INFLUENCES ON CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN AUSTRALIAN TOURISM

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DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis is my own work. It does not incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree in any university; and that to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person where due reference is not made in the text.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explored careers within Australian tourism with the aim of developing a model of influences on career development in the tourism industry. As tourism is still an emerging profession, careers have yet to be clearly defined and career paths are not easily identifiable. In addition, there is evidence to suggest that the industry is prone to high turnover, low retention rates, is often viewed as a low skilled industry and has difficulty attracting employees with a view to serious career development.

While some research into careers into hotel management is available, in depth career studies in the tourism industry have yet to emerge. This thesis addresses this gap in the literature and provides industry stakeholders with information to assist in human resource management and policy development.

The researcher drew finding from an electronic survey that was designed from information collected from an exploratory study conducted by the researcher, from literature available on both career development and research on the tourism industry, and from earlier research projects. This electronic survey was designed to collect primarily qualitative data and was disseminated to the Australian tourism industry.

Results from this study suggest that careers in the tourism industry are influenced by a variety of mentoring relationships. Both formal education and on-the-job training was found to be increasingly important for those wanting to advance in the industry and remaining mobile between jobs, between organisations, within industries and geographically was advantageous. A motivation to work in tourism and a “passion” for the industry was found to be a strong influence on career development in the current study.

This study should add to our understanding of careers in Australian tourism and, more specifically to our understanding of the role of formal education and on-the-job training in career development and the perceived value of such training. The current study reinforces previous knowledge of high levels of mobility within the tourism industry and suggests the need to change job, organisation, industry or geographical location is influential on career development in Australian tourism. In addition, the results suggest that although structured mentorship programs are currently unavailable to many in the tourism industry, mentorship in the form of informal and networking relationships assists career development.

While this thesis has contributed to our understanding of career development in the tourism industry, because of inevitable limitations with the sample obtain for this study, it would be useful to replicate this survey with other sectors of the tourism, to explore influences on careers in tourism in other countries, to investigate gender issues in the industry and to further explore the influences of education, mobility and mentorship.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

This thesis concerns the development and testing of a model of influences on career development in the Australian tourism industry. The model highlights the role of education, mobility and mentoring as key influences on the careers of those within the tourism industry. As tourism is a relatively new and emerging profession, and careers in tourism are yet to be clearly defined, little research is available to those currently employed in the industry and to those planning to embark on a career in tourism on how to best forge such careers. This research, therefore, is timely and important. Further, there is some evidence to suggest that the industry is prone to high turnover and low retention rates and difficulties in recruitment. This model of influences on career development is a necessary step in the effort to address some of these human resource management issues that are currently affecting the growth and professionalism of the tourism industry in Australia.

In a more global perspective, the employment environment has changed to take account of diverse career motivations of employees, changing organisational structures and changing family structures. It is useful to establish if careers in tourism in Australia are following these trends.

The model of influences on career development in Australian tourism was developed through the use of previous research and an exploratory study by the researcher. This model was then tested on an Australia-wide sample and based on the analysis and

comparison of the results, the model was amended as required. Although there are certain limitations to this study, the information collected should benefit all stakeholders in the Australian tourism industry by highlighting the role of education and its influence on tourism careers as well as the impact of mobility on these careers. Findings from the study suggest that a variety of mentoring relationships are vital in the development of tourism careers and emphasised the need for the industry to embrace mentorship programs on both an informal and formal level.

In-depth career studies in the tourism field are yet to emerge. At the same time, the tourism industry continues to be a major employer both in Australia and globally and tools, such as this model, are needed to assist human resource management and policy development.

In this first chapter the researcher provides both the background information to the research and the justification. Details of the research problem and the methodology used are also outlined in this chapter as well as relevant definitions, scope and key assumptions and an outline of the thesis.

1.1 Background to and justification of the research

Careers have been the subject of multidisciplinary research utilising psychology, sociology, and anthropology, as well as labour economics, organisational behaviour, management and communication. However, tourism, as a new and emerging profession, has received little attention, yet the tourism industry plays a significant role in Australia, directly employing 551,000 persons (Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources, 2005). On the international scene, according to the 2004

Tourism Satellite Accounts, travel and tourism is expected to generate $US5,490.4 billion of economic activity, represent 10.4% of the world's total GDP, and generate 214,697,000 jobs or 8.1% of total employment.

Despite this, careers in tourism are a relatively new phenomena (WTO, 2005). Although jobs in the tourism and hospitality industry have traditionally been plentiful, the concept of developing these jobs into careers is a moderately new trend. The relative youth of the Australian tourism industry has meant that career paths have only recently begun to be clearly defined or developed (Hall, 1998) and little research has been conducted on employment opportunities and careers in tourism in Australia. Previous research, however, suggests that many traits and characteristics of careers in tourism and hospitality lend themselves to variations on traditional career models (Ladkin and Riley, 1996).

Human resource concerns faced by the tourism and hospitality industries at both a practical and operational level were identified some time ago (Baum et al., 1997). These included a shrinking employment pool resulting in labour shortages and specific skill shortages. It was recognised that specific skills which tourism demands (technical, cultural, communications) may be in short supply.

In recognition of the impact of tourism on both the Australian and the global economy and the need for a skilled workforce, higher education institutions have introduced and developed tourism related courses nationally and internationally. In fact, over the last decade we have seen the introduction of tourism awards into most major Australian tertiary institutions. However, research (Goldsmith et al., 1997; Jameson,

2000; Price, 1994) indicates that despite the growth in tourism education, the tourism industry appears unable to retain the services of these graduates who remain in the industry for only a short period of time or never enter the industry at all. An increase in the provision of tourism education does not appear to have solved human resource issues such as high staff turnover, low pay, and casual work contracts.

Ritchie (1993) suggests that one key issue surrounding the continuing human resource issues is a lack of tourism sector consensus as to the need for sector-specific education provision. Choy (1995) however, argues that the negative employment image of the sector acts as a barrier to the recruitment and retention of quality and well educated employees. Despite Baum et al., (1997) arguing that these negative perceptions are not justified by the reality of work with major airlines, international hotel groups, theme parks or heritage organisations, and suggesting international tourism offers a high status and secure employment environment, the industry continues to be plagued by employment recruitment and retention concerns.

