

Raelin, Joseph A.

Article — Manuscript Version (Preprint)

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Journal of Occupational Psychology

Suggested Citation: Raelin, Joseph A. (1985) : Work patterns in the professional life-cycle, Journal of Occupational Psychology, ISSN 2044-8325, Wiley, Hoboken, NJ, Vol. 58, Iss. 3, pp. 177-187, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1985.tb00193.x> , <https://bpspsychub.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1985.tb00193.x>

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Work Patterns in the Professional Life Cycle

By

Joseph A. Raelin
Associate Professor
School of Management

Boston College
Chestnut Hill, MA 02167

1984 Spring/Summer Address:
294 Nehoiden Street
Needham, MA 02192

DRAFT MANUSCRIPT UNDER PUBLICATION REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

A discriminant analysis was performed on a sample (n=114) of salaried professionals to distinguish work patterns among three age groups corresponding to early, middle, and late career stages. Three distinct profiles were generated by the two significant discriminant functions which emerged. The three career stage groups were given identifying labels: "finding a niche," "digging in," and "entrenching." The findings support a life cycle hypothesis of aging and work patterns, although there is some substantiation for the cohort and aging hypotheses in the literature. Scenarios for each of the three career stages are provided along with implications for improving the management of age-specific professional human resources.

* Portions of this paper were presented at the 44th Annual National Meeting of the Academy of Management, Boston, August 12-15, 1984

Work Patterns in the Professional Life Cycle

Organizational and industrial psychologists have been fascinated for well over three decades with the subject of the changing work patterns of employees as they age. The major contention of their research was that older workers tend to become more satisfied with their job, have a better attendance record and less turnover, and identify themselves more strongly with management and its policies (Raelin, 1980: 19-20). Of all the work characteristics examined, none received as much attention as job satisfaction. Ever since the discovery by Herzberg and his colleagues (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell, 1957) of the U-shaped relationship between employee age, tenure, and job satisfaction, there has been no let-up in the pursuit of the true nature of the relationship between age, tenure, and job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1957) found satisfaction to decline in the late twenties and thirties and then to subsequently rise. Most evidence, however, has disputed Herzberg et al.'s curvilinear findings for age. Saleh and Otis (1964), Hulin and Smith (1965), Altimus and Tersine (1973), and Hunt and Saul (1975) reported the relationship to be positively linear from the start, while Gibson and Klein (1970), though agreeing that the relationship between job satisfaction and age was positively linear, found a negatively linear relationship between job satisfaction and tenure. Meanwhile, Ronen (1978) found the relationship between tenure and satisfaction to be curvilinear.

As researchers began to dissect job satisfaction into its facets, there seemed to be concurrence around one central notion: that the higher order needs of self-esteem and self-actualization are critical to youth and become

less critical as one ages (Altimus and Tersine, 1973; Gibson and Klein, 1970; Hall and Mansfield, 1975; Janson and Martin, 1982; Kaplan, 1979; Sheppard and Herrick, 1972). This finding runs counter to Maslow's original projection (cited in Hall and Nougaim, 1968) which saw a positive relationship between age and steady movement through the hierarchy. Although older workers may not be interested in work, then, to meet self-esteem or self-actualization needs - a condition which in turn may be related to physiological and psychological changes (Kuhlen, 1977; Troyer, Eisdorfer, Bogdonoff, and Wilkie, 1967) - this still does not presume that they have no interest in work for its own sake. A distinction can be made, in the case of older workers therefore, between intrinsic job satisfaction and higher-order need strength. In fact, intrinsic work satisfaction has been found to increase with age (Bourne, 1982; Cohn, 1979; Ronen, 1978; Saleh and Otis, 1964). Older professionals have been found to be particularly interested in intrinsic work opportunities which, when satisfied, tend to reduce their interest in retirement (Mannheim and Rein, 1981). Of course, it is equally logical that an intrinsically satisfied older worker may wish to retire in order to pursue other life interests (George, 1980: 59-60).

