirmation comes first because the possession of a shared vision is more likely to result in employee and organizational agreement at the strategic and practical levels of the model. In other words, employees and organizations are more likely to agree on

plans/strategies and required competencies if they agree on where the organization is heading.

#### Strategic Level: Critical Discourse

The second step toward employee and organizational alignment involves the balancing/interactive process of critical discourse (see Fig. 2). Critical discourse refers to the process of communication by which informed, precise, and careful judgements can be made regarding the strategic utilization of human resources. This process facilitates movement toward the shared vision articulated at the philosophical level of the model.

To make the most informed decisions regarding the strategic utilization of human resources, organizations must obtain the views of their employees because front-line personnel are often closer to the necessary information (Plas, 1996; Quinn et al., 1996). This means that those who actually do the work must participate in the decision-making (Plas, 1996). "It is people—those closest to the customer and closest to the work—who have the answers, who own the solutions" (Plas, 1996, p. 108).

To have effective input into the strategic utilization of human resources, employees may need important organizational information (e.g., corporate revenue, expenses, strategic plans, etc.). "As traditional autocratic firms flatten structures and utilize demographic, multidisciplinary teams to remain competitive, the need for open and honest communication between employers and employees becomes paramount" (Burack & Singh, 1996, p. 12). Thus,

employees need to be provided with whatever information may be necessary to ensure their ability to make decisions that are in the best interest of the entire organization (Quinn et al., 1996). Meanwhile, managers need to ensure that employee input is consistent with the vision and strategic plans of the organization.

Bennis et al. (1989) suggest that when organizations include employee opinions they, in effect, increase the acceptance of and commitment to the plans made. Unfortunately, however, many organizations keep employees out of any meaningful participation in planning. "With no opportunity to take responsibility themselves, people learn to keep their defenses up, duck blame, and avoid initiative" (Senge et al., 1994, p. 227).

Senge et al. (1994) suggest that team learning begins with dialogue and that competitive advantage is not possible without employees' full participation in setting directions and priorities. These ideas are congruent with the goals inherent in the process of critical discourse.

Essentially, critical discourse engages employees in critical reflection and critical discussions with organizational representatives such as supervisors/managers. Within their own critical reflections, employees strategize, think about, and reflect upon their personal visions and the organization's vision. Critical discussions between employees and supervisors provide a forum for employees to influence organizational strategic plans and to strategically link their proposed career management plans to the strategic

plans of the organization. In effect, the organization and the employee provide each other with feedback. Meanwhile, the organization engages in its own critical reflections, within management teams, to strategize, think about, and reflect upon their vision and strategies. By sharing this information with their employees, the organization creates opportunities for the mutual exchange of information and ultimately the alignment of personal career management plans with organizational strategic plans.

In order to strategically utilize human resources, organizations need to establish communication networks; create a data base of employee competencies; align employees with required processes; continue to evaluate and refine alignments to ensure employee and organizational satisfaction; and develop an ongoing organizational career development program in order to encourage ongoing learning. Specific strategies for achieving these goals are provided in the next chapter. Once the strategic plans have been established, employees and organizations need to turn their attention toward the ongoing monitoring and management of employee and organizational competencies. This ensures that the required competencies remain effectively aligned with employee and organizational visions and plans/strategies.

#### Practical Level: Monitoring and Management

The last step toward the alignment of employees and organizations involves the process of monitoring and managing specific competencies (see Fig. 2). Monitoring and management refers to the ongoing need for observing,

guiding, and ensuring that employees acquire and demonstrate essential competencies and that these competencies are appropriately aligned with those required by the organization.

Within this process, the employee monitors his or her plans and the external realities to ensure that he or she acquires and demonstrates the competencies required within the organization or within the world of work in general. Information obtained in the process of monitoring allows employees and organizations to refine the management of their respective competencies, plans, and visions. Meanwhile, the organization also engages in the processes of monitoring and management. In this case, it monitors its achievements within the external world and also monitors its employees to ensure that they perform the tasks that are essential to the organization. Information obtained in the process of monitoring allows employees and the organization to refine the management of their respective competencies, plans/strategies, and visions.

In order to monitor and manage employee and organizational competencies, the organization needs to involve employees in establishing performance expectations; communicate and reach agreement on compensation and reward systems; provide employees with the necessary training and development options; and provide a forum for the review of employee performance. Specific strategies for achieving these goals are provided in the next chapter.

### Interrelationships Among the Three Levels

From a systems perspective, the balancing/interactive processes of reciprocal confirmation, critical discourse, and monitoring and management provide feedback to employees and the organization to ensure that they remain on course with their respective visions, plans/strategies, and competencies.

The concept of bringing employees and organizations closer together is illustrated in Figure 2. For example, by solely possessing similar or compatible visions, employees and organizations can remain far apart from one another. Schematically, this is denoted by the distance between the employee and organizational core rings (see Fig. 2). However, as the employee establishes career management plans that are compatible with the organization's strategic plans, the two become closer together. As the employee and organization agree on competencies and engage in reciprocal confirmation, critical discourse, and monitoring and management, the distance narrows between the employee and the organization, creating a bridge between the two (see Fig. 2). This bridging symbolizes a sense of cohesiveness and alignment that helps both employees and organizations to weather the storms caused by external realities. The ultimate goal of the proposed model is to help employees to stay employable and organizations to stay competitive.

An example of the balancing/interactive processes will now be provided to illustrate the interrelationships between them.



### Example

The example of the engineer (Ms. Smith) who invented the new method of repairing gas lines during the winter can be used to illustrate the balancing/interactive processes. Ms. Smith started with a personal vision (i.e., the need to have a creative impact upon the organization). This personal vision was compatible with the organization's vision (i.e., to provide effective and efficient natural gas service to its customers). The compatibility between the engineer's personal vision and the organization's vision illustrates the process of reciprocal confirmation. In other words, there was agreement or compatibility on the philosophical level. Consequently, the employee and the organization could engage in critical discourse designed to strategically further their initial agreement. In this manner, options for meeting the needs of each party could be discussed and plans could be established. In this case, the problem of fixing gas lines in the winter was addressed by monitoring and managing the specific competencies required to solve the presenting problem. Essentially, the company supported Ms. Smith in her new learning and subsequently benefited from it.

### What is New? How the Proposed Model Differs from Existing Models of Organizational Career Development

Hierarchically, the proposed model is founded on employee and organizational visions. The emphasis is placed on the need for employees and organizations to establish visions from which their plans/strategies and

required competencies will evolve. None of the current models of organizational career development reflect the core construct of personal and organizational visions. In addition, none of the current models possess interactive/balancing processes to help bridge the gaps between employees and organizations. The use of systems concepts (outcomes, processes, and structures) to create parallel employee and organizational tasks is also new.

The Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model's strength lies in its ability to link employees and organizations on the competencies exemplified by employees and required by organizations. This strength is captured in the proposed model by the two outer rings that deal with competencies.

Although Schein's (1978) method of linking was considered to be outdated, the strength of his model lies in the articulation of potential strategies to link employee needs (in early, mid-, and late career) with organizational needs (in economic cycles). The concept of linking employee and organizational needs was captured in the proposed model through the balancing/interactive processes of reciprocal confirmation, critical discourse, and monitoring and management. Some sample strategies for linking employee and organizational needs within each of these processes are outlined in Chapter 5.

The strength of Hall's (1986) model lies in its emphasis on encouraging employees to set goals. This concept was also achieved in the proposed model. However, the difference between the two is that Hall (1986) tended to

emphasize upward mobility whereas the proposed model emphasizes goal setting in the form of career management plans that permeate from one's personal vision, not from a need to climb the organizational hierarchy.

The strength of Brousseau et al.'s (1996) model is its emphasis on acknowledging that a particular organizational strategy (e.g., promoting organizational growth) requires unique employee competencies. Without utilizing the specific terms of the Brousseau et al. (1996) model (i.e., linear, expert, spiral, transitory), the proposed model addresses this idea by highlighting the need for organizations to monitor their staffing to ensure that they continuously have the talent they require. The proposed model, however, places more emphasis on the importance of balancing employee and organizational needs. In addition, the proposed model is more philosophical in that it begins with personal and organizational visions whereas the Brousseau et al. (1996) model begins organizationally on the strategic level.

### Summary

The proposed model appears to subsume most of the strengths inherent in existing models of organizational career development. However, it also adds a philosophical level (the personal and organizational visions) and places a stronger emphasis on the need to balance employee and organizational needs through the balancing/interactive processes and provides a systemic articulation of parallel employee and organizational tasks for bridging the gaps between employees and organizations.

Essentially, bridging the gap between employees and organizations means that employee career development cannot be considered without also focusing on the larger context of organizational development. Similarly, organizational development cannot be addressed without also considering employee development. Focusing on one without the other is incomplete because employee development occurs within the context of organizations. Meanwhile, organizations dehumanize the process of organizational development if they do not include employees in that process. Furthermore, the needs of both parties are more likely to be met when we attend to both employee and organizational development. In fact, simultaneously attending to both creates a synergistic reaction, in which 'the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.'

The next chapter will provide a framework for applying the proposed model of organizational career development.

## **Chapter 5**

### **APPLICATIONS OF THE PROPOSED MODEL**

This chapter provides a framework for applying the proposed model of organizational career development. To do this, further dimensions of the model will be articulated. Specifically, core issues, core strategies, and key tasks will be provided for each level of the model. In addition, a list of potential strategies for balancing employee and organizational needs at each level of the model will be offered.

As stated, the proposed model of organizational career development (see Fig. 2) reconceptualizes Garrison and Magnusson's (1996) transactional view of effective teaching and learning and adapts it to the context of organizational career development. Figure 2 summarizes this translation in the form of the general/philosophical outcomes of the proposed model. The next section of this chapter expands upon this reconceptualization by suggesting that the proposed model of organizational career development is better represented by a three-dimensional cube.

#### **Dimensions of the Proposed Model**

The general/philosophical assumptions discussed in Chapter 4 and depicted in Figure 2 are derived from what the writer is proposing as the central issues of organizational career development. The most salient issue of each level is summarized in the form of a question (see Fig. 3). Questions

**Figure 3**

Central Issues of  
Organizational Career Development

	<b>Employee Level</b>	<b>Balancing/ Interactive Processes</b>	<b>Organizational Level</b>
<b>Philosophical Level</b>	1A  How do I become/ stay meaningfully connected to the world of work?	1B  How do we balance the long-term needs/ goals of employees and the organization?	1C  What is our central purpose as an organization?
<b>Strategic Level</b>	2A  How can I enhance my career?	2B  How do we balance the short-term needs/goals of employees and the organization?	2C  How can we best meet our organizational outcomes?
<b>Practical Level</b>	3A  How do I stay employable?	3B  How do we balance organizational demands with employee performance?	3C  How do we ensure employees perform tasks that are essential to the organization?

at the philosophical level begin to focus employees and organizations on long-term planning. The most basic issue at the philosophical level for employees is “How do I become/stay meaningfully connected to the world of work?” Meanwhile, the organization struggles to answer the question of “What is our central purpose as an organization?” The balancing/interactive question at this level is “How do we balance the long-term needs and goals of employees and the organization?”