As mentioned, relatively few studies of employment in tourism are reported in the literature. However, several studies have focused on the career development of hotel management, a specialised sector in the tourism industry (Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000; Ladkin, 1999a; Ladkin and Riley, 1996; Baum et al., 1997; Hjalager and Andersen, 2001; Wood, 2003). Although these studies provide a useful platform on which to build further research, the findings of research on employment in the hotel industry are not necessarily representative of the tourism industry as a whole.

These studies do however, suggest that careers are often marked by high levels of mobility, a negative status perception, an uncertain career orientation, minimal career development programs, ad hoc education and training, and a weak employee award structure (Ladkin and Riley 1996; McKercher et al., 1995; Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000; Baum, et al., 1997; Pitcher and Purcell, 1997 in Sturges et al., 2000).

Much tourism research is concerned with establishing the size of the industry in employment terms. There are two problems with estimating the size of the industry: the first problem is defining the industry and the second problem is identifying which occupations belong to it. This is not an easy task as the boundaries are not clear. Hence most studies talk of 'related' occupations or 'indirect' jobs as well as those that are unambiguously tourism jobs (Riley et al., 2002). Although it is important politically to establish the economic value and status of the industry, studies of individual career related issues are needed if the industry is to ensure an on-going supply of skilled human resources. Diversity in the industry does, however, need to be acknowledged and if we are to address human resource issues in tourism a framework has to be found to express both the differences and the commonality within the diverse range of occupations (Riley et al., 2002). The current study aims to provide such a framework that will facilitate further exploration of careers and associated patterns of career development behaviour.

Commitment to ongoing career development of existing employees within tourism varies greatly and is influenced by the sub-sector and the size of the enterprise. The presence of career development opportunities is likely to exert a considerable influence on the retention of ambitious employees. This research thesis investigated

three influences on career progression in the tourism industry and developed a career development framework. The research should provide information linking education, mentorship, and mobility to tourism careers in Australia. A model combining these influences is outlined in Chapter 3 *Theoretical Consideration.* This model was tested on a cross section of employees in the Australian tourism industry, amended as required, and should provide a useful tool to all stakeholders of tourism careers in Australia.

As mentioned previously, career development has received attention from scholars in various disciplines. Arthur (1994) suggests that as careers are interwoven with the activities of employing firms, new opportunities exist for career studies. Testing a model of career development on the tourism industry is an important step in further developing career studies in Australia. It is acknowledged, however, that career research in tourism is complex due to diversity within the tourism industry. The need for further studies of employment issues in tourism was identified by Riley et al., (2002, p.2) who suggest that "the sheer size and the scale of its diversity are problematic to analysis but it is also the rationale for such investigation".

Baruch, (2003) explored the integration of career practices into existing career systems. Education, mobility and mentoring were implicit in almost all of the list of 23 career practices. Baruch states that "future research may benefit from focusing on the relatively understudied area of career practices. It is of high importance to examine the effectiveness and outcomes of these practices and in particular to examine the way in which they are interrelated and applied in conjunction with each other" (Baruch, 2003, p. 245). This thesis aimed to undertake such an examination.

Although the dearth of career studies in tourism is recognised, some studies have been conducted in the area of career development in the hospitality industry. Ruddy (1995b) developed a model of career planning and management for hotel managers. However, no working model has been constructed on influences on career development in the Australian tourism industry.

1.1.1 Importance of the current study

There are four major areas to benefit from a understanding of careers in the tourism industry and the influence of education, mentorship, and mobility.

1. Those involved in tourism industry human resource planning

Increasing global competition and globalisation of products and consumer expectations could mean that the competitive edge for many tourism organisations and destinations will rely on the human resource aspects (Dermody and Holloway, 1998). The tourism and hospitality industry has long acknowledged that its ability to develop and grow largely depends on a constant stream of highly skilled human resources yet one of the critical issues facing the industry today is the retention and training of employees (Whitford, 2000; Goldsmith et al., 1997; Jameson, 2000; Lefever and Withiam, 1998). Resources are often invested in training and skill development only to result in employees leaving the industry (Hall, 2003). In the long term addressing high turnover and attrition rates will assist tourism organisations to reap the rewards of education and training investments. This highlights the need for human resource development to be strategically and proactively planned.

Many organisations adopt career planning and development programs in an attempt to improve the quality of work life of managers and professions, improve their performance, and reduce unwanted turnover (Waddel et al., 2000). Understanding career influences and career development strategies in the tourism industry should assist and improve the content and implementation of these programs. Addressing the dearth of information on the issues that affect career development in tourism should provide ammunition to develop policies for long-term human resource management, should provide information on which policies and procedures can be developed to encourage employees to remain in the industry and should ultimately assist employees build a career in tourism. This research should also add to the limited discussion of career development programs, generally, throughout the tourism industry.

2. Those involved in tourism education

It is understandable that as employment opportunities have developed and a demand for skilled labour has been recognised there has been a corresponding increase in the number and type of tertiary courses offering tourism education throughout Australia. This is also due to the encouragement from government, industry and labour unions for the adoption of formal training and qualifications (Hall, 1998). Enrolments in tourism related courses across Australia have been steady but typically reflect global trends impacting on the industry.

As studies tracing graduate employment patterns have yet to emerge, graduate destinations and trends in career development are not clear. It is important to note that the aim of this research was not to attempt a graduate destination study but instead to

explore historical data of managers already undertaking successful careers in the industry.

Both in Australia and in countries that are currently developing their tourism industries, issues of education, training and labour market behaviour are vitally important. Information linking the career progression to educational qualifications and training will impact on education providers. An interesting and ongoing debate regarding the skills to be taught in tourism related courses has been documented in the literature and is addressed in the review. This research does not aim to contribute further to this discourse on a skills audit but, rather, to identify the role of education and training on career progression. Information reflecting the role of formal education for tourism professionals provides those in education with information to debate issues of curriculum design and to evaluate the type and level of courses on offer.