Besides being more intrinsically satisfied with their work, older workers tend to be more involved with their work (Hall and Mansfield, 1975), take greater pride in their craftsmanship (Cherrington, Condie, and England, 1979; Susman, 1973), are less inclined to leave their organization (Mobley, 1982), are much more accommodative to the purposes and procedures of their organization (Raelin, 1984), and, finally, are generally more happy with life (Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978; Sheppard and Herrick, 1972). In spite of these rather straightforward conclusions, questions still abound regarding the changing work patterns of employees as they age. As stated earlier, most of the research has focused on attitudes, job and need satisfaction in particular. Indeed, there has been a potential over-reliance on two popular and widely accepted instruments, the Job Description Index (JDI) and Porter's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (Porter, 1961). Most

of the studies, furthermore, have been correlational in nature, which discounts the contribution to an explanatory framework provided by moderating internal factors, such as personal characteristics, job properties, and organizational policies (Raelin, 1984; Van Maanen and Katz, 1976), or by moderating external factors, such as outside job opportunities, cultural norms, and general economic conditions. Many of the studies, too, have merged occupations or dichotomized on the basis of gross categories, such as blue-collar and white-collar, the result of which may have distorted clear occupational differences.

Another open question in the age/work patterns literature concerns the explanation for the overall trend towards greater work satisfaction as one ages. There are three hypotheses that have been discussed in the literature, primarily in a notable study by Wright and Hamilton (1978). One is referred to as the "cohort" hypothesis, which is generational in character. According to this hypothesis, specific historical experiences affect worker cohorts in unique ways. Our older workers today are products of the depression, whereas the young to middle-age workers are offspring of the youth revolt of the 1960s which featured such new values as the willingness to question authority, the rejection of material standards, and the demand for fulfillment and enrichment in work (Wright and Hamilton, 1978: 1142-1143).

The second hypothesis is referred to as the "aging" hypothesis which suggests that as people age, they become satisfied with less because they expect less. Due to their socialization and training experiences, older workers develop stronger work values and come to appreciate the realities of their current job and organization (Cherrington, Condie, and England, 1979; Hulin and Smith, 1965). They realize further that their upward mobility is potentially limited

by the hierarchical nature of the organization (Argyris, 1957; Shapiro and Sodano, 1974). The pessimistic side of the "aging" hypothesis is that it suggests a "grinding down" of aspirations to more realistic and "acceptable" standards (Wright and Hamilton, 1978).

The final hypothesis is known as the "life cycle" hypothesis which presumes that workers go through different experiences in their work setting depending upon the stage of their development. Each stage contains developmental tasks that must be mastered if the individual is to move on to the next stage. Although family status, occupation, sex, personality, and cultural traits affect one's stage of development, age is the most familiar predictor of life cycle activation (Erikson, 1975; Gould, 1978; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee, 1978). Accordingly, youth in their early career, without the strain of family responsibilities, may search for jobs which provide sufficient income to meet short-term needs but which provide a fast-track to advancement. Meanwhile, as they accumulate experience and assume more responsible societal roles, they continue to advance in their career. Ultimately, as they age, they simply end up in the better jobs which accounts for their increased satisfaction (Ronen, 1978; Wright and Hamilton, 1978).

Direct tests of the three hypotheses have produced inconclusive results (Cherrington, Condie, and England, 1979; Janson and Martin, 1982; Wright and Hamilton, 1978). This study will explicitly examine the life cycle hypothesis, although its multivariate nature will allow mutual inspection of some of the variables in the two competing hypotheses. Its focus will be on salaried professionals, i.e. engineers, scientists, lawyers, and accountants, who are not self-employed. It will also incorporate multiple conditions of work as well as a wide variety of personal characteristics in order to discriminate whatever differences in work patterns may exist among the professional sample throughout

the life cycle.