At the strategic level, the employee's most basic question is “How can I enhance my career?” Meanwhile, the organization is asking “How can we best meet organizational outcomes?” The balancing/interactive question for the strategic level can be summarized as “How do we balance the short-term needs and goals of employees with those of the organization?”

At the practical level, the most basic issue faced by employees is “How do I stay employable?” and the most basic issue for the organization is “How do we ensure employees perform tasks that are essential to the organization?” The balancing/interactive question then becomes “How do we balance organizational demands with employee performance?” Consequently, the issues faced at the practical level are concrete and specific.

Using the general/philosophical outcomes to frame questions that summarize the central issues of organizational career development allows for expansion of the model. In other words, the questions attempt to focus practitioners on the exploration of possible strategies to address each issue.

In order to help with the selection of strategies, each issue must be defined more specifically. Listing broad goals and specific tasks that must be completed to solve each issue, at each level, and offering some core strategies that may be utilized further expands the proposed model. Consequently, it is proposed that organizational career development be conceptualized along three dimensions: issues, core strategies, and key tasks. Therefore, each issue has a core strategy for solving it and each issue is broken down into the broad goals and specific tasks that must be achieved at each level. In addition, examples are provided of specific strategies that can be employed to help to further the balancing of individual and organizational needs and goals for each of the three levels. (Note that the strategies listed are examples.) The list of examples provided is not meant to represent all possibilities. The proposed three-dimensional model is depicted in Figure 4. Once again, each level possesses a set of issues, core strategies, and key tasks. The next section of this chapter will provide an overview of these issues, strategies, and tasks as well as some sample strategies for balancing individual and organizational needs at each of the three levels.

### A Framework for Applying the Proposed Model

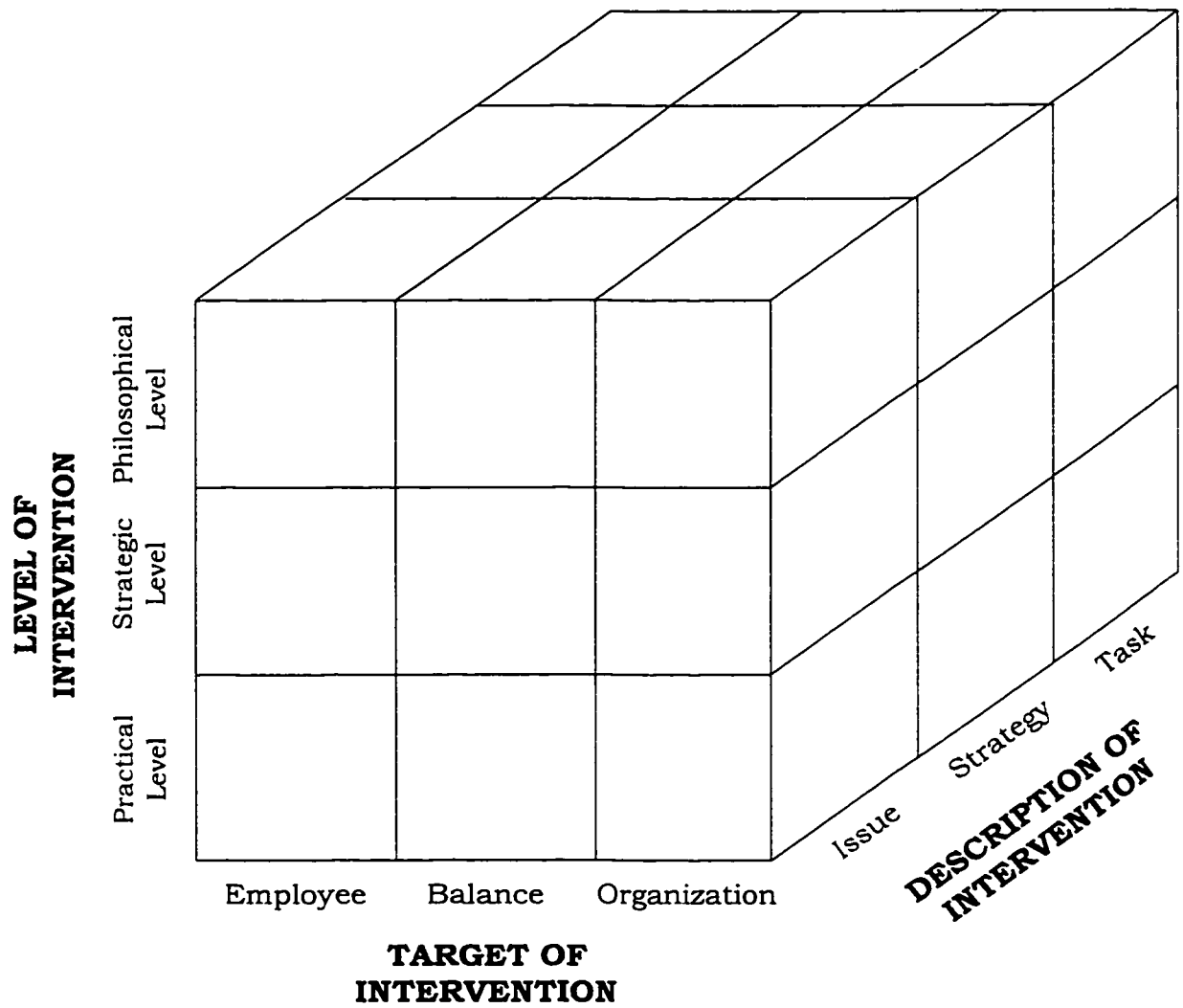
#### Philosophical Level

The core strategy for helping employees to deal with the issue of how they can become and stay meaningfully connected to the world of work is to continuously seek meaningful connection between their own vision and the outcomes the organization is attempting to produce (see Fig. 5). The key task



**Figure 4**

**A Three-Dimensional Model of  
Organizational Career Development**



**Figure 5**

Philosophical Level: Core Issues, Core Strategies,  
and Key Tasks

	<b>Employee Level</b>	<b>Balancing/ Interactive Processes</b>	<b>Organizational Level</b>
<b>Core Issue</b>	How do I get/stay meaningfully connected to the world of work?	How do we balance the long-term needs of employees and the organization?	What is our central purpose as an organization?
<b>Core Strategy</b>	Seek meaningful connections to organizational outcomes	Reciprocal confirmation	Develop a conceptual framework for the organization
<b>Key Tasks</b>	<p>Broad Goal: Meaningful connection of personal vision to organizational outcomes</p> <p>Specific Tasks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Establish a personal vision</li> <li>2. Identify a meaningful connection between one's personal vision and organizational outcomes</li> </ol>	<p>Broad Goal: To foster mutual growth</p> <p>Specific Tasks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Provide employees with the opportunity to share their visions and to have input into the organization's vision/outcomes</li> <li>2. Share organizational vision/outcomes</li> </ol>	<p>Broad Goal: To establish a vision for the organization and a set of outcomes the organization is trying to accomplish</p> <p>Specific Tasks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Establish an organizational vision</li> <li>2. Develop a set of outcome statements for the organization, department or unit</li> <li>3. Align employees meaningfully with organizational vision/outcomes</li> </ol>

for employees is to establish their own personal visions. By endeavouring to express their personal visions, employees at this level can produce dramatic effects on behalf of the organization. Such energies, however, need to be harnessed by the balancing/interactive process of reciprocal confirmation. Through this process, employee ideas are heard and the organizational vision and outcomes are communicated. At this level, employee visions may have an impact upon organizational visions and vice versa. Thorough two-way communication provides the mechanism through which the appropriate visions can be shared and acted upon.

At the organizational level, the organization deals with the issue of determining its central purpose by engaging in the core strategy of developing a conceptual framework for the organization. In a manner similar to the employee, the organization needs to articulate its vision and subsequently the outcomes it hopes to achieve.

To facilitate the balancing/interactive process of reciprocal confirmation, two specific tasks are suggested (see Fig. 5). A list of some sample strategies that can be used to accomplish each task is provided in Table 2. Again, this list is not exhaustive. However, it does provide some initial ideas for balancing employee and organizational needs at the philosophical level. The items listed under each task are now briefly described.

**Table 2**

**Examples of Specific Strategies to Balance  
Employee/Organizational Needs and Goals at the Philosophical Level**

Reciprocal Confirmation Task #1: *Provide employees with the opportunity to share their visions and to have input into the organization's vision/outcomes*

1. Providing employee suggestion boxes (Plas, 1996)
2. Rewarding employees for submitting useful ideas (Plas, 1996)
3. Groupware discussions (Quinn et al., 1996)
4. Value-added exercises (creating new outcomes) (Magnusson, 1996)
5. Gap analysis (identifying what is not being done to meet existing outcomes) (Magnusson, 1996)

Reciprocal Confirmation Task #2: *Share organizational vision/outcomes*

1. Presentations
2. Videos
3. Individual meetings with supervisors/managers
4. E-mail and/or newsletters (Plas, 1996)
5. Intranets (Finney, 1997)

Reciprocal Confirmation

Task #1: Provide employees with the opportunity to share their visions and to have input into the organization's vision/outcomes. This conveys the message to employees that their opinions and ideas matter. These ideas may result in some useful outcomes for employees and the organization. Some forums for this include: (1) providing employee suggestion boxes—a safe and potentially anonymous location for employee feedback (Plas, 1996); (2) rewarding employees for submitting useful ideas, thereby further encouraging

employee communication and providing more input to the organization (Plas, 1996); (3) groupware discussions wherein employees share their visions and ideas for a shared vision via computer programs that may or may not maintain participant anonymity (Quinn et al., 1996); (4) value-added exercises which involve employees in brainstorming sessions designed to generate new outcomes for the organization (Magnusson, 1996); and (5) gap analysis exercises which encourage employees to participate in sessions designed to identify new ways of meeting existing organizational outcomes (Magnusson, 1996).

Task #2: Share organizational vision/outcomes. Sharing the organization's vision and outcomes with employees provides a critical ingredient for the balancing/interactive process of reciprocal confirmation. Sharing this kind of information with employees greatly facilitates the likelihood of effective alignments between employee and organizational visions. This can be done through presentations, videos, individual meetings with supervisors/managers, e-mail, newsletters (Plas, 1996), and/or intranets (Finney, 1997).

The issues, core strategies, and key tasks to consider at the philosophical level were summarized in Figure 5. A sample list of some specific strategies that may be used to balance employee and organizational needs and goals at the philosophical level was presented in Table 2. In the next section, a description of the proposed model at the strategic level is provided.