3. Those contemplating a career in tourism

The study revealed a number of issues that should be useful to those who are embarking upon, or who plan to undertake, a career in tourism. Specifically the study suggested the need for educational qualifications and the role of training in developing careers in tourism. Information relating to the use of internal and external labour markets, effective career strategies and other influences on careers will guide new employees in the industry.

4. Australian economy

Prior to the introduction of the satellite accounts, the actual contribution of the tourism industry to the Australian economy was not officially measured, as 'tourism' is not identified as a conventional industry that forms the core of the national accounts. The introduction of these satellite accounts has seen the formal recognition of tourism's contribution to the Australian economy and to employment in particular. Underpinning the economic impact of tourism to the Australian economy is a constant stream of highly skilled, professional, and motivated employees. Placing information on careers in Australian tourism into the public arena is an important step in attracting and retaining new recruits and will, in the long term, help grow this industry. It is timely to research patterns of employment and issues affecting career progression and development.

1.2 Research problem

To identify and validate key influences on career development in the Australian tourism industry.

Little research is available on careers in tourism. Consequently, questions such as the need for education and training, the role of mobility, the type of ambitions engendered by the industry, the strategies used in developing careers in tourism, and the role of mentoring in the industry are waiting to be answered. This thesis aims to address these questions and explore the contextual influences on career development in tourism to assist stakeholders to understand careers in tourism and provide a basic framework on which long term policy and human resource management can be developed.

As research in the area of tourism careers is very limited, an initial exploratory study was conducted in two regional areas in Australia to explore major issues that have impacted on the career progression of senior and middle managers in the tourism industry. This study is mentioned in this introduction to provide the background to this research and is outlined in detail in the Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations. Major themes to emerge from this exploratory study follow:

- Opportunities presented by the industry were common methods of career progression. Being in the right place at the right time as opposed to carefully planning career moves was a dominant theme in career progression.
- The individual's own motivation and flexibility influence career progression. An ambition to 'get ahead' and the 'willingness' to undertake geographical and organisational moves are major issues in career progression.
- Various educational qualifications were held by employees and seemed to vary in importance in career progression. However, a base of the more generic skills underpins hierarchical movement.
- Employees in the industry consider mentoring to be a pivotal aspect in career progression.

Based on the findings of this exploratory study, the following research questions have been developed.

1.2.1 Research questions

What is the relationship between career development and

- Education;
- Mobility;
- Mentoring; and
- Opportunity and careful planning.

for tourism related areas?

In the present study, I conclude that the influence of mobility (career moves), education, and mentorship on career development is substantial for senior managers in the Australian tourism industry. I propose an amended model of career development and suggest a new agenda for future research to test this model on another level of decision-makers, on another industry, and in another geographical area.

In order to address this research question, it is important to overview the current state of research on careers and to identify any unique features of careers in the tourism industry that may suggest variations on generic career theories. Within the various disciplines and sub-disciplines that have embarked on career research, a variety of approaches have been adopted to study an individual's career. Some career scholars have focussed on an individual's occupation, or the work roles experienced during a person's lifetime while others have taken a more expansive perspective that encompasses both work and non-work role activities and behaviours (Higgins, 2001).

These studies have resulted in the development of several career theories including the career stage theory (Super, 1957; Super, 1990) and career anchors (Schein, 1978; Yarnall, 1998), which will be discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis. However, such traditional career theories are becoming outdated due to significant changes in definitions for work careers, job structure and the increasing global nature of the marketplace (Marshall and Bonner, 2003). Several theories have emerged in response to the changes in the current work environment. These theories are detailed in Chapter 2, Literature Review. However, little evidence is available to suggest that careers in all industries fit comfortably into current theories and models of career development and characteristics of work in the tourism industry highlight the need for tourism specific career studies.

1.3 Methodology

The methodology applied in this research is detailed in Chapter 4, Methodology. The epistemological approach adopted was constructivism, and the theoretical perspective was an interpretive paradigm. A constructivist approach was adopted as the researcher aimed to understand the career phenomena from the point of view of those who lived it (Schwandt, 1998). In social research a researcher needs to gather evidence of people's perceptions according to the context in which they occur. As Peavy (1997) asserts, most models of career development are still based on logical positivism even though this concept as a viable philosophical position has been 'dead' since the 1970s. He called for subsequent revisions in the practice of careers to reflect the more relevant postmodern or postpositivist philosophy. He suggested that the gap between 'life' and 'career' be eliminated and more holistic perspectives be incorporated. The researcher aimed to provide this type of holistic perspective.

The ontological basis of interpretive research is the acceptance of multiple realities. The research is conducted in the empirical world in order to develop explanations of the phenomena. The goal is to understand the meaning of social phenomena and requires the inquirer to actively enter the worlds of people being studied in order to see the situation as it is seen by the actor (Schwandt, 1998). To understand career development in the tourism industry, it was important to gather information from an insider's perspective. The use of the interpretive paradigm allowed the researcher to acquire an in-depth knowledge of the tourism career experience that is grounded in the empirical world.

The methodology applied in the current thesis was survey research, primarily qualitative with supplementary quantitative data collection. The specific method of data collection was via electronic questionnaires.

1.4 Definitions

Career moves and mobility – used interchangeably throughout the results and discussion and refers to any movement between job, organisation, industry or geographical location. According to the Oxford dictionary, the definition of 'mobile' is 'to move'.

Education refers to "participants' experiences of formal, qualification based and off-job study" (Mallon and Walton, 2005, p. 473).

Training refers to "formal provision of learning experiences at work" (Mallon and Walton, 2005, p. 473). According to Dekker et al. (2002) training can be divided into two types: core training and employee development or career training. Core training refers to the training which is necessary to keep up with current job requirements, which change because of technological and organisational developments. The purpose of career training is to prepare employees for the next step in their career. Training can range from in-house informal skill development to more formal externally provided certified courses.

Career development Career development is both career planning and career management. Career planning is a process by which an individual makes informed choices as to occupation, organisation, job and career self-development, while career management is an organisational process and may include issues of career counselling, education and training and other strategies designed to match the individual's aptitude and interests with organisational opportunities (Hall, 1994).