Prior Models of Professional Life Cycle

Douglas T. Hall and Gene W. Dalton have made major contributions to the developmental career processes of professionals. In analyzing their sample of 550 salaried professionals, Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1980) found four distinct stages that successful professional employees pass through in terms of the tasks expected, types of relationships engaged in, and psychological adjustments made. In Stage 1, as an apprentice, the young professional "learns the ropes" through the help of one or more mentors, shows some initiative, and helps the superior achieve his or her work goals. In Stage 2, as a specialist, the professional demonstrates competence as an individual contributor. Coming about as an outgrowth of success as a specialist, the mentor, in Stage 3, broadens his or her area of expertise, collaborates effectively with peers to get things done, and spurs the development of younger professionals. Finally, the sponsor, in Stage 4, becomes a virtual force shaping the direction of his or her organization by interfacing with critical actors in the environment, by developing new ideas, products, or services, or by directing the resources of the organization.

In their examination of career variables, such as need satisfaction, job involvement, organizational climate, self-image, and performance, among professionals, Hall and Mansfield (1975) found support for three career stages somewhat approximating the general stages of work postulated by Super (1957). In the early trial stage, they found young professionals to have low seniority, low job involvement, low intrinsic motivation, low need for security, and high need for self-fulfillment. During the middle stabilization stage, professionals begin to settle down and focus on achievement. At this point, they become more

job involved and intrinsically motivated and have a high need for self-fulfillment. The challenge of their assignments is also increased. At the late maintenance stage, they become more concerned with security, i.e., holding onto their job. They are also less concerned with self-fulfillment, more involved than ever with the job, and very intrinsically motivated. Hall (1976) subsequently included two alternate avenues of development in the maintenance stage: growth, representing an increase in performance, and stagnation or "plateauing," representing a decrease in performance.

METHOD

The data used in this study were collected anonymously from individuals whose resumes were on file with an executive search firm. Since files were kept according to occupational category, the researcher was able to weed out professionals from non-professionals. The following occupations were included: engineers, financial professionals, lawyers, chemists, and other scientists. The sample was then attenuated slightly by including only individuals who had minimal supervisory responsibility (supervising less than 10 others). This procedure was used to distinguish this sample of professionals from management.

A total of 403 individuals were identified. Each was sent a questionnaire along with a letter of purpose which included instructions for insuring complete anonymity of response. The letter was straightforward in pointing out that some of the questions would be sensitive, but that given the anonymous administration of the questionnaire, answers could not have any bearing on the firm's evaluation of the respondent's qualifications as a job candidate.

From the original 403 letters sent out, 15 questionnaires were sent back due to changed address. Of the 388 remaining, 128 were returned, representing

a 33% response rate. Thirteen cases were subsequently rejected due to:

1) the individual could no longer be classified as a professional on the basis of title or no. supervised, or 2) the questionnaire was returned substantially uncompleted. The usable cases thus numbered 115.

Sample

Respondents were homogeneous on race and sex, 96% being white males. They were well-educated, 53% having a Master's, and 26% a doctorate. Ages ranged from 25 to 68 years; the mean age was 42. The average salary was \$47,000, but respondents indicated a median desired salary in ten years of \$90,000. More than half the sample had a working spouse. The average time of employment was five years and the median two years, and the average employer size was 37,000 employees, the median being, however, only 5000. Respondents worked on average a 47-hour week and of the 75% who had supervisory responsibility, they supervised seven others, not including secretaries and interns. Nearly half of the sample worked in manufacturing, a quarter were in services, and one-seventh were in the finance, real estate, or insurance industries. Of the professional occupations represented, 50% were engineers of all types, 28% were financial professionals, such as accountants or auditors, 13% were lawyers, and 9% were different types of scientists. Finally, 75% were members of some kind of professional society or association, 50% held a professional license of some kind, 37% attended at least one professional meeting a year, and respondents read an average of four professional journals regularly, although the mode was two.