### Strategic Level

The core strategy for helping employees to deal with the issue of how they can enhance their careers is to develop a personal career management plan (see Fig. 6). To create a personal career management plan, employees need to develop a short-term career path/goal that may include a plan for a new and/or enhanced contribution to organizational outcomes. The assumption at this level is that employability is achieved by demonstrating that one can make an impact upon organizational outcomes. Organizations deal with the issue of how to meet their outcomes by developing strategies or processes for outcome attainment. The key tasks involved in developing organizational strategies are also listed in Figure 6.

The challenge of the balancing/interactive processes at the strategic level is to optimize employee potential for contribution to the selected organizational strategies/processes. This is done through the core strategy of critical discourse. In other words, the organization and the employee need to critically discuss and brainstorm how the personal career management plans of the individual can be aligned with the strategies chosen by the organization. The assumption here is that synergies are created when the short-term needs and goals of both the employee and organization are congruent. In this case, both the employee and the organization benefit.

To facilitate the balancing/interactive process of critical discourse, five specific tasks are listed in Figure 6. A list of some sample strategies that can

**Figure 6**

Strategic Level: Core Issues, Core Strategies,  
and Key Tasks

	<b>Employee Level</b>	<b>Balancing/ Interactive Processes</b>	<b>Organizational Level</b>
<b>Core Issue</b>	How can I enhance my career?	How do we balance the short-term needs/goals of employees and the organization?	How can we best meet our organizational outcomes?
<b>Core Strategy</b>	Develop a personal career management plan	Critical discourse	Develop strategies
<b>Key Tasks</b>	<p>Broad Goal: Develop short-term career path/goal which may include a plan for a new and/or enhanced contribution to organizational outcomes</p> <p>Specific Tasks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Identify competencies</li> <li>2. Identify options for further utilizing competencies</li> <li>3. Develop a specific action plan</li> </ol>	<p>Broad Goal: Optimize employee potential for contribution to organizational strategies/processes</p> <p>Specific Tasks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Establish communication networks</li> <li>2. Create a data base of employee competencies</li> <li>3. Align employees with required processes</li> <li>4. Continue to evaluate and refine alignments to ensure employee and organizational satisfaction</li> <li>5. Develop an ongoing organizational career development program</li> </ol>	<p>Broad Goal: Maintain standards of performance and integrity of the organization to ensure outcomes are achieved</p> <p>Specific Tasks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Identify processes for outcome attainment</li> <li>2. Implement processes for outcome attainment</li> <li>3. Evaluate selected processes for outcome attainment</li> </ol>

be used to accomplish each task are provided in Table 3. Again, this list is not exhaustive. However, it does provide some initial ideas for balancing employee and organizational needs at the strategic level. The items listed under each task are now briefly described.

### Critical Discourse

Task #1: Establish communication networks. Congruent with the core balancing/interactive approach at the strategic level, managers are encouraged to initiate frequent career discussions with their employees to provide support and guidance as well as further expand on the notion of searching for ways of balancing individual/organizational needs and goals (Kaye, 1993; Tyler, 1997). Formal and/or informal arrangements can also be made to link employees up with coaches/mentors who can support, teach, facilitate, and guide them in their career decision making (Butler et al., 1991; Tyler, 1997). Employees can also be taught how to network and gain the referrals they may need in order to achieve their goals (Kaye, 1993; Niven, 1997). These programs can involve formally established organizational networks, or strategies can be informally discussed within the context of career discussions.

Task #2: Create a data base of employee competencies. Teaching employees to identify competencies through self-assessment (e.g., workbooks, workshops, or computer programs) may permit them to better align themselves with the strategies the organization is implementing in order to reach its outcomes (Tyler, 1997). Helping employees to synthesize self-



**Table 3**

**Examples of Specific Strategies to Balance  
Employee/Organizational Needs and Goals at the Strategic Level**

**Critical Discourse Task #1: Establish communication networks**

1. Career discussions (Kaye, 1993; Tyler, 1997)
2. Coaching/mentoring programs (Butler et al., 1991; Tyler, 1997)
3. Networking/referral programs (Kaye, 1993; Niven, 1997)

**Critical Discourse Task #2: Create a data base of employee competencies**

1. Teaching employees to identify competencies through self-assessment via workbooks, workshops, or computer programs (Niven, 1997; Tyler, 1997)
2. Helping employees to synthesize self-assessment information with self-evaluations of performance to establish career goals and action plans (Niven, 1997)
3. Setting timelines for the completion of goals (Niven, 1997)
4. Teaching employees to market their services and their ideas (Lewis, 1996)

**Critical Discourse Task #3: Align employees with required processes**

1. Breaking down organizational visions into requirements for human resources (Butler et al., 1991; Martinez, 1997)
2. Establishing work teams (Lawler, 1991; Plas, 1996)
3. Job postings (Belcourt, Sherman, Bohlander, & Snell, 1996)

**Critical Discourse Task #4: Continue to evaluate and refine alignments to ensure employee and organizational satisfaction**

1. Job redesign (Belcourt et al., 1996; Lawler, 1991)
2. Job enrichment (Lawler, 1991)
3. Job rotation (Belcourt et al., 1996)
4. Providing support for movement up, down, across, and out of the organization (Kaye, 1982)

**Critical Discourse Task #5: Develop an ongoing organizational career development program**

1. Establishing a task force for career development program design (Leibowitz et al., 1986)
2. Designing multiple interventions (Leibowitz et al., 1986)
3. Creating linkages to other human resource functions (Leibowitz et al., 1986)
4. Implementing a pilot project (Leibowitz et al., 1986)
5. Evaluating and redesigning the program (Leibowitz et al., 1986)
6. Publicizing the program (Leibowitz et al., 1986)
7. Generalizing the program to the rest of the organization (Leibowitz et al., 1986)

assessment information with self-evaluations of performance would also allow them to establish career goals and action plans. Managers or supervisors can dramatically increase the likelihood of employees reaching their goals by helping them to set realistic timelines. In order to meet their needs and goals, employees may need to market their services and their ideas (Niven, 1997). Workshops may be designed to help employees to learn how to sell their ideas and services (Lewis, 1996).

Task #3: Align employees with required processes. Breaking down organizational outcomes into requirements for human resources facilitates the specification of employee needs for selection, deployment, and training (Butler et al., 1991; Martinez, 1997). Work teams can be assembled to enable employees to utilize their competencies to enhance their contribution to the organization (Lawler, 1991; Plas, 1996). Specific goals for each work team can further promote the attainment of organizational outcomes. Job postings may also help with the task of aligning employees with required processes by providing information about positions that need to be filled and by openly displaying the criteria for selection (Belcourt, Sherman, Bohlander, & Snell, 1996).

Task #4: Continue to evaluate and refine alignments to ensure employee and organizational satisfaction. Organizations can utilize a combination of job redesign (Belcourt et al., 1996; Lawler, 1991), job enrichment (Lawler, 1991), and job rotation (Belcourt et al., 1996) in order to

achieve better alignment between personal career management plans and organizational strategic plans. Adding, varying, or rotating responsibilities among employees also makes their jobs more challenging and interesting. Providing support for employee movement up, down, across, or out of the organization (Kaye, 1982) may also be necessary in order to facilitate an optimal match between personal career management plans and organizational strategic plans.

Task #5: Develop an ongoing organizational career development program. When developing a comprehensive organizational career development program, it is a good idea to do so jointly with representatives from top management, the human resources department, and a task force comprised of employees who are representative of the targeted group. These people will be able to provide valuable input into the types of strategies that are most likely to work with the group. Designing multiple interventions, each working with the others, allows for collectively meeting the needs of both the employees and the organization (Leibowitz et al., 1986). Conducting a pilot project prior to full-scale implementation is an effective method of testing the career development program. By starting out small, feedback from participants can circumvent the possibility of repeating mistakes on a large scale. Evaluating and redesigning the program can then take place, based on the results of the pilot project. Once the organizational career development program has been redesigned, the program can be publicized throughout the

organization. When the program has been generalized to the rest of the organization, the organizational career development program can be considered complete (Leibowitz et al., 1986).

The issues, core strategies, and key tasks to consider at the strategic level were summarized in Figure 6. A sample list of some specific interventions that may be used to balance employee and organizational needs and goals at the strategic level were presented in Table 3. In the next section, a description of the proposed model at the practical level is provided.

#### Practical Level

The core strategy for helping employees to deal with the issue of remaining employable is to acquire and demonstrate specific competencies (see Fig. 7). Consequently, the key tasks involve developing a plan to acquire and demonstrate specific competencies. On the organizational level, organizations must be involved in the core strategy of establishing and measuring employee competencies. This addresses the issue of ensuring that employees perform tasks that are essential to the organization. The key tasks for accomplishing this are also listed in Figure 7.

The challenges of the balancing/interactive processes of the practical level are to ensure that organizational competencies are accurately set and that employees are capable of and committed to demonstrating these competencies. This can only be accomplished by obtaining input from both the employee and the organization. When the organization sets the required

**Figure 7**

Practical Level: Core Issues, Core Strategies,  
and Key Tasks

	<b>Employee Level</b>	<b>Balancing/ Interactive Processes</b>	<b>Organizational Level</b>
<b>Core Issue</b>	How do I stay employable?	How do we balance organizational demands with employee performance?	How do we ensure employees perform tasks that are essential to the organization?
<b>Core Strategy</b>	Acquire and demonstrate specific competencies	Monitoring and management	Establish and measure organizational competencies
<b>Key Tasks</b>	<p><b>Broad Goal:</b> Develop a plan to acquire and demonstrate specific competencies.</p> <p><b>Specific Tasks:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Negotiate/specify contract/job expectations</li> <li>2. Ensure job performance expectations are understood</li> <li>3. Identify current level of performance</li> <li>4. Identify gaps between current and desired level of performance</li> <li>5. Develop a plan to enhance current job performance</li> <li>6. Identify the next set of career planning needs/goals</li> </ol>	<p><b>Broad Goal:</b> Ensure that organizational competencies set are accurate and that employees are capable and committed to demonstrating these competencies</p> <p><b>Specific Tasks:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Involve employees in establishing performance expectations</li> <li>2. Communicate and reach agreement on compensation and reward systems</li> <li>3. Provide employees with the necessary training and development options</li> <li>4. Provide a forum for the review of employee performance</li> </ol>	<p><b>Broad Goal:</b> Assess organizational performance</p> <p><b>Specific Tasks:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Determine the level of competencies required for the successful attainment of each process chosen to reach organizational outcomes</li> <li>2. Set performance standards</li> <li>3. Establish measures of performance</li> </ol>

competencies in isolation from the employee, it potentially shuts itself off from alternative methods that may be more efficient. Employees are closer to the job and may have insights, needs, and demands which are different from those of organizational representatives.