Career development represents "a range of activities often taken outside of work and geared more to personal development" (Mallon and Walton, 2005, p. 474) and career management is "a dynamic process in which individuals gather information on their own likes, dislikes, strengths, weaknesses, and on the world of work; develop realistic career goals; develop and implement strategies to achieve these goals; and obtain feedback to promote career decision making" (Anakwe, et al., 2000, p.568). As established in the preliminary study (described in Chapter 3, Theoretical considerations), participants perceived 'career development' to encompass a combination of personal development with work related activities.

Mentorship A mentor is traditionally defined as someone "several years older, a person of greater experience and seniority…a teacher, adviser or sponsor" (Levinson et al., 1978, p. 97). However more recent definitions go beyond this dyadic relationship and emphasise the importance of developmental networking and multiple developmental relationships. For this thesis the researcher has used the term 'mentorship' to represent this broader understanding of the various types of supportive relationships.

1.5 Scope and key assumptions

This thesis aimed to develop a model of influences on career development, to test this model on the Australian tourism industry and to validate the influences included in the model.

The scope of the thesis was limited to those employees who had access to email and the internet and who were identified by the sample identification process outlined in the methodology chapter of this thesis.

As the target market for this research was identified as tourism managers, it was assumed they would possess an adequate understanding of technology to complete an electronic survey.

As the recall method was employed to reflect on careers, it is assumed that participants were able to effectively remember past events and situations which were relevant to identifying influences on their own career development.

1.6 Outline of the thesis

1.6.1 Chapter 1 – Introduction

This current chapter outlines the background of the research including the main aims and significance of the study. The aim of the thesis is articulated and associated questions are listed. Some of the terminology used in the study is defined and several limitations discussed.

1.6.2 Chapter 2 – Literature review.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the current research into careers. The chapter begins by providing a historical perspective of career research and the resulting career theories. The debate on changes to career constructs in the new employment climate is summarised along with an outline of the prevailing theories of career development. Information is provided on tourism careers and unique features of tourism employment.

This Chapter also overviews research on the components of the model of influences on career development in the tourism industry, namely, education, mobility and mentorship. This is followed by a discussion of the link between social demographics and motivation on career development.

1.6.3 Chapter 3 – Theoretical Considerations

In Chapter 3, the research constructs the model of influences on careers in the Australian tourism industry in a step-by-step process. The model is based on four

pieces of previous research. These works are by Ruddy (1995a); Arthur et al., (1999); Riley et al., (2002); and Ayres (2006a; 2006b).

1.6.4 Chapter 4 – Methodology

Chapter 4, details the methodology summarised in Section 1.4 above and includes epistemological issues, and the theoretical perspective. This is followed by descriptions of the methodology and methods employed to collect data and a discussion of the sample design. Ethical considerations and justifications of the methodological decisions complete this Chapter.

1.6.5 Chapter 5 – Results

In Chapter 5 the researcher provides information on the respondents in the current study and discusses representativeness. This is followed by details of the demographic and industry related data of respondents and a detailed analysis of influences respondents perceived to have affected their career. These influences fall into categories of situational influences, motivational drivers and social influences.

1.6.6 Chapter 6 – Results – Model Testing

Chapter 6 includes an analysis of feedback on the various components of the model. This analysis pertains to the influence of education on career development, the influence of mobility on career development and the influence of mentorship on career development. Career development strategies employed by those in the industry are explored and the manner in which these strategies have changed throughout an

individual's career are detailed. The Chapter concludes with a reflection on issues impacting on the careers of those involved in the current study.

1.6.7 Chapter 7 – Discussion and Conclusions

In the final chapter the results as outlined in Chapter 5 and model testing as outlined in Chapter 6 are discussed and the research questions are addressed in line with these finding. The influences of education, mobility and mentoring are then analysed with suggestions and justifications for modifying the model. The researcher then presents the refined model. Issues of validity, reliability, and generalisability are discussed together with the implications of this thesis for both theory and practice. Areas identified for further research conclude this Chapter.

1.7 Conclusion

With the growth of the tourism industry over the last two decades, and the parallel growth of professional careers in the industry, it is appropriate and timely to investigate more closely the influences on career development in tourism. Research into tourism careers is scant. Some work has been undertaken in the area of hotel management and is summarised in the literature review. Many of the findings from this research are not necessarily transferable to the tourism industry but do, however, provide a useful framework on which to build further investigation. Information relating to career influences of employees in tourism is essential to guide educationalists, human resource managers and prospective tourism careerists. The results of this research will also contribute substantially to the body of reference literature in this field.

This chapter has detailed the current research thesis. It introduced the research problem and the specific research questions to be addressed. Justification for the research is provided along with an outline of the thesis is provided. The following chapter overviews the current state of career research and research themes associated with education, mobility and mentoring that provides the framework for the thesis under discussion. This review identifies a gap in tourism specific career studies and outlines the contribution that the current research should add to the existing corpus of literature.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The analysis in Chapter 1 concerns the background information to this research and suggested that education, mobility and mentoring each influence careers in some way. As this thesis aimed to develop a model of career influences to test on the Australian tourism industry, it is important to explore the scholarly work already available on careers, and in particular, work relating to the influences of education, mobility and mentoring on such careers. It is also important to understand how careers in tourism may differ from careers in other disciplines. This chapter reflects some of these current themes and other research relevant to this thesis.

Changing career structures have received much attention in the literature recently. This interest has been sparked, firstly, by recent changes to organisational structures and, secondly, by the diversification of social and personal needs of the individual. The extent of the changes to traditional career structures is a subject of continuing debate in the literature. The central theme of this debate is whether the concept of the career is really undergoing fundamental change as a result of environmental turbulence, or, if in practice, very little is really changing. Some scholars argue that the demise of the traditional career is inevitable as both organisations and individuals are abandoning the traditional organisational framework within which long-term career planning is feasible (Hall and Harrington, 2004; Arthur, et al., 1999). Others contend that the changes taking place are somewhat random suggesting the career is merely evolving and adapting (Jacobi, 1999; Nicholson, 1996; McGovern et al., 1998,

Guest and Mackenzie Davey, 1996). Peiperl and Baruch (1997) suggest that main stream career still exist alongside new career patterns.