Although the sample is homogeneous on race, sex, and education, and is cross-sectional, it offers five interesting features which are thought to be important to life cycle research: 1) the respondents have a wide age distribution,

2) they have diverse socioeconomic backgrounds, 3) they represent different professions, 4) they come from many geographical areas, and 5) they are associated with different organizations and industries. That the respondents chose to consult an executive search firm suggests that they are potentially more mobile than the average professional. Yet, such individuals are expected to experience similar career concerns at different life stages, although they might face more socialization experiences. The executive officers of the firm from whom the sample was drawn noted that these individuals differed from other professionals only to the extent that they might be more intentional and organized in their career search.

Measures

The questionnaire mailed to respondents was designed to capture a wide variety of characteristics associated with the respondents' work and career. In order to avoid the use of single indicators, the questionnaire contained a number of common items. In all cases, except for demographic information, the questions were constructed to fit into Likert 7 or 9-point scales.

The data were consolidated through the use of factor analysis. Factor extraction was effected by principal factoring with iteration, and clustering was interpreted through Varimax rotation. Composite scales were constructed using factor score coefficients as a weighting device. These scales were created only if they could pass the reliability criterion set for this study as an Alpha coefficient of at least .75. Scales not meeting this criterion were discarded, in which case, single indicators were chosen. Other measures were eliminated where they were found to load on two or more factors. The measures were also assessed for multicollinearities and inter-scale correlations. Finally, three scales, measuring deviancy or behaviors considered non-accommodative to the workplace, to one's self, or to one's profession, were constructed using scalogram analysis.

The study's measures are listed below, including the components of the composite scales:

Individual Characteristics:

SES (socioeconomic status, a standardized composite of R's head of household's occupation and education),
 education, household members, spouse working,
 aspirations (difference between salary currently earning and salary desired in 10 years),
 achievement motivation (difference between hours currently worked and hours desire to work),
 occupation, time employed, professional membership, papers published,
 internal-external locus of control, self-esteem, professional commitment, professional identification,
 professional role conflict (composite of professional conflicts regarding autonomy desired and allowed, regarding standards of evaluation, regarding use of one's expertise in the organization, and regarding the opportunity to make a contribution to society)

Individual Behavior:

workplace deviancy (Guttman scale cumulating demand for freedom from procedures, engaging in bootlegging practices, "busyness," working-to-rule, absenteeism, and unethical practices)
 personal deviancy (Guttman scale cumulating maintenance of outside interests beyond work, burnout, boredom, apathy, alienation, use of rationalization, and the flaunting of external offers)
 professional deviancy (Guttman scale cumulating demand for more authority, demand for professional privileges, predominance of

professional allegiance, emphasis on external evaluation of performance, and premature external search)

Organizational Characteristics:

size of employer, size of work group, industry of employer, organizational rules and regulations, professionally-oriented management, participative management (composite of management's encouragement of use of own initiative in performing one's job and freedom to question management), personalness of organization (composite of workers and outsiders treated as "people" and advancement through knowledge rather than politics)

Job Characteristics:

hours worked, number supervised, salary, task identification, friendly associates, job involvement, enriched work conditions (composite of multiple measures of job variety and job challenge, organizational identification, and organizational performance orientation)

Mobility Characteristics:

interest in alternative job, internal job opportunity, external job opportunity

Interactions: (after testing for multicollinearity)

between - enriched work conditions and interest in alternative job, enriched work conditions and organizational rules and regulations, number supervised and professional commitment

Performance measures, initially included in the questionnaire, were dropped after the pre-test due to the suspected unreliability of self-ratings.

Analysis

The principal statistical technique used in this study was discriminant analysis which is a multivariate procedure which can distinguish groups of cases. Essentially, it mathematically combines independent variables so as to isolate as distinctly as possible the categories of a discrete dependent variable. In the instance of this study, it was determined that there would be three age categories corresponding to early, middle, and late professional career stages. These stages are consistent with Hall and Mansfield's recommendation (1975) that when considering the natural developmental career stages of professionals, a 3-stage categorization would discriminate better than decade groupings. The age ranges chosen were also consistent with Hall and Mansfield's (1975) and Super's (1957) career stages. The early career stage constituted individuals between the ages of 25-34, the middle between 35-44, and late between 45-65. One individual, who was 68, was excluded from the analysis.