To facilitate the balancing/interactive process of monitoring/management, four specific tasks are listed in Figure 7. A list of some sample strategies that can be used to accomplish each task is presented in Table 4. The reader is again reminded that this list is by no means exhaustive. However, it does provide some initial ideas for balancing employee and organizational needs at the practical level. The items listed under each task are now briefly described.

### Monitoring and Management

#### Task #1: Involve employees in establishing performance expectations.

Performance expectations need to be mutually set and agreed upon by both employees and the organization. The organization can involve employees in establishing performance expectations by engaging in job/task analysis in order to determine the specific competencies required for the role/task they are attempting to fill (Butler et al., 1991; Dolan & Schuler, 1994; Stone & Meltz, 1993). Clearly understanding these requirements facilitates the process of employee selection, training, and evaluation. It also provides employees with specific information about the role to help them decide if that is what they want. Analyzing high performers and using the information to enhance the

**Table 4**

**Examples of Specific Strategies to Balance  
Employee/Organizational Needs and Goals at the Practical Level**

---

**Monitoring/Management Task #1:** *Involve employees in establishing performance expectations*

1. Job/task analysis (Butler et al., 1991; Dolan & Schuler, 1994; Stone & Meltz, 1993)
2. Analyzing high performers and using the information to enhance the training and development agenda (Butler et al., 1991)

**Monitoring/Management Task #2:** *Communicate and reach agreement on compensation and reward systems*

1. Developing compensation and reward systems based on performance (Belcourt et al., 1996; Bencivenga, 1997; Edwards & Ewen, 1996a, 1996b; Hendry & Maggio, 1996; Martinez, 1997; Tyler, 1997)

**Monitoring/Management Task #3:** *Provide employees with the necessary training and development options*

1. Providing the required training and development options that are necessary for the strategic development of staff in accordance with the vision the organization is trying to achieve (Butler et al., 1991; Hendry & Maggio, 1996; McLagan, 1996; Souque, 1996)
2. Providing access to resources needed to accomplish employee goals that are congruent with the organization's vision (Bencivenga, 1997; Butler et al., 1991)
3. Using information from employee self-assessments conducted at the strategic level to set future training and development priorities (Butler et al., 1991; Tyler, 1997)

**Monitoring/Management Task #4:** *Provide a forum for the review of employee performance*

1. Performance appraisals (Belcourt et al., 1996; Bencivenga, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Stone & Meltz, 1993; Tyler, 1997)
  2. Employee/manager periodic reviews of performance, progress toward goals, etc. (Bencivenga, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Tyler, 1997)
  3. Discussions between employee and manager regarding the alignment of employee competencies and the required organizational competencies (Hendry & Maggio, 1996; Tyler, 1997)
-

training and development agenda is also an effective strategy which builds on the concept of job/task analysis as discussed above. It requires the organization to pinpoint the competencies used by high performers and to use that information to establish training and development programs for other employees (Butler et al., 1991).

Task #2: Communicate and reach agreement on compensation and reward systems. The development of compensation and reward systems based on performance is a good monitoring/management strategy for the practical level. Such systems require organizations to clarify employee performance expectations which, in turn, forces organizations to clearly identify the organizational competencies required. Employees are then rewarded for providing what the organization has deemed necessary (Belcourt et al., 1996; Bencivenga, 1997; Edwards & Ewen, 1996a, 1996b; Hendry & Maggio, 1996; Martinez, 1997; Tyler, 1997).

Task #3: Provide employees with the necessary training and development options. Organizations need to provide the required training and development options that are necessary for the strategic development of staff in accordance with the outcomes the organization is trying to achieve. In addition, the organization must clearly identify the competencies it requires, identify how employees measure up against the required competencies, and remediate deficiencies through the selected training and development programs (Butler et al., 1991; Hendry & Maggio, 1996; McLagan, 1996;



Souque, 1996). Such programs need to be clearly aligned with organizational outcomes in order to reduce waste. Providing access to these programs also demonstrates that the organization values career development and makes it easier for employees to reach their goals (Bencivenga, 1997; Butler et al., 1991). Information from employee self-assessments (conducted at the strategic level) can be stored in data banks and used to set future training and development priorities (Butler et al., 1991; Tyler, 1997).

Task #4: Provide a forum for the review of employee performance.

Performance appraisals help employees and organizations to evaluate whether performance expectations have been met (Belcourt et al., 1996; Bencivenga, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Stone & Meltz, 1993; Tyler, 1997). Discrepancies can be identified to help set training and development goals. Edwards and Ewen (1996a, 1996b) provide some useful ideas on how to incorporate feedback from coworkers and customers. Their model, called 360 Degree Feedback, goes beyond traditional methods that only incorporate supervisory opinions. Less formal strategies include periodic employee/manager reviews of performance and assessment of progress toward goals. Although such strategies are less formal, many authors recommend that they occur more frequently than performance appraisals (Bencivenga, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Tyler, 1997). These reviews provide employees with the message that the organization values ongoing dialogue, support, and performance discussions all the time—not just at the annual or biannual performance appraisal

meeting. Discussions should also take place between the employee and the manager regarding the alignment of employee competencies with the required organizational competencies (Hendry & Maggio, 1996; Martinez, 1997; Tyler, 1997). These discussions reinforce the concept of balancing employee needs and goals with those of the organization.

The issues, core strategies, and key tasks to consider at the practical level were summarized in Figure 7. A sample list of some specific interventions that may be used to balance employee and organizational needs and goals at the practical level were presented in Table 4. The brief comments that were provided for each item in Table 4 completed the description of the proposed model of organizational career development. Although the description emphasized a linear application of the proposed model, alternate conceptualizations are possible.

#### Alternate Ways of Utilizing the Proposed Model

In the previous section of this chapter, the proposed model was described from a horizontal perspective which emphasizes the critical function of balancing employee and organizational needs and goals at the three different levels. Therefore, each level of the model presents issues, core strategies, and key tasks that could be employed to solve parallel employee and organizational issues. Due to the emphasis on balancing/interactive processes, the horizontal perspective is preferred. However, some organizations may simply not be ready to fully develop an organizational career development program. Instead,

they may be new at considering career development initiatives and may only want strategies for employee career planning or for organizational career management. In such cases, the model may be utilized from a vertical perspective. Assuming the organization only wants to consider a career planning focus, practitioners need only utilize the framework provided under the employee side of the model at the three different levels. In fact, some organizations may only be interested in one of the three levels provided for employees. Obviously, the organizational side of the model can be utilized for organizations that are only interested in the career management of their employees. Conceptualizing the model in alternate ways provides practitioners with the flexibility they need to address an organization's presenting problem. Only by demonstrating effectiveness in solving the presenting problem can practitioners secure the support they need for a full implementation of the model across an entire organization. In other words, interventions may begin at the practical level, incorporate some of the strategic level, and then move back to the practical level. Similarly, interventions may begin at the philosophical level and carry on to the practical level or simply stop at the philosophical level.

The intention is that creative uses of the model will develop to address unique organizational needs. Consequently, the strength and applicability of the model will be determined over time as it is applied to diverse employee and organizational needs. A more detailed explanation of how this may occur

is presented in Chapter 6 wherein the topics of further research and model validation are discussed.

Although the model was described linearly in this chapter, this was only done in order to provide a thorough examination of the full model. It was not developed exclusively for linear uses. Instead, the intent is to create a maximum amount of flexibility to meet unique needs and various organizational demands. Organizations, for example, may wish to begin at the philosophical level in order to crystallize their vision and then work toward more specific goals at the strategic and practical levels. Other organizations, however, may only be interested in improving employee job performance.

The proposed model highlights the importance of incorporating individual and organizational visions. Its flexible applications encourage practitioners to creatively design interventions to meet the unique and varying needs of organizations. In addition, practitioners are encouraged to integrate a variety of the strategies discussed to synergistically meet the needs of the employees and the organization. Several strategies have been proposed to ensure that the needs of individuals and organizations remain in balance.

This chapter provided a framework for applying the proposed model of organizational career development. The dimensions of the model were described and a full conceptualization of the model was offered. Finally, some alternate ways of utilizing the model were briefly mentioned. Chapter 6 provides a conclusion to this project by suggesting some ideas for further research and model validation.

## **Chapter 6**

### **CONCLUSION**

This chapter concludes this dissertation by providing a brief summary of Chapters 1 through 5, offering suggestions for validating the proposed model of organizational career development, and discussing the potential implications of this work.

#### Summary

Organizational career development services are designed to help employees fill the gaps between what they currently know and what they need to know so that they can remain employable, and so that organizations can remain competitive in the global marketplace. Consequently, a comprehensive organizational career development plan forces employees and organizations to identify their needs and concomitantly plan for their continued development.

It has been argued that, as our global economy becomes increasingly competitive, organizations will be forced to adopt a more comprehensive, future-oriented, and integrated approach to managing their human resources. In fact, the continuity and success of an organization depend, to a great extent, on its ability to attract, evaluate, develop, utilize, and retain well-qualified people. Unfortunately, however, the era of restructuring, downsizing, and rightsizing has made this increasingly difficult. Other changes in the world of work (such as the shift from long-term working arrangements to temporary

contract work; the less frequent use of concepts such as career paths, career hierarchies, and promotion from within; the increased outsourcing of non-essential tasks; and flattened hierarchies) have collectively put pressure on existing models of organizational career development. In fact, this dissertation has argued that existing models of organizational career development have begun to lose their usefulness and that a new model needs to be created.

Specifically, the Lofquist and Dawis (1969) model was found to be limited because it does not consider individual development and change over time. Instead, many tests and resources are used to capture one picture of the individual. It was argued that the requirements of the world of work are changing far too fast for a static matching approach to offer enough utility, especially considering the amount of time involved in achieving the initial match.

Schein's (1978) model was found to be of limited value since it lists specific early, mid-, and late career issues, reflecting an assumption of lifelong employment. Similarly, Schein (1978) lists organizational needs that also tend to reflect the notion of lifelong employment (e.g., planning for staffing, growth and development, levelling off and disengagement, and replacement and restaffing). Schein's (1978) model proposes a linear sequence of interventions based upon the assumption that early, mid-, and late career issues follow each other. It was suggested that this assumption was invalid within today's world

of work or within the context of changing, dynamic organizations. Although Schein (1996) comments on recent changes in the world of work, he does not revise his model.