The first part of this chapter (Section 2.1) explores the concept of a *career* and how this concept has changed to cater to these changing needs of the organisation, and the individual. A brief history of career research is included (Section 2.2), an overview of associated career theories (Section 2.3) and an overview of the ongoing debate relating to the changing career environment (Section 2.4). This chapter then specifically addresses the concept of the *tourism career* (Section 2.5) and again explores the related research. Finally, the chapter explores the relationship between career development and social demographics (Section 2.6), education (Section 2.7), mobility (Section 2.8) and mentorship (Section 2.9).

2.1 Career definitions

Many definitions of career are provided in the literature. A career "refers to the sequence of jobs that individuals hold during their work histories regardless of their occupation or organisational level" (Nankervis et al., 2005, p 296) and "The career is the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviours associated with the work-related experiences and activities over the span of a person's life" (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1993, p. 696), "a career is a sequence of positions held by a person during his or her lifetime" (Robbins et al., 2000, p. 417) and "a career is a series of jobs arranged over time". (Riley and Ladkin, 1994, p. 225) and "a career is the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life" (Greenhaus, 1987, p. 6). Traditionally, career paths emphasised upward movement within one or two organisations and a 'career for life' philosophy.

However, many commentators have speculated that organisations have become increasingly flat in structure and global in their mode of operation. Other organisational trends have resulted in downsizing, restructuring and reengineering (Robbins et al., 2000). It is suggested that this persistently changing contemporary work environment has resulted in less clearly defined career paths, and careers generally becoming more difficult to define (Riley et al., 2002; Parker, 2002; Arthur et al., 1999).

2.2 A brief history of career research

A history of the theory on careers provides the background on which this thesis is developed. The basis of career theory centres on the concept of the bureaucratic career that involves the acceptance of qualifications, regular incremental advancement and a degree of certainty and stability. Career theory is an interdisciplinary body of knowledge with roots in studies of the organisation and management (Collin and Young, 2000; Arthur and Rousseau, 1996a).

Miller and Form (1951) presented one of the earliest models of career development based on a lifework pattern of five periods, namely preparatory work period, the initial period, the trial period, the stable work period, and finally the retirement period (Stewart and Knowles, 1999). However, despite this seminal work, prior to the early 1970s there was little interest in or knowledge of career development. This changed when a small group of organisational scholars, Lotte Bailyn, Douglass Hall, Edgar Schein and John Van Maanen at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology developed

an interest in the influence of careers on individuals, on the institutions in which they worked and the societies in which they lived (Arthur, 1994).

However, although these early studies provided a base on which further research could be developed, it should be noted that these studies emphasised intra-organisational rather than inter-organisational career development. At this time, most ideas about employment emphasised a single, relatively stable, organisational setting (See Kanter's 1977 study in a single, supposedly representative, large corporation) commonly known as the organisational or bureaucratic career.

2.2.1 The 1980s

During the 1980s the major thrust of career research was in understanding the successful Japanese corporate model. This research focused on individual behaviour within single, large-sized companies and

- assumed a stable environment;
- viewed careers from intraorganisational perspectives;
- focused on larger organisations;
- focused on managerial professional, hierarchical careers;
- took a vocational counselling approach;
- took a developmental focus based on age and career-stage theory;
- assumed a cause-effect relationship between the organisation and the career worker; and,
- focused on men as career subjects. (Jablonski, 2005)

Organisational practices and human resource management systems also received some attention in the 1980s (see Dalton and Thompson, 1986; Gutteridge, 1986; Sonnenfeld, 1984). Later in the decade, interest was demonstrated in the organisational communication arena including negotiation and contracting (Rousseau, 1989). Also during the late 1980s a significant conceptual contribution to career theory was the development of a theoretical model by Sonnenfeld and Peiperl (1988). This model explained career systems according to supply flow (internal versus external labour markets) and assignment flow referring to the base for development and promotion.

Much of this traditional career research, however, tended to ignore the experience of women and minorities in terms of discrimination, pay and promotion inequities; the impact of life experiences on careers; the greater family demands placed on individuals; and the changing economic conditions in which organisations now operate. All of these dimensions are directly relevant to a study such as the present one.

2.2.2 The 1990s

In the 1990s, organisational changes mentioned earlier in this chapter, such as increased globalisation and rapid technological advancements pre-empted organisational restructuring that resulted in the need to re-examine traditional career assumptions (Sullivan, 1999). Research and theory in career development during this time moved from concerns with the individual career towards changes in the labour market and in organisational career practices. Instead of employment security, ‘employability’, internal and external marketability and ‘career resilience’ (Waterman

et al., 1994) became the focus. Careers became an individual responsibility, with organisations increasingly abandoning their career management responsibilities and no longer able to plan a career for their employees. It should be noted that this move towards the individual taking control of their own careers is not new. Almost 30 years ago, Hall (1976) saw the beginnings of a shift away from the organisational career to a new orientation that he defined as the protean career that:

> is a process which the person, not the organisation, is managing. It consists of all of the person's varied experiences in education, training, work in several organisations, changes in occupational fields etc. The protean person's own personal career choices and search for self-fulfilment are the unifying or integral elements in his or her life. (p. 201)

Although this concept was introduced some time ago, its use as a way of understanding career phenomena is relatively new and is the result of the increased attention to changing career structures in the last ten years.

The concept of the 'psychological contract' has emerged to encapsulate these changes. This is defined by Robinson and Rousseau (1994, p. 246) as "an individual's belief regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party". Changes to this psychological relationship highlight the need for in depth studies into careers in the current workplace such as the study under discussion as they provide pragmatic and successful strategies to assist individuals take control of their own careers.

Psychological contract

The psychological contract which traditionally existed between the organisation and the individual worker ensured a dual role in career development. Employers helped their staff to develop their careers by providing appropriate training and development

opportunities, and establishing mentoring and personal development plans (Orpen, 1994). Concurrently, the individual sets career goals and developed strategies to achieve these goals (Noe, 1996). The psychological contract promises security and the possibility of advancement in exchange for the employee's singular commitment to the organisation.