Since there were three dependent variable categories, two possible discriminant functions could have been created, which in fact occurred. Each function contains a linear combination of discriminating variables which are assigned coefficients. The discriminant coefficients, comparable to usage under multiple regression can be interpreted as weights indicating relative contribution to the discrimination of the function. Further, their sign identifies whether the discriminating variable makes a positive or negative contribution to the function.

Also common to regression techniques, the inclusion of variables can be controlled according to pre-set parameters. In this study, a partial multivariate F ratio was used to both select and remove variables included in the ultimate set of discriminating factors. Discriminant analysis provides usable statistics to judge the adequacy of the discriminant function. The canonical correlation is

a measure of association between each discriminant function and its accompanying variables. The canonical correlation squared may be interpreted as the proportion of variance in the discriminant function explained by the groups. Wilks' lambda is an inverse measure of the discriminating power in the original variables which has not yet been removed by the discriminant functions. Finally, discriminant analysis also provides a classification technique which permits a cataloguing of the original set of cases according to how many were correctly grouped by the variables under consideration.

Since the computer package used for analysis, the well-known SPSS (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975), called for a listwise deletion procedure, in order to preserve the full set of cases for analysis, mean replacement was used for the missing values. Although mean replacement is a conservative estimate, it is not expected to modify the results in this study since each variable had only an average of between 2-4 missing cases. The final frequency distribution of the three age categories was 29 respondents for the early group, 43 for the middle, and 42 for the late.

RESULTS

The results of the discriminant analysis are shown in Table 1. Two highly significant functions are produced which, upon inspection of separate discriminant analyses for all three pairs of age categories, represent composite relationships for two of the three age groups. The first function isolates the early age group, comparing it to the other two. The second function isolates the middle group and compares it to the others. The second function is not as strong as the first. The classification results confirm the overall strength of both functions as explanations of the age categories, but also the relatively greater strength

 Insert Table 1 about here

of the first function (see Table 2). Overall, 77% of the total cases are correctly classified by both functions. The greatest degree of accuracy is in classifying the early group in which 86% of the 29 cases are correctly classified.

Insert Table 2 about here

To aid in the explanation of the findings, one-way analyses of variance were performed on each of the discriminating variables (see Table 3). Devoid of simultaneity, the results of a one-way ANOVA may not be always consistent with a multivariate technique such as discriminant analysis since in the case of the latter: 1) each variable's contribution to discrimination is the unique, incremental portion unexplained by other variables, and 2) the discriminant coefficients reflect the function's attempt to isolate in an extreme fashion the three different age categories. Nevertheless, in this instance, the pattern taken by the variables over the three age groups is well illustrated using a straightforward comparison of means and is compatible with the discriminant analysis.

Insert Table 3 about here

The existence of two strong discriminant functions lends immediate credence to the life cycle hypothesis as an explanation of the growing satisfaction of older people. This study did not measure satisfaction per se. The nearest variable is job involvement which is found to be curvilinear, although the later group clearly is the most job involved. Three very distinct stages of professional career development emerge from the data. Beyond the life cycle hypothesis, there are clues which also support parts of the other two hypotheses (cohort and aging). These will be elaborated upon in the following discussion.

Considering, first, the individual characteristics, self-esteem is at the highest level among the young professionals. However, contrary to gerontological studies associating lower self-esteem with increasing age (Bourne, 1982), among professionals, it is the middle group which suffers the greatest decrement in self-esteem. This is consistent with the finding that personal deviancy is a critical discriminating factor among this middle career group. The personal deviancy scale incorporates such behaviors as burnout, apathy, and alienation, all of which are commonly associated with reduced self-esteem (Raelin, 1984).