Hall (1986), the third major theorist in organizational career development, presents a six-stage model in which employees gather information about themselves and the organizations in which they work. Hall (1986) suggests that this information can be used by employees to set goals and develop specifically timed plans for moving up the organizational hierarchy. It was argued that there are a few major problems with the application of Hall's (1986) model. First, it emphasizes the need for organizations to have a clearly defined career path structure. Meanwhile, organizations are increasingly moving from a hierarchical structure to a flatter, team-based structure with fewer permanent employees and more employees hired on a contract, project-to-project basis (Bridges, 1994; Campbell, 1994; Zunker, 1994). Hall's (1986) model also assumes that individuals strive to climb organizational hierarchies, thereby omitting other avenues for obtaining personal satisfaction. Although Hall (1996) comments on this deficit in his more recent writing, he does not revise his model. Finally, it was suggested that by being universally and generically applied, Hall's (1986) model may run the risk of promoting tool- or technique-driven interventions which may not meet the needs of the employees and the organization being served.

The most recent model of organizational career development provided by Brousseau et al. (1996) suggests that there are four types of employees: linear, expert, spiral, and transitory. Brousseau et al. (1996) state that these employee types can strategically form organizational career teams to meet specific organizational requirements. It was suggested that although an understanding of these types may facilitate the process of self-awareness/self-assessment, the types themselves are just one aspect of self-assessment. The utilization of these types alone, without other self-assessment approaches such as those recommended by Holland (1985) and Super (1990), was deemed to be insufficient.

Most importantly, the Brousseau et al. (1996) model is designed to address organizational needs at the strategic level. In other words, it appears to be a means by which to ensure that organizational needs are met. It does not emphasize how employee needs can be met. Therefore, it was suggested that the model does not effectively encourage the balancing of individual and organizational needs.

In summary, it was argued that there are two main problems with current models of organizational career development. First, there is a lack of emphasis on how personal visions and organizational visions can be used to facilitate both individual and organizational goals. Second, the existing models lack interactive and balancing processes to equilibrate changing individual and organizational needs.



The goal of this dissertation was to present a comprehensive model of organizational career development that would address the above gaps. To emphasize the role of personal and organizational visions, constructivist literature on career development and management literature on organizational vision and mission statements were discussed. Ideas from these areas were synthesized and incorporated into the proposed model of organizational career development. Many of these ideas have been discussed in the career development and management literature. Unfortunately, however, these ideas are generally discussed in isolation from each other. In other words, the power of simultaneously initiating both individual and organizational development from the basis of personal and organizational visions has not been suggested. By putting the two together we emphasize the importance of initiating movement toward the achievement of both individual and organizational goals.

Ideas from systems theory created the framework for conceptualizing the proposed model of organizational career development. Systemically, parallel employee and organizational concepts were developed for each level of the model. The systems language to denote this hierarchical organization includes outcomes, processes, and structures. Outcomes are represented by the centre rings (Personal and Organizational Visions; see Fig. 2). They are the long-term goals toward which the individual and/or the organization is working. Processes are the strategies, plans, or methods for achieving the

longer-term outcomes. The structures are the specifics; in this case, they are the competencies required by the employee and the organization to ensure movement toward personal and organizational visions. To simplify the terminology, the inner rings are referred to as the 'philosophical level,' the middle rings the 'strategic level,' and the outer rings the 'practical level.' These terms are used to illustrate movement from the broader philosophical vision to the strategic plans and then to the practical need for the alignment of specific competencies. More specifically, the model encourages employees and organizations to dream (philosophical level), plan (strategic level), and then perform (practical level).

The personal and organizational vision circles are intentionally diagrammed as the core rings to denote the role of personal and organizational visions in regulating the other subsystems. Meanwhile, the focus on competencies is diagrammed as the outer rings to denote the role of competencies in providing feedback to the rest of the system regarding the requirements of the world of work—specifically the competencies required to remain employable (in the case of the employee) and competitive (in the case of the organization) (see Fig. 2). This feedback helps employees and organizations to adjust to changes in the world of work and, therefore, to monitor their plans and strategies to ensure the most optimal fulfillment of their respective visions. This use of systems concepts to create parallel

structures between employees and organizations is new to models of organizational career development.

The balancing/interactive processes were designed to help bring the employee and the organization into closer alignment, thereby avoiding the situation of treating career development and organizational development as separate entities. By simultaneously attending to both we create a synergistic reaction, in which 'the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.'

The comprehensive framework provided in Chapter 5 for bridging the gap between employees and organizations illustrated an attempt to alleviate the concerns reflected in the survey literature on organizational career development that identified imbalances between career planning and career management services.

Finally, it was argued that the proposed model of organizational career development incorporates most of the strengths inherent in existing models of organizational career development. Meanwhile, it adds a philosophical level (the personal and organizational visions), places a stronger emphasis on the need to balance employee and organizational needs through the balancing/interactive processes, and provides a systemic articulation of parallel employee and organizational tasks for bridging the gaps between employees and organizations.

Although the proposed model of organizational career development synthesizes a vast amount of literature from the fields of career and

organizational development and heuristically makes sense to the writer, its validity remains to be seen. Consequently, the next section provides a framework for validating the proposed model of organizational career development.

### Model Validation

The process of validating a complex set of constructs such as those contained within the proposed model of organizational career development will be, in itself, a major undertaking. No simple evaluation mechanisms or individual research projects could possibly do justice to such a complex set of phenomena. Therefore, it becomes necessary to develop a general framework for model validation. Details about specific research methodologies will only become apparent after the initial data are analyzed. With that constraint in mind, four major approaches to model validation are provided.

It is recommended that the first major phase of validation involve theoreticians in providing feedback on the content/constructs used in the model. Next, it is recommended that the model be presented to practitioners in the field of organizational career development to obtain feedback on the face validity of the model. Inevitably, the above feedback will lead to revisions to the proposed model of organizational career development. The third phase of validation, global validity, provides some suggestions for assessing the impact of the proposed model on individuals and organizations. Finally, the principal constructs of the model have been restated in the form of 16 propositions.

These propositions form the heart of the model, and should form the basis for rigorous model evaluation. Therefore, the presentation of each proposition is accompanied by general suggestions for testing, evaluation, or further research.

### Content/Construct Validity

In order to obtain feedback on the content/constructs emphasized in the model, it is recommended that individual interviews or selected reviews occur with theoreticians in the field of organizational career development. The focus would be on asking the following questions:

1. **Is the content of the proposed model of organizational career development understandable and appropriate?**
2. **What important content areas have been left out?**
3. **Have the right themes/constructs been used?**
4. **What important themes/constructs are missing from the proposed model?**

From a content perspective, theoreticians could also be asked about the viability of incorporating concepts from chaos theory. These ideas may further expand on the systems theory components of the proposed model and provide suggestions for organizations facing the reality or threat of disintegration.

Feedback on the above questions will provide useful information that may lead to some fine tuning regarding the content/constructs used in the

model. Unfortunately, this feedback is only impressionistic and, therefore, does not serve to conclusively validate or invalidate the entire model.

After obtaining feedback from theoreticians and making the necessary modifications to the model, it is recommended that the model be presented to practitioners in the field of organizational career development for their feedback.

### Face Validity

It is assumed that theoreticians will be able to read the proposed model of organizational career development and subsequently provide feedback. Although some practitioners may also be able to do the same, others may benefit from having the content/constructs explained. Therefore, workshops could be delivered wherein the model is described. To test this assumption, the feedback provided by practitioners who have read the model could be compared with that provided by those who have attended the training sessions. This information may lead to the development of recommendations about the amount, nature, and type of training necessary in order to enable practitioners to successfully implement the model.

It is recommended that feedback from practitioners occur through structured interviews. The focus would be on asking the following questions:

- 1. To what extent does the model help you to understand employee and organizational development from a macro perspective?**

2. **To what extent does the model help you to assess and critique existing plans for employee and organizational development?**
3. **To what extent does the model help you to develop plans for employee and organizational development?**
4. **Does the model heuristically make sense to you?**
5. **Has the model incorporated all relevant aspects of organizational career development?**
6. **What is missing in the proposed conceptualization of organizational career development?**
7. **How useful would the model be to your practice?**

The above questions could also be expanded upon and individual interviews could extend to a survey format. Surveys could then be completed by practitioners who attended the training sessions or read about the model. Their feedback will determine the degree to which the model appeals to the audience of practitioners. In addition, their feedback may lead to revisions to the model and may also lead to suggestions for more rigorous testing. Due to its impressionistic nature, practitioner feedback in itself will not completely validate or invalidate the proposed model of organizational career development.

#### Global Validity

The purpose of global validation is to determine the extent to which the model has a positive impact on individuals and organizations. One way of doing this could involve the use of historical case studies wherein hermeneutical

analysis is used to uncover the stories of successful/unsuccessful individuals and organizations. Following this model, archives of organizational information and interviewing of past employees could be used in an attempt to uncover the determinants of successful versus unsuccessful individuals and organizations. These determinants could be compared to the ideals proposed in the model of organizational career development. For example, the extent to which past employee stories and organizational information provides evidence of key constructs in the model (e.g., visions, strategies/planning, competencies, and balancing/interactive processes) could be noted. More specifically, the researchers could determine the degree to which the propositions provided in the next section were evident in successful/unsuccessful individuals and organizations.

The determinants of successful/unsuccessful organizations may result in an organizational survey which could be validated and used to assess the health and well-being of today's organizations. In addition to the potential formulation of an organizational survey, historical case studies may provide support for the proposed model or they may recommend some useful modifications.

The research from content/construct validity, face validity, and historical case studies may then prepare the model for implementation in one or two organizations. As the model is implemented, longitudinal case studies could be used to address the following questions:



1. **When organizations use the model systematically, what impact does it have on the organization's ability to stay competitive in the global marketplace?**
2. **When employees use the model systematically, what impact does it have on the employees' ability to stay employable?**
3. **How difficult is it for employees to establish personal visions? Are there differences based on one's level within the organization? To what extent are personal visions influenced by ethnicity/gender?**
4. **How difficult is it for organizations to establish organizational visions? Do some organizations find it easier than others? If so, which types?**
5. **What are the barriers to establishing a personal vision?**
6. **What are the barriers to establishing an organizational vision?**
7. **To what extent do employees and organizations follow through with the ideals proposed in the model? Do some employees/organizations follow through more than others? If so, which ones? Why?**

Finally, as implementation of the model occurs, research can begin to test 16 specific propositions.

#### Model Propositions

There are a vast number of interrelated concepts that have been harnessed in the development of the proposed model of organizational career

development. The sheer complexity of the model and attendant constructs may make effective and disciplined model testing extremely difficult. To facilitate model evaluation, especially by other researchers, the principal constructs of the model have been restated in the form of 16 propositions. These propositions form the heart of the model, and should form the basis for rigorous evaluation.