The new understanding of the psychological contract proffered by Truty (2003) suggests that previously organisations had once offered employees security in exchange for loyalty and commitment, but now the new psychological contract provides workers with a job where they can learn and practice new skills for future employability in exchange for their knowledge and expert performance.

There have been limited studies on the changing nature of employment relationships. However, some substance to the new type of psychological contract was evident in a study by Altman and Post (1996) in which 25 Fortune 500 senior executives were interviewed to examine their perspective on changing work relationships. They found that executives noted the demise of the old contract and recognised a new contract based on employability and employee responsibility, rather than job security.

Also in the 1990s a second theoretical model of career systems was depicted. Herriot and Pemberton (1996) offered an updated model of career systems based on individual and organisational fit. This model focused on what both the individual and the organisation had to offer each other.

In both the 1980s and 1990s the primary emphasis of career research was intra-organisational rather than inter-organisational and those organisations and their environments were relatively stable. In a study across five interdisciplinary journals for the 1980s and 1990s, almost all articles assumed a stable rather than changing environment, more than three-quarters focussed on intra-organisational issues and were restricted to managerial, professional or hierarchical careers (Arthur, 1994).

To encapsulate the changes to the employment environment, alternative career concepts emerged under various labels: protean careers (McDonald et al., 2005; Hall, 2004; Hall and Moss, 1998; Hall and Mirvis, 1996) because careers change shape to accommodate the individual's personal and work circumstances; contingent working; (Pfeffer, 1997) virtual organisations; (Hedberg et al., 1997) boundaryless careers, (Robbins 2000; Arthur and Rousseau, 1996b; Mirvis and Hall 1994) because careers can no longer be defined within the one company; new careers (Parker, 2002), intelligent career (Arthur et al., 1995) or *new economy* careers (Arthur et al., 1999) as careers now need to deal with a rapidly transforming economy.

2.2.3 Late 1990s and beyond

The assumptions and research foci of early career research raised questions about its generalisability to the changing work environments of the late 20th and 21st centuries and its generalisability to women (Sullivan, 1999) and race, culture, and identity (Alfred, 2001). Many scholars took up the challenge of expanding career research to address this gap and endeavoured to provide a more comprehensive understanding of careers. In particular, a plethora of literature surfaced on studies of women in organisations (see Section 2.6.1). Further, more recent research has attempted to

provide a more comprehensive, broad based understanding of careers and has focussed on the social context of career development (Higgins, 2001; Seibert et al., 2001).

Other research has reflected the way careers evolve in response to changes to the employment environment. Arthur et al., (1999) distinguished between the notion of *career scripts,* a metaphor evoking the normative view of careers as paths as determined by educational, professional, and organisational institutions, and the notion of *career stories* which represent the sense-making power of career workers' own constructed narratives and the actual agency with which they make career decisions. Rather than adhering to the career script, the boundaryless career is improvisational, built out of episodes of self-directed, spontaneous decisions. "The career is less about a planned destination than it is a series of lived experiences along the way" (Arthur, et al., 1999, p 47).

Career enactment is the process by which people make sense of careers, make individual choices and in turn effect or 'enact' the social environment in which the career takes place (Arthur et al., 1999). Contrary to the normative view of careers being structurally determined by educational training, human resource managers, and professional practices, this perspective sees the company less "as a set of environmental forces determining the person's career" than "as a dynamic nexus of interacting career behaviours including those of the owners" (Arthur et al., 1999, p.41).

Recent trends have seen the issues discussed above become the focus of study in a variety of disciplines and sub-disciplines over a number of years. For example, career studies have been conducted in the fields of psychology (Schultze and Miller, 2004; Judge et al., 1995; Jenkins, 1994; Betz et al., 1989), sociology (Barley, 1989) and anthropology (Bateson, 1989) as well as labour economics (Becker, 1975), organisational behaviour (Hackett et al., 1991; Higgins, 2001), management (Seibert et al., 2001) and communication (Jablonski, 2005; Krackhardt and Porter, 1986). These disciplines each have their own viewpoint and focus on career, their own definitions, concepts, assumptions, methodology, language, discourse, applications and journals (Herr, 1990).

Reflecting these many perspectives, there have been many approaches to studying an individual's career. These approaches fall into two main areas of scholarship dedicated to both the study and practice of career. The first is concerned with career choice, education and counselling (for an example, see Osipow, 1983). The second area is influenced by organisational psychology and sociology, and is concerned with organisational careers (for examples see Hall, 1986; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen and Schein, 1978, Hall, 1976). Unfortunately, there has been little effort to mesh the work of these two approaches (Collin, 1998). Some scholars have focused on an individual's occupation or the work roles experienced during a person's lifetime. Others have called for a more expansive perspective that encompasses both work and non-work role activities and behaviours (Higgins, 2001).

Several career theories have emerged from these decades of career studies and are summarised below.

2.3 Career theories

The literature on careers is vast. Presented below is a condensed view as appropriate and relevant to the topic of this thesis.

2.3.1 Career stages

One of the earliest career theories to emerge is Super's (1957) career stages which is similar to the seminal work of Miller and Form (1951) mentioned earlier in this chapter. Within the career stage theory Super (1957) posits that individuals typically move through distinct career stages during the course of their lives. These are commonly referred to as establishment, advancement, maintenance and withdrawal (Super, 1957). The establishment stage occurs at the onset of the career. The advancement stage is a period of moving from job to job, both inside and outside the organisation. Maintenance occurs when individuals have reached the limits of advancement and concentrate on the jobs they are doing. Finally, individuals go through the withdrawal stage as they approach retirement. Needs and expectations change as individuals move through each career stage.

In his recent writings, Super (1990) continues to rely on the career development stage concept but his later model suggests that the stages bear no relationship to chronological age. He argues that the timing of movements between career stages is more a function of the individual's personality and life circumstances than of chronological age. The more recent Super model also differs from conventional stage theories in reference to the notion of regression to earlier stages. "Such social forces as economic downturns, layoffs, computerisation and the advent of new technologies, or new career paths within the organization can all stimulate regressive 'recycling' backwards through career stages" (Smart and Peterson, 1997, p.32).