The early career stage group, although also exhibiting personal deviancy, are more prone to workplace deviancy, such as demanding freedom from bureaucratic procedures, engaging in bootlegging practices - i.e., performing non-contractual work to benefit oneself rather than the company - or becoming truant. Either the cohort or aging hypotheses might explain this phenomenon. The early group professionals are at an age corresponding to the rebellious 60s cohort who might have transferred their defiance of authority to the workplace. Indeed, they are least likely to have become socialized to the norms and practices of their organization.

Three other findings among the individual characteristics variables also support the cohort hypothesis, on one hand, and the aging hypothesis on the other. The young professionals come from higher socioeconomic backgrounds. It is well known that the activist segment of the 60s cohort were middle to upper class in background rather than blue-collar. It is possible that this same group infiltrated the ranks of salaried professionals when they decided to flow into the mainstream of society, keeping their values, nevertheless, intact.

The older group, meanwhile, have lowered aspirations and professional commitment, consistent with the aging hypotheses. Combining these findings

with their relatively high job involvement, especially compared to the middle group, it is quite possible that they have become satisfied with less.

Further, the finding that they rate the personalness of their organization lower than the other two groups suggests a heightened awareness of bureaucratic procedures and politics, the result of which, consistent with Argyris (1957) and Hall and Mansfield (1975), might lead to disinterest in higher order needs.

One of the remaining individual characteristics plus a number of the work characteristics associated with job and organization provide a good sense of the career stage typifying the middle period. The strongest discriminating variable in the second function is the interaction variable between professional commitment and number supervised. During the middle career stage, professionals simply do not want their professionalism compromised by supervisory responsibilities which, according to an unreported finding, tends to be heavier during this period. Even greater insight into the work environment preferred during this stage is revealed in the respondents' perception of personalness within their organization; that is, their being treated as "people" not as "numbers," and their being respected for their knowledge rather than their rank. They also report practicing their profession in small friendly work groups but putting in a relatively large amount of working hours. They are well-paid, and they also believe themselves to be mobile at this stage in the sense of their being able to find attractive alternative jobs outside their own organization. This contrasts with the older workers who, it may be hypothesized, out of a need for security, as a realistic perception of their more limited skills, or simply as a product of aging with its less aggressive stance toward career mobility, foresee limited external job opportunities.

Looking at the work characteristics of the young age group, the dis-

criminating variables display a perception of an intrinsic as opposed to an extrinsic environment. Salaries are relatively low and respondents do not report having particularly friendly associates with whom to work. Yet, there is a strong perception that their management is both professionally-oriented and participative. It cannot be determined with the data here whether this latter perception is accurate or coveted, but these ratings do appear to wane through the aging process. Another indication of the younger age group's interest in intrinsic environments is displayed in the finding that when faced with poor work conditions, as defined by enrichment criteria, these youth become determined to find an alternative job.

Some of the non-findings are as of much interest as the significant findings. There are no statistically significant differences among the three age categories on occupation and industry, achievement, enrichment, and professional participation and behavior. Although equally insignificant, mainly due to the very high variance in the variable, the direction of the professional role conflict variable suggests that conflict is most experienced by the later group and least by the middle group.

DISCUSSION

It is apparent that three distinct career stages have emerged from the findings, thus supporting a life cycle hypothesis to explain the work patterns of salaried professionals, in a similar way as was reported by Hall and Mansfield (1975). Yet, elements of both the cohort and aging hypotheses are incorporated within these patterns. At the risk of over-simplifying, a summary of each stage is presented below in the form of a scenario based upon the findings. Each stage is given an identifying label: the early stage is referred to as

"finding a niche," the middle as "digging in," and the late as "entrenching."