The presentation of each proposition is accompanied by general suggestions for testing, evaluation, or further research. In stating the propositions, it immediately becomes clear that additional work will be needed to develop specific criteria by which each proposition may be evaluated. However, with that caveat in mind, the propositions are provided as follows:

**Proposition 1: The articulation of a clear personal vision has a positive impact on the development of one's personal career management plan.**

To test this proposition, specific criteria would need to be developed to determine to what extent personal visions and personal career management plans were clearly developed. For example, the degree to which a personal vision evokes strong emotions in an individual could be compared to the level of detail provided in one's personal career management plan. Correlational studies could then be used to determine how closely the development of one compares to the other. Conversely, individual interviews and longitudinal tracking or retrospective interviewing could be used to provide a greater

understanding of the relationship between personal visions and personal career management plans.

**Proposition 2: The articulation of a clear personal vision has a positive impact on the acquisition and demonstration of specific competencies.**

Once again, criteria could be established for a correlational study or individual interviews and longitudinal tracking or retrospective interviewing could be used to test this proposition.

**Proposition 3: The articulation of a clear personal vision has a positive impact on the attainment of the organization's vision and strategic plans.**

To test this proposition, the clarity of an employee's personal vision would have to be compared to his/her impact on the establishment and success of organizational visions and strategic plans. For example, employees with clear personal visions and employees without clear personal visions could be compared by gauging their impact on the establishment and success of organizational visions and strategic plans. Again, criteria would help with correlational studies. Edwards and Ewan's (1996a,b) system of 360-Degree Feedback could also be used to test this proposition. In this case, supervisors, employees, peers, and customers could be asked to what extent the employee had an impact on the organizational vision and strategic plans. This data

would then need to be compared to the level of clarity he/she had in his/her personal vision.

**Proposition 4: The articulation of clear personal visions has a positive impact on the organization's ability to profit economically.**

To test this proposition, survey data or samples of employee interviews could be used to gauge the level of clarity employees within the organization have on their personal visions. This data could then be compared to the degree of economic success experienced by the organization over time. Obviously, collecting this type of information in several organizations would provide more data for comparison and subsequently better validity.

**Proposition 5: The articulation of a clear personal vision has a positive impact on an individual's ability to remain employable.**

Individual interviews, longitudinal tracking, and retrospective interviewing could all be used to test this proposition. A sample of employees could also be enrolled in a workshop to help them develop clear personal visions. Employees with clear personal visions could then be compared to those without clear personal visions. Quantitatively, the two groups could then be compared on criteria variables such as annual earnings, months employed/unemployed, etc.

**Proposition 6: The articulation of a clear organizational vision has a positive impact on the development of the strategic plans chosen by the organization.**

To test this proposition, some specific criteria would need to be developed to determine to what extent organizational visions and strategic plans are clearly developed. Correlational studies could then be used to compare how closely one compares to the other. Organizational interviews and longitudinal tracking or retrospective interviewing could also be used to compare the relationship between organizational visions and strategic plans.

**Proposition 7: The articulation of a clear organizational vision has a positive impact on the alignment of employee and organizational competencies.**

Once again, criteria could be established for a correlational study or individual interviews and longitudinal tracking or retrospective interviewing could be used to test this proposition.

**Proposition 8: The articulation of a clear organizational vision has a positive impact on the attainment of the organization's strategic plans.**

This proposition could be tested by comparing the clarity of the organization's vision with the degree of success the organization has in the attainment of its strategic plans. For example, Honda had a clear vision of entering the North American market to sell its motorcycles. In this example, the clarity of the vision may be quantitatively compared to the number of sales in the North American market.

**Proposition 9: The articulation of a clear organizational vision has a positive impact on the establishment of employee visions.**

Individual interviews, focus groups, or surveys could be used to assess the impact that an organizational vision has on employee visions.

**Proposition 10: The articulation of a clear organizational vision has a positive impact on the organization's economic success.**

To test this proposition, correlational data between the clarity of an organization's vision and its economic success could be compared. The use of multiple organizations would increase the validity of this data.

**Proposition 11: The articulation of a clear organizational vision has a positive impact on the organization's ability to stay competitive.**

To test this proposition, organizations with and without clear organizational visions could be compared to assess their degree of competitiveness in the marketplace.

**Proposition 12: The process of reciprocal confirmation facilitates the alignment of personal visions and organizational visions.**

**Proposition 13: The process of critical discourse facilitates the alignment of personal career management plans and organizational human resource strategic plans.**

**Proposition 14: The process of monitoring and management facilitates the alignment of employee competencies to the required organizational competencies.**

To test the above three propositions, measures of alignment will need to be determined and quantitatively and/or qualitatively examined.

**Proposition 15: The articulation of personal visions, personal career management plans, and plans for the acquisition and demonstration of specific competencies has a positive impact on one's ability to remain employable.**

To test this proposition, individual interviews, retrospective interviewing, and longitudinal tracking could be used to compare individuals who follow this process with those who do not.

**Proposition 16: The articulation of organizational visions, human resource strategic plans, and plans for the alignment of employee competencies to the required organizational competencies has a positive impact on an organization's ability to remain competitive in the global marketplace.**

Organizational interviews, retrospective interviewing, and longitudinal tracking could be used to test this proposition.

### Generic Research Questions

Aside from testing the above propositions, a few generic research questions remain. They include:

1. **Which strategies facilitate the process of reciprocal confirmation most effectively?**
2. **Which strategies facilitate the process of critical discourse most effectively?**
3. **Which strategies facilitate the process of monitoring and management most effectively?**

Ideally, in order to determine causality, a series of experimental studies could be developed to answer the above questions. Unfortunately, it is not always possible to be able to randomly assign subjects. In such cases, quasi-experimental studies may have to suffice. Although causality cannot be determined in such cases, the results of quasi-experimental studies may suggest relationships between independent and dependent variables that can be further explored in future experimental studies.

4. **Are the linkages clear among personal visions, personal career management plans, and the acquisition and demonstration of specific competencies? Does one lead to the other? In which order are these tasks most effectively done?**

These questions could be answered through individual interviews or through employee career development workshop evaluations.



- 5. Are the linkages clear among organizational visions, human resource strategic plans, and the alignment of employee competencies to the required organizational competencies? Does one lead to the other? In which order are these tasks most effectively done?**

These questions could be answered through organizational interviews or focus groups.

- 6. What differences exist between employees with and without clear personal visions?**

A multitude of different data could be collected to answer this question. For example, comparisons could be drawn on factors such as level of employability and the degree to which the individual has an impact on organizational goals (e.g., increased sales, decreased costs, etc.).

- 7. What differences exist between organizations with and without clear organizational visions?**

Again, a multitude of different data could be collected to answer this question. For example, organizations could be compared on their degree of competitiveness and economic success.

As the results of many studies become apparent, revisions to the model may occur. Consequently, the way in which the model is conceptualized may continue to evolve. Nevertheless, in its current form, several implications can be drawn from this work.

### Implications

The proposed model forces practitioners to reconceptualize organizational career development. Specifically, it encourages a new macro and long-term perspective. It also considers the interrelationships between career development and organizational development and advocates for synergistic, rather than prescriptive, interventions.

The proposed model of organizational career development encourages practitioners to view career development and organizational development as unified, connected, and interrelated systems. In other words, the model suggests employee career development and organizational development do not occur in isolation of one another. The model supports the bridging of employees and organizations through the simultaneous linking of previously separate systems. It encourages practitioners to search for and utilize many interrelated strategies to achieve synergistic reactions designed to benefit both employees and organizations. The model does not support the use of single and isolated interventions. The model's dynamic nature provides many points of entry and recommends a variety of tasks and strategies to meet various employee and organizational needs. Ultimately, the model encourages practitioners to keep employee and organizational needs in balance. Consequently, the model discourages organizations from relegating the responsibility for career development entirely to employees.

By taking a macro perspective on employee career development and organizational development, the model highlights the importance of considering all aspects of the human being (including emotions, dreams, and current realities). It encourages practitioners to find ways of helping employees and organizations to harness the power of their visions and to balance and negotiate these visions within the confines of external realities. Similarly, the model encourages organizations to engage their employees in the establishment of organizational visions to enhance commitment and movement toward emotionally charged and shared visions. Therefore, the model suggests that the organizational vision cannot be hoarded at the top management level.

Finally, effective use of the model supports a long-term focus wherein employees and organizations are encouraged to envision their futures and work towards the establishment of plans and strategies to achieve their visions. This emphasizes the need for long-term planning and discourages current practices which focus only on quarterly results. By focusing on the long-term, organizations are encouraged to consider the long-term consequences of their actions. For example, short-sighted actions such as cutting staff to improve quarterly reports are not supported by the proposed model of organizational career development.

The proposed model also provides a stimulus for a vast amount of research. At the very least, this research will begin to further illuminate the complex interrelationships between employees and organizations.

### Conclusion

Technological advancements and increasing competition in the global marketplace have necessitated a focus on employee and organizational development as a means to enhance the competitiveness of organizations. Unfortunately, past models of organizational career development have begun to lose their usefulness in guiding organizational career development services. This was witnessed in the surveys of organizational career development that showed imbalances between career planning and career management services. These studies also showed large discrepancies between the intentions for career development services and the services designed to meet particular needs. In other words, the results of the survey literature have suggested organizational career development services are currently provided on the basis of their good intentions and not on their demonstrated impact to strategically meet the needs of employees and organizations. To remediate these deficiencies, this dissertation proposed a new model of organizational career development.

The proposed model highlights the importance of personal and organization visions, interactive/balancing processes, and parallel employee and organizational tasks to bridge the gap between employees and organizations. Although the proposed model synthesizes a vast amount of literature and makes heuristic sense to the writer, this chapter provided

several suggestions for further research and model validation. Further research will be used to make modifications to the model.

In its current form, the model encourages practitioners to consider the interrelationships between career development and organizational development. It also emphasizes the use of dynamic and multiple points of entry when balancing the needs of employees and organizations. The model encourages a macro perspective by including all aspects of human beings including their emotions, dreams and current realities. Finally, it focuses on the future by creating emotionally charged, shared visions wherein practitioners help employees and organizations to strategically find ways of harnessing the power of their visions.

Inevitably, future research and continued application will result in modifications to the proposed model of organizational career development. These modifications will also lead to new perspectives and additional implications for the field of organizational career development. The model proposed in this dissertation provides a foundation for that work to begin.

## REFERENCES

Abdelnour, B. T., & Hall, D. T. (1980). Career development of established employees. Career Development Bulletin, 2(1), 5-8.

Alberta Advanced Education and Career Development (1996). Radical change in the world of work: The workbook. Edmonton, AB: Learning Resources Distributing Centre.

Arthur, M. B., Claman, P. H., & De Fillippi, R. J. (1995). Intelligent enterprise, intelligent careers. Academy of Management Executive, 9(4), 7-22.

Axmith, M. (1994, February 14). Contracts to become more flexible. Canadian HR Reporter, pp. 14-15, 23.

Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barkhaus, R. S. (1983). Career development in the corporation. Part One: The purposes and benefits. Part Two: Three basic approaches. Journal of College Placement, 43(4), 28-39.