Although the current thesis did not attempt to test Super's model of career stages, the researcher acknowledges that the impact of the various influences may vary in relation to the career stage of the respondents. For instance, it could be expected that education may greatly influence a career in the establishment stage but may be less influential in the maintenance stage and certainly in the withdrawal stage of an individual's career.

Despite the theory's clear relevance to the field of career development, there has been surprisingly little empirical research on either of Super's two postulations. However, Smart and Peterson (1997) in a study of employed men and women in various phases of career change possibilities, did endorse Super's concept of career 'recycling' in individuals who elect to change their main field of career activity part way into occupational life. The study suggests that these individuals will pass through the full set of career stages for a second time.

2.3.2 Boundaryless career

Many individuals do not experience an uninterrupted ascent up the corporate ladder as described by the organisational or bureaucratic career. Instead, many individuals are undertaking career paths that are not necessarily continuous and that go beyond the boundaries of a single organisation (DeFillipi and Arthur, 1996). One of the major changes to the conceptualisation of careers is that they are increasingly viewed as boundaryless.

The boundaryless career (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996b; Weick, 1996) is a popular concept in the current career literature and is defined as not bounded or tied to a single organisation. The boundaryless career is opposite to the organisational career – "careers conceived to unfold in a single employment setting" (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996a, p.5). Individuals are increasingly moving both intraorganisationally, across projects and jobs within an organisation and interorganisationally, across employers and even occupations (Jablonski, 2005). The boundaryless career is the term used to refer to such career moves made by a person across organisational, sectoral, or industrial boundaries. The associated high levels of mobility are discussed later in this chapter in Section 2.8 and are an integral component of the model of career development in the tourism industry that is detailed in the following chapter.

Boundaryless careers do not follow the stereotypical path of continuous vertical career advancement. Rather, career workers spiral or cycle from opportunity to opportunity for a variety of reasons, many of which would appear as missteps in the traditional model of career advancement. Individuals make "lateral, diagonal, or apparent downward shifts to escape bad work environments, to find personal fulfilment, to build new skills, to travel, to accommodate a spouse, to raise a child, or to put more 'bread on the table'" (Arthur et al., 1999, p. 33)

The boundlaryless career emphasises the individual's responsibility for planning, goal setting and education and training (Robbins et al., 2000) and depicts the move in career development accountability as increasingly "…careers are the responsibility of the individual, not the organisation" (Kanter, 1989, p. 19).

The boundaryless career has significant implications for the experience and development of the individual. Individuals will have "the freedom and flexibility to more fully engage in life's work and find… greater balance in their lives" (Mirvis and Hall, 1994, p. 373). Despite the small number of studies on this type of boundaryless career, the recent theoretical literature suggests that more individuals will be making this type of transition in the future (Sullivan, 1999).

2.3.3 Subjective and objective careers

Based on Judge et al (1995), career success is defined as the positive psychological outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of experiences over the span of working life. It consists of two main categories – objective and subjective career success. Objective career success is assessed by extrinsic measures such as job title, salary, or promotion (Lau and Shaffer, 1999) and focuses on the externally distinguishable feature of the career concept, such as job histories, sequences of roles, status acquisition, and work transition and tends to value paid and public work over other types of employment (Parker, 2002; Nabi, 2001). The subjective dimension presents a more holistic approach including personal values and the motivation to work, foci for new learning and the breadth of relationships that support the careerist (Nabi, 2001). The subjective career involves knowing the internal criteria needed for career success.

Empirical research on careers and employment has focused on the objective career (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996b). This overemphasis on the objective dimension could be because studies on the subjective side of careers rely on interpreting and explaining highly personalised aspects of the self, which is clearly a more problematic task for

researchers (Parker, 2002). However, the subjective dimension becomes more important as people are required to take greater personal responsibility for career development (Hall, 1996) as suggested in the new career constructs such as the boundaryless career.

In this researcher's model of influences on careers in the tourism industry, outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations, the subjective aspect of the career is reflected in the inclusion of 'motivation' as an influence on career development. An acknowledgement that while some individuals pursue the more objective rewards from a career such as increased pay and promotion, others may value more subjective outcomes such as social rewards, affiliation or a sense of achievement.

2.3.4 The intelligent career

The intelligent enterprise is a new paradigm of thinking about organisations and focuses on the development and deployment of intellectual resources rather than on the management of physical assets (Arthur et al., 1995). The intelligent career framework suggests that it is through the subjective criteria that people enact their values, beliefs and authenticity and integrate multiple roles into a holistic view of life (Parker, 2002). Three ways of 'knowing' have been associated with this intelligent career framework based on the subjective aspects of career development and promote a new set of principles to underpin current employment arrangements (Arthur et al., 1995):

> **Knowing-Why:** why we work - reflecting our values, interests, motivation, and work-family issues (having clear goals and values);
>
> **Knowing-Whom:** with whom we work - reflecting personal relationships inside and outside the job (having a supportive network of personal and professional contacts); and
>
> **Knowing-How:** how we work - reflecting the skills and expertise we have to offer. (Parker, 2002).

Each form of knowledge is changing in response to changes in the environment, employment and personal variables. Personal career competencies reflect different forms of knowing and intelligent careers reflect the application of these forms of knowing as people respond to career opportunities (Arthur et al., 1995).

Each of these ways of knowing has individual value and can contribute to a fuller picture of a person's career by helping to make sense of the various aspects of career development (Parker, 2002). These ways of 'knowing' are particularly important to the current research and will be further developed throughout this thesis. The researcher has incorporated these three ways of knowing into the model developed in Chapter 3. Knowing-why represents 'motivation', Knowing whom reflects mentorship, and Knowing-how represents the education and training that are suggested as influences on careers in the tourism industry.

2.3.5 The new career

Underpinning the philosophy behind the *new career* construct is the premise that educational institutions, professional associations and business organisations no longer control careers for individuals; instead individuals now 'craft' their own careers (Poehnell and Amundson, 2002). This suggestion is that the individual self-

customises the development of their career rather than follow some prescribed formula. Arthur, Inkson and Pringle (1999) describe this process as a 'self-designed apprenticeship' in which the individual is in control of the learning process rather than an accrediting body or formal learning institution.