Finding A Niche

During this early stage of their career, young professionals search to find a job which will give them challenge and variety and an organization with which they can identify. They are willing to forego a high salary for these intrinsic benefits. If things don't work out, they either will go elsewhere, or, given their newfound confidence in dealing with authority figures, will behave in a non-accommodative manner in the workplace, such as by continually demanding freedom from bureaucratic constraints, or if still dissatisfied, by working to rule. They are most interested in management which is personal, professional, and participative.

Digging In

Professionals at this stage place a high stake on professionalism, particularly in their not wanting to be bothered by supervisory authority. They are committed to their work, put in long hours, and are at the peak of their skills. They seek environments which are characterized by small work groups, collegiality, and high pay. This attachment to work has its costs in terms of self-esteem and personal deviancy, such as in the likelihood of burnout and alienation.

Entrenching

By this point, professionals have lowered their aspirations and professional commitment. Since they are still very involved in their jobs, they are somewhat ambivalent or conflicted about their loss of professionalism, but they have begun to accept the realities and politics of bureaucratic life. They realize, for example, that management isn't as interested in their opinions as they once may have been. Although

their job may not pay as much as they feel they deserve, they don't consider it likely that they will find a job elsewhere due to any number of internal and external circumstances.

Just as in Dickens' "A Christmas Carol," the scenarios present patterns as they are, not as they might be. What can professionals and their management do to accentuate the positives and reverse the negatives?

The first conclusion to be drawn is that professionals become aware of the likelihood of undergoing life cycle changes. Similarly, management needs to be aware of the differing patterns characterizing their employees at different life stages. Human resource planning should incorporate the age dimension to the extent that it is important to have a workforce representing the different career stages with their accompanying strengths. In particular, it is extremely useful to have a workforce constituted of younger professionals, who are finding a niche, for the benefit of their drive and energy, of middle-age professionals, who are digging in, for their talent, and of older entrenching professionals for their stability.

Specific policies addressed to each of the three career stages are discussed below. Starting with the "finding a niche" group, managers should be alert to their potential mobility by, on one hand, letting them get involved in short-term, high payoff, projects, and on the other, trying to ensure that those who are proficient find a niche with them. These young professionals clearly want to be treated as professionals, so the way to retain them is to get them involved in decision making and work with them on a personal basis. If things aren't working out, particularly after repeated attempts to accommodate, it may be best to terminate, especially if they begin to resort to workplace deviancy of one kind or another.

The "digging in" group appear to be a different breed. They are willing

to make a commitment provided they be allowed the autonomy to practice their professional skills without the distraction of supervisory responsibility. Hence, the necessary task of supervision should not be assigned in an indiscriminant fashion. These professionals also like to work in small groups with friendly associates. However, they are subject to burnout or other forms of alienation. Both they themselves and their managers need to monitor this proclivity. One way is to make sure they do not perceive themselves as being overworked. Another way is to insure their continuing involvement in projects making use of their updated professional skills.

The "entrenching" group perhaps needs the most attention of all. They maintain a high level of involvement in their work but seem to have lost their aspirations and professional commitment, perhaps due to aging, to obsolescence, or even to organizational responsibilities which have passed them by. It is difficult to make a simple recommendation in their case since their predicament is tied up with organizational aging policies and attitudes which may need complete adaptation. However, Dalton et al.'s framework (1980) may be telling. By this stage of development, their effectiveness is oftentimes contingent on their having assumed mentor and/or sponsor roles. Their savvy of organizational practices, their years of experience, their loyalty and stability, such factors as these make them ideal as mentors of younger professionals. Management should encourage these relationships to form, whether it be on a formal or informal basis, for those so inclined. The opportunity to give of their experience might be the key that makes the difference between opening and closing the door of fulfillment for these entrenching professionals.