Belcourt, M., Sherman, A. W., Bohlander, G. W., & Snell, S. A. (1996). Managing human resources: Canadian edition. Toronto: Nelson Canada.

Below, P. J., Morrissey, G. L., & Acomb, B. L. (1987). The executive guide to strategic planning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bencivenga, D. (1997, June). Employers and workers come to terms. HR Magazine, pp. 88-97.

Benimadhu, P. (1995). Adding value: The role of the human resource function. Ottawa: Conference Board of Canada.

Bennis, W., Mason, R. O., & Mitroff, I. I. (1989). Great ideas in management: Lessons from the founders and foundations of managerial practice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bernes, K. B., & Magnusson, K. C. (1996). A description of career development services within Canadian organizations. Journal of Counseling and Development, 74(6), 569-574.

Borgen, F. H. (1991). Megatrends and milestones in vocational behavior: A 20-year counseling psychology perspective. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 39, 263-290.

Borgen, F. H., Weiss, D. J., Tinsley, H. E. A., Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1968). Minnesota Job Description Questionnaire. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, Psychology Department, Vocational Psychology Research.

Bowler, T. D. (1981). General systems thinking: Its scope and applicability (Vol. 4). New York: North Holland.

Bridges, W. (1994). Job shift: How to prosper in a workplace without jobs. New York: Addison-Wesley.

Brousseau, K. R., Driver, M. J., Eneroth, K., & Larsson, R. (1996). Career pandemonium: Realignment organizations and individuals. Academy of Management Executive, 10(4), 52-66.

Burack, E. H., & Singh, R. P. (1996, November). The new employment relations compact. Human Resource Planning, pp. 12-19.

Butler, J. E., Ferris, G. R., & Napier, N. K. (1991). Strategy and human resources management. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.

Campbell, C. (1994). Where the jobs are: Career survival for Canadians in the new global economy. Toronto: McFarlane, Walter & Ross.

Candy, P. C. (1987). Reframing research into 'self-direction' in adult education: A constructivist perspective. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC.

Carlsen, M. B. (1988). Meaning-making: Therapeutic processes in adult development. New York: Norton.

Carson, K. D., & Phillips Carson, P. (1997). Career entrenchment: A quiet march toward occupational death? Academy of Management Executive, 11(1), 62-75.

Cascio, W. F. (1993). Downsizing: What do we know? What have we learned? Academy of Management Executive, 7(1), 95-104.

Clement, R. W., Walker, J. W., & Pinto, P. B. (1979). Changing demands on the training professional. Training and Development Journal, 33(3), 3-8.

Cochran, L. (1990). The sense of vocation: A study of career and life development. New York: State University of New York Press.



Cochran, L. (1992). The career project. Journal of Career Development, 18(3), 187-197.

Cochran, L. (1994). What is a career problem? Career Development Quarterly, 42, 204-215.

Collin, A., & Young, R. A. (1986). New directions for theories of career. Human Relations, 39(9), 837-853.

Collins, J. C., & Porras, J. I. (1994). Built to last. New York: Harper Collins.

Crompton, S. (1993, Summer). The renaissance of self-employment. Perspectives, pp. 22-32.

Crozier, S. (1994). Career/life planning for college and university students: Students' handbook: Module 2. Calgary, AB: University of Calgary Press.

Davenport, C. (1994, February 14). Recruitment trends in the next decade signal big challenges ahead. Canadian HR Reporter, pp. 12-13.

Dolan, S. L., & Schuler, R. S. (1994). Human resource management: The Canadian dynamic. Scarborough, ON: Nelson Canada.

Edwards, M. R., & Ewen, A. J. (1996a). 360 degree feedback: The powerful new model for employee assessment and performance improvement. Whitby, ON: Amacom/McGraw-Hill.

Edwards, M. R., & Ewen, A. J. (1996b, May/June). How to manage performance and pay with 360-degree feedback. Compensation, pp. 12-17.

Finney, M. I. (1997, January). Harness the power within. HR Magazine, pp. 66-74.

Foot, D.K., & Stoffman, D. (1996). Boom, bust and echo: How to profit from the coming demographic shift. Toronto: Macfarlane, Walter & Ross.

Frey, K. (1990, Fall). Strategic planning: A process for stimulating organizational learning and change. Organizational Development Journal, pp. 74-81.

Fuqua, D. R., & Kurpius, D. J. (1993). Conceptual models in organizational consultation. Journal of Counseling and Development, 71, 607-618.

Garrison, R., & Magnusson, K. (1996). A transactional view of effective teaching and learning. Unpublished manuscript.

Gergen, K. J. (1985). The social constructionist movement in modern psychology. American Psychologist, 40(3), 266-275.

Gilley, J. W. (1989). Career development: The linkage between training and organizational development. Performance Improvement Quarterly, 2(1), 43-54.

Golembiewski, R. T., Hall, B., Nethery, K., Shepherd, W., & Hilles, R. (1992). Enhancing world-wide strategic planning, Part I: An OD design and its theoretic rationale. Organization Development Journal, 10(1), 31-54.

Griffith, A. R. (1980). A survey of career development in corporations. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 58(8), 537-543.

Griffith, A. R. (1981). A survey of career development in state and local government. Journal of Employment Counseling, 18(1), 12-23.

Grossman Dean, R. (1993). Constructivism: An approach to clinical practice. Smith College Studies in Social Work, 63(2), 127-146.

Gutteridge, T. G., Leibowitz, Z. B., & Shore, J. E. (1993). Organizational career development: Benchmarks for building a world-class workforce. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gutteridge, T. G., & Otte, F. (1983). Organizational career development: What's going on out there? Training and Development Journal, 37, 22-26.

Hall, D. T. (1986). Introduction: An overview of current career development theory, research, and practice. In Hall, D. T. & Associates (Eds.), Career development in organizations (pp. 1-20). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hall, D. T. (1990). Career development theory in organizations. In D. Brown, & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development (2nd ed.) (pp. 422-454). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hall, D. T. (1996). Protean careers of the 21st century. Academy of Management Executive, 10(4), 8-16.

Hamel, G., & Prahalad, C. K. (1994, July/August). Competing for the future. Harvard Business Review, pp. 122-128.

Hendry, I., & Maggio, E. (1996, May). Tracking success: Is competency-based management an effective strategy or simply the flavor of the month? Benefits Canada, pp. 71-73.

Herr, E. L. (1992). Emerging trends in career counseling. International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 15(4), 255-288.

Herr, E. L., & Cramer, S. H. (1992). Career guidance and counseling through the lifespan (4th ed.). New York: Harper Collins.

Hill, C., & Jones, G. (1989). Strategic management: An integrated approach. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Holland, J. L. (1977). The self-directed search. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Holland, J. L. (1985). Making vocational choices: A theory of vocational personalities and work environments (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Jones, C., & De Fillippi, R. J. (1996). Back to the future in film: Combining industry and self-knowledge to meet the career challenges of the 21st century. Academy of Management Executive, 10(4), 89-103.

Kandola, B. (1996, May). Are competencies too much of a good thing? People Management, p. 21.

Kanter, R. M. (1989). When giants learn to dance: Mastering the strategy, management, and careers in the 1990s. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (1996, January/February). Using the balanced scorecard as a strategic management system. Harvard Business Review, pp. 75-85.

Kaye, B. L. (1982). Up is not the only way. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kaye, B. L. (1993, December). Career development: Anytime, anyplace. Training & Development, pp. 46-49.

Kleiman, M. P. (1984). Turning career development lip service into action. Training and Development Journal, 38(4), 78-79.

Koestler, C. (1967). The ghost in the machine. New York: Macmillan.

Kroeger, A. (1994). Governments and the "Jobs" issue. Canadian Business Economics, 2(2), 42-53.

Krumboltz, J. D. (1979). A social learning theory of career decision making. In A. M. Mitchell, G. B. Jones, & J. D. Krumboltz (Eds.), Social learning and career decision making (pp. 19-49). Cranston, RI: Carroll Press.

Krumboltz, J. D. (1994). Improving career development theory from a social learning perspective. In M. L. Savickas, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Convergence in career development theories: Implications for science and practice (pp. 9-32). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Latham, G. P., & Wexley, K. N. (1994). Increasing productivity through performance appraisal (2nd ed.). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Lawler, E. E. (1991). High-involvement management. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lee, T. W., Ashford, S. J., Walsh, J. P., & Mowday, R. T. (1992). Commitment propensity, organizational commitment and voluntary turnover:

A longitudinal study of organizational entry processes. Journal of Management, 18, 15-32.

Leibowitz, Z. B., Farren, C., & Kaye, B. L. (1986). Designing career development systems. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leibowitz, Z. B., & Lea, D. H. (1986). Adult career development: Concepts, issues, and practices. Silver Spring, MD: National Career Development Association.

Lent, R. W. (1994). Sociocognitive mechanisms of personal agency in career development: Pantheoretical prospects. In M. L. Savikas, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Convergence in career development theories: Implications for science and practice (pp. 77-102). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Levine, H. Z. (1985). Consensus on career planning. Personnel, 62(11), 67-72.

Lewis, B. (1996, March). Think of yourself as a product: Improve your abilities and marketing. Infoworld, p. 66.

Lofquist, L. H., & Dawis, R. V. (1969). Adjustment to work. East Norwalk, CT: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Lofquist, L. H., & Dawis, R. V. (1984). Research on work adjustment and satisfaction: Implications for career counseling. In S. Brown, & R. Lent (Eds.), Handbook of counseling psychology (pp. 216-237). New York: Wiley.

Lyddon, W. J. (1990). First- and second-order change: Implications for rationalist and constructivist cognitive therapies. Journal of Counselling and Development, 69, 122-127.

Magnusson, K. C. (1996, January). Managing organizational change: An ethical approach. Keynote address at the National Consultation on Career Development, Ottawa, Ontario.

Mahoney, M. J. (1988). Constructive metatheory: I: Basic features and historical foundations. International Journal of Personal Construct Psychology, 1, 1-35.

Mahoney, M. J. (1991). Human change processes. New York: Basic.

Mahoney, M. J., & Patterson, K. M. (1992). Changing theories of change: Recent developments in counseling. In S. D. Brown, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Handbook of counseling psychology (2nd ed.) (pp. 665-689). New York: Wiley.

Martinez, M. N. (1997, May). Rewards given the right way. HR Magazine, pp. 109-116.

McLagan, P. (1996, January). Great ideas revisited. Training & Development, pp. 60-65.

Meyer, J. P., Paunonen, S. V., Gellatly, I. R., Goffin, R. D., & Jackson, D. N. (1989). Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of commitment that counts. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 152-156.

Miles, R. E., & Snow, C. C. (1991). Fit, failure and the hall of fame. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), Psychological dimensions of organizational behavior (pp. 632-645). New York: Macmillan.