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TABLE 1

Discriminant Analysis of Three Age Groups of Professionals
On Personal, Work, and Other Career Variables (N=114)

Function 1 (Early Isolated)			Function 2 (Middle Isolated)		
Category	Variable	Coefficient (>.28 or <-.28)	Category	Variable	Coefficient (>.28 or <-.28)
Individual Characteris- tics	Social Class	.498	Individual Characteris- tics	Impact on Pro- fessionalism of Supervisory Responsibility	-.661
	Self-Esteem	.429		Professional Commitment	.395
				Aspirations	.321
Individual Behavior	Workplace Deviancy	.413	Individual Behavior	Personal Deviancy	.652
Organizational Characteris- tics	Professionally- oriented Management	.453	Organizational Characteris- tics	Personalness of Organi- zation	.284
	Participative Management	.407			
Job Charac- teristics	Salary	-.775	Job Charac- teristics	Size of Work Group	-.475
	Friendly Associates	-.511		Job Involvement	-.446
				Working Hours	.349
Mobility Characteris- tics	Interest in Alternative Job If Poor Work Conditions	.477	Mobility Characteris- tics	External Job Opportunity	.481
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Statistics	Canonical Cor- relation	.739	Statistics	Canonical Cor- relation	.617
	Canonical Cor- relation squared	.546		Canonical Cor- relation squared	.381
	Wilks' Lambda	.281		Wilks' Lambda	.619
	Chi-Square	129.590		Chi-Square	48.963
	Significance	.001		Significance	.001

TABLE 2

Classification Results of the Two Discriminant Functions

Actual Group	N	Predicted Group Membership		
		Early	Middle	Late
Early	29	25 (86.2%)	0 (0%)	4 (13.8%)
Middle	43	1 (2.3%)	34 (79.1%)	8 (18.6%)
Late	42	5 (11.9%)	8 (19.0%)	29 (69.0%)

Percent of Total Grouped Cases Correctly Classified: 77.19%

TABLE 3

One-Way Analyses of Variance of the Variable Set
Broken Down By Age

Variable Set	T h r e e A g e G r o u p s						Between- Groups	Curvi- linear
	early		middle		late			
	(N=29)		(N=43)		(N=42)			
	<u>\bar{x}</u>	<u>s.d.</u>	<u>\bar{x}</u>	<u>s.d.</u>	<u>\bar{x}</u>	<u>s.d.</u>	<u>F^a</u>	<u>F^b</u>
Social Class	.77	1.5	-.26	1.8	-.29	1.8	3.9*	2.2
Self- Esteem	6.9	.26	6.7	.63	6.9	.33	2.2	4.4*
Aspirations	79	95	70	49	42	34	3.9*	.6
Impact on Professionalism of Supervisory Responsibility	6.8	3.1	5.9	2.1	6.8	3.5	1.3	2.6
Professional Commitment	5.4	1.6	5.2	1.4	5.1	1.6	.4	.0
Interest in Alternative Job if Poor Work Conditions	164	85	116	71	134	76	3.4*	4.9*
External Job Opportunity	3.8	2.0	3.6	2.1	2.4	1.6	6.7**	2.0
Friendly Associates	5.7	1.3	5.9	1.3	5.8	1.3	.2	.3
Professionally-oriented Management	6.0	1.2	5.1	2.2	5.2	1.7	2.8	1.9
Participative Management	.33	.52	-.08	.64	-.11	.67	5.0**	2.5
Job Involvement	3.5	1.7	3.0	1.6	3.9	2.2	2.4	3.9*
Personalness of Organ- ization	8.0	2.7	7.5	3.0	7.1	3.4	.6	.0
Salary	38	12	51	13	48	14	8.9**	10.8**
Size of Work Group	67	85	30	35	67	125	2.2	4.4*
Working Hours	47	5.8	49	8.8	45	7.1	2.9	3.7
Workplace Deviancy	3.4	.8	2.6	1.0	2.5	1.1	7.5**	3.0
Personal Deviancy	3.6	1.7	3.7	1.7	3.0	1.8	1.6	1.1

^aANOVA F ratio representing between-groups mean square/within-groups mean square

^bF ratio representing deviation from linearity sum of squares

* $P < .05$

** $P < .01$