Miller-Tiedeman, A. (1988). LifeCareer: How it can benefit you. Vista, CA: LifeCareer Foundation.

Miller-Tiedeman, A., & Tiedeman, D. V. (1990). Career decision making: An individualistic perspective. In D. Brown, & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development (2nd ed.) (pp. 308-337). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mintzberg, H. (1994, January/February). The fall and rise of strategic planning. Harvard Business Review, pp. 107-114.

Mirus, R., & Smith, R. (1994, Summer). Canada's underground economy. Canadian Business Review, pp. 26-29.

Mitchell, L. K., & Krumboltz, D. J. (1990). Social learning approach to career decision making: Krumboltz's theory. In D. Brown, & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development (2nd ed.) (pp. 145-196). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Morgan, C., Bennis, W., Mason, R. O., & Mitroff, I. I. (1988). Riding the waves of change: Developing managerial competencies for a turbulent world. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.



Morgan, M. A., Hall, D. T., & Martier, A. (1979). Career development strategies in industry: Where are we and where should we be? Personnel, 56(2), 13-30.

Naisbitt, J., & Aburdene, P. (1990). Megatrends 2000. New York: Warner.

Niven, R. (1997, April). Become valuable and survive the purges. HR Today: The Canadian Journal of Workplace Issues, Plans and Strategies, p. 29.

Osipow, S. H. (1983). Theories of career development (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Peavy, V. R. (1992). A constructivist model of training for career counselors. Journal of Career Development, 18(3), 215-227.

Peavy, V. R. (1994). Constructivist career counselling: A participant guide. Victoria, BC: Pacific Institute for Counsellor Development.

Peavy, V. R., & Gray, B. (1992). Constructivist perspectives on career counselling: A complete learning package. Victoria, BC: Division of Continuing Studies/Faculty of Education, University of Victoria.

Pfeffer, J. (1994, Winter). Competitive advantage through people. California Management Review, pp. 9-28.

Phillips, D. C. (1995). The good, the bad, and the ugly: The many faces of constructivism. Educational Researcher, 24(7), 5-12.

Pinto, P. R., & Walker, J. W. (1978). What do training and development professionals really do? Training and Development Journal, 32(7), 58-64.

Plas, J. M. (1996). Person-centered leadership: An American approach to participatory management. London: Sage.

Portwood, J. D., & Granrose, C. S. (1986). Organizational career management programs: What's available? What's effective? Human Resources Planning, 9(3), 107-119.

Prahalad, C. K., & Hamel, G. (1990, May/June). The core competence of the corporation. Harvard Business Review, pp. 79-91.

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., & McGrath, M. R. (1996). Becoming a master manager: A competency framework (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Savickas, M. L. (1993). Career counseling in the postmodern era. Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy: An International Quarterly, 7(3), 205-215.

Savickas, M. L. (1994). Convergence prompts theory renovation, research unification, and practice coherence. In M. L. Savikas, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Convergence in career development theories: Implications for science and practice (pp. 235-258). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Schein, E. H. (1978). Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Schein, E. H. (1986). A critical look at current career development theory and research. In Hall, D. T. & Associates (Eds.), Career development in organizations (pp. 310-331). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. (1996). Career anchors revised: Implication for career development in the 21st century. Academy of Management Executive, 00(0), 80-88.

Schmidt, S. (1990). Career development programs in business and industry. Journal of Employment Counseling, 27(2), 76-83.

Schuler, R. S., & Walker, J. W. (1994, May). Human resources strategy: Focusing on issues and actions. Organizational Dynamics, pp. 5-19.

Senge, P. M. (1990). The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization. New York: Doubleday.

Senge, P. M., Roberts, C., Ross, R. B., Smith, B. J., & Kleiner, A. (1994). The fifth discipline fieldbook: Strategies and tools for building a learning organization. New York: Doubleday.

Seybolt, J. W. (1979). Career development: The state of the art among the grassroots. Training and Development Journal, 33(4), 16-20.

Sharf, R. S. (1992). Applying career development theory to counselling. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Shillaber, J. B. (1990). Making people development meet strategic needs: A case study. In M. London, E. S. Bassman, & J. P. Fernandez (Eds.), Human resource forecasting and strategy development: Guidelines for

analyzing and fulfilling organizational needs (pp. 167-175). New York: Quorum.

Souque, J. P. (1996, November). Focus on competencies: Training and development practices, expenditures and trends. Ottawa: Conference Board of Canada.

Stalk, G., Evans, P., & Shulman, L. E. (1992, March/April). Competing on capabilities: The new rules of corporate strategy. Harvard Business Review, pp. 57-69.

Stone, T. H., & Meltz, N. M. (1993). Human resource management in Canada (3rd ed.). Toronto: Dryden.

Super, D. (1990). A life-span, life space approach to career development. In D. Brown, & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development (2nd ed.) (pp. 197-261). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Super, D. (1992). Toward a comprehensive theory of career development. In D. Montross, & C. Shinkman (Eds.), Career development: Theory and practice (pp. 35-64). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Thompson, J. L. (1990). Strategic management: Awareness and change. London: Chapman & Hall.

Tiedeman, D. V., & O'Hara, R. P. (1963). Career development: Choice and adjustment. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Tyler, K. (1997, June). Prepare managers to become career coaches. HR Magazine, pp. 98-101.

U.S. Department of Labor (1979). Guide to the use of the General Aptitude Test Battery: Section II: Norms: Occupational aptitude pattern structure. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

von Bertalanffy, L. (1968). General systems theory: Foundations, development, applications. New York: George Braziller.

Vondracek, F. W., & Fouad, N. A. (1994). Developmental contextualism: An integrative framework for theory and practice. In M. L. Savikas, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), Convergence in career development theories: Implications for science and practice (pp. 207-214). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Von Glaserfeld, E. (1989). Cognition, construction of knowledge and teaching. Synthese, 80, 121-140.

Walker, J. W., & Gutteridge, T. G. (1979). Career planning practices: An AMA survey report. New York: American Management Association.

Weinrach, S. G. (1979). Career counseling: Practical and theoretical perspectives. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Weinrach, S. G., & Srebalus, D. J. (1990). Holland's theory of careers. In D. Brown, & L. Brooks (Eds.), Career choice and development (2nd ed.) (pp. 37-67). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Weiss, D. J., England, M. E., Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center.

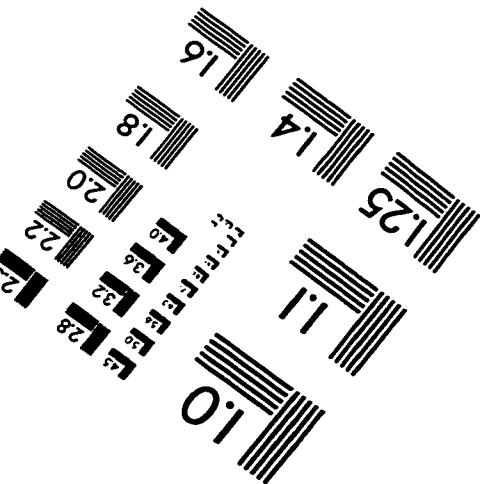
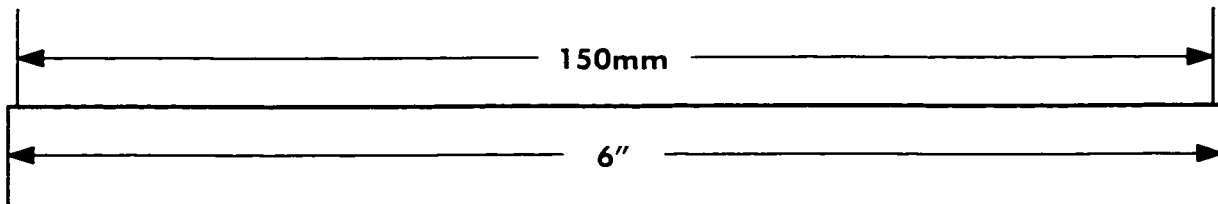
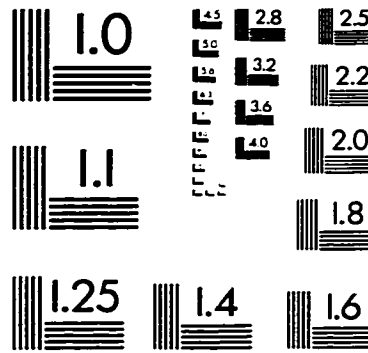
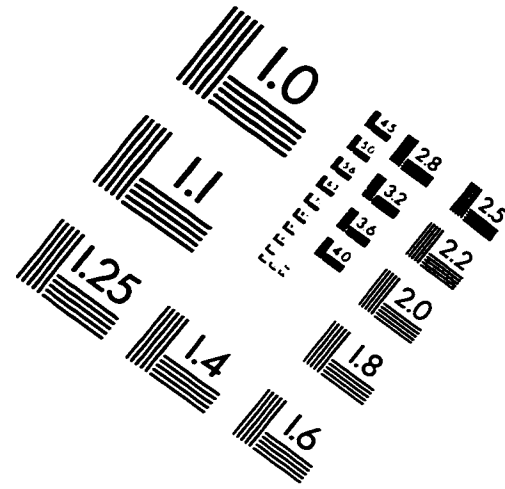
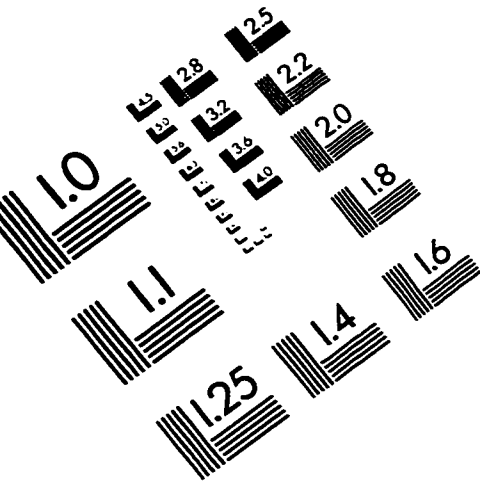
Wilson, M. C. (1994). Human resource systems and sustained competitive advantage: A competency-based perspective. Academy of Management Review, 19(4), 699-727.

Wowk, R., Williams, D., & Halstead, G. (1983). Do formal career development programs really increase employee participation? Training and Development Journal, 37(9), 82-83.

Young, R. A. (1984). Toward an ecology of career development. Canadian Counsellor, 18(4), 152-159.

Zunker, V. G. (1994). Career counseling: Applied concepts of life planning (4th ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

# IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



APPLIED IMAGE, Inc.  
1653 East Main Street  
Rochester, NY 14609 USA  
Phone: 716/482-0300  
Fax: 716/288-5989

© 1993, Applied Image, Inc., All Rights Reserved