At this stage of the review, it is useful to summarise, as in Table 2.1, the transition from the traditional career to the new career construct.

Table 2.1 - Summary of dimensions - traditional to new career construct

Aspect	Traditional	New careers
Environment characteristic	Stability	Dynamism
Career choice	Ones, at an early career age	Repeated, sometimes cyclical, at different age stages
Main career responsibility lies with	Organisation	Individual
Career Horizon (Workplace)	One organisation	Several organisations
Career Horizon (Time)	Long	Short
Scope of change	Incremental	Transformational
Employer expect/employee give	Loyalty and commitment	Long time working hours
Employer give/employee expect	Job security	Investment in employability
Progress criteria	Advance according to tenure	Advances according to results and knowledge
Success means	Progress on the hierarchy ladder	Inner feeling of achievement
Training	Formal programmes, generalist	On-the-job, company specific
Essence of career direction	Linear	Multidirectional

Source: Baruch, 2004, p. 66

The adaptation by both the individual and the organisation to the changes to careers described above has occurred at various rates. In a study of 17 organisations, Hall and Moss (1998) found they were all at different stages of organisational transformation in the 1990s (Hall and Harrington, 2004). The rate of adaptation is also affected by the environmental context. Workers in a rapidly transformed economy such as New

Zealand have taken charge and transformed their careers (Arthur, et al., 1999) while in France, a more traditional organisational career pattern emerged (Cadin et al., 2001). There is some indication that no transformation has taken place at all in other organisation (Gratton et al., 2002). So does the new career construct really exist?

2.4 The changing career environment

The evolution of the *new career* construct does not have universal acceptance and despite much rhetoric about the *new deal*, there is little empirical evidence to substantiate its reality. There is not full agreement on either the notion of this new career concept or on how widely accepted this concept is in practice. In fact, emerging empirical evidence suggests that the extent of change from the traditional career construct to the new ideals of career thinking is questionable (Nolan and Wood, 2003). The traditional model was only rarely found in a fully articulated form. Yet even in reported cases specialist professionals, plateaued managers, and many women would find the model did not apply. To this extent the model represents an ideal type rather than a widely operating paradigm. Also, much employment in western economies is accounted for by small companies whose career systems are ad hoc and laissez faire. It follows that the traditional model has always been an operational rarity (Nicholson, 1996).

Some career theorists are also critical of the boundaryless career theory. According to Craig and Kimberly "careers have always been, and will always be, bounded" (2002, p 8). They suggest that career theory should instead emphasise the individual's 'life course' which represents how workers play multiple roles over the course of their lifetime many of which do not involve work. The life-course perspective is more

productive because it centres on the premise that boundaries are always present and attempts to better understand how and why career boundaries shift. Contrary to this criticism, it is also suggested that the concept of boundaryless careers applies to knowledge workers whose skills are generalisable across organisational boundaries and represent core competencies of organisations. For other professionals, traditional career patterns are still observable and the extent and applicability of boundarylessness are still being explored (Jablonski, 2005).

As suggested previously, current career theory asserts a shift away from seeing career as an objective entity to more a subjective phenomenon (Weick, 1996). However, some studies (see Capelli 1999; Jacoby 1999; and Mallon and Walton, 2005) suggest that recent career theory focuses on agency, the subjective and the individual at the expense of organisations. People tend to develop skills and abilities to enable them to forge a particular career and evidence exists to suggest that the career still drives learning activity and not the other way round as suggested by much of the new career literature (Mallon and Walton, 2005).

Human resource specialists and managers of leading organisations reveal a deep and growing cynicism about this new paradigm. Many see the rhetoric of the new organisation as running well ahead of its practice. A study of eight large UK organisations, found some changes in career attitudes and organisational practice but not to the degree outlined in much of the literature (see McGovern et al., 1998; Guest and Mackenzie Davey, 1996).

Within the flatter organisational structures discussed previously, sideways movements across areas of the business are a means of achieving dynamic and flexible organisations, but it may be that current developments are restricting rather than enhancing these opportunities. Managers under pressure may be motivated to hang on to rather than to export their talented staff to other parts of the business. Decentralised and flattened structures make it harder rather to open up paths to other areas, or even to know the properties of the job market system outside their own operation. Expectations for employees to manage their own careers could heighten frustration, if employees do not have sufficient information and access to the knowledge which might open up pathways (Nicholson, 1996).

In summary, those who propose a new era of careers maintain that the order and predictability associated with the traditional career has decreased and maintain both lateral and horizontal movement and the existence of alternative types of career paths are the norm (Cappelli, 2000; DeFillipi and Arthur, 1996; Arthur and Rousseau, 1996a; Allred et al., 1996). Others debate over the extent and significance of the changes and point to survey evidence that the extent of job change and tenure is little different from what it used to be, that bureaucracy and hierarchy still persist and that the traditional career is surprisingly alive and well; the career and traditional contract have not faded (Guest 1997; Guest and Conway 1997; Guest and Mackenzie Davey, 1996).

Others suggest that research has been applied to a limited sample of people and within a narrow range of occupational environments, for example the film industry (Jones, 1996); the Silicon Valley IT industry (Littleton, et al., 2000); and the biotechnology

industry (Gunz, et al., 2001). Apart from these specific contexts, the boundaryless career has been discussed in a relatively general way (Arthur et al., 1999). Despite much rhetoric about career change, it is difficult to trace the extent and nature of such change empirically (Guest and MacKenzie Davey, 1996). Further in-depth studies are required if scholars are to attempt to address some of the issues surrounding the current debate.

This general discussion of careers provides essential background information on the current research. It highlights the need for further research into the career phenomena and provides the context for the current research. This discussion has focussed on a multi-disciplinary approach to the study of careers and although this discussion is valuable, the focus of this research thesis is the tourism career and some unique features underpinning such careers need noting.

2.5 Careers in tourism

Although jobs in the tourism and hospitality industry have traditionally been plentiful, the concept of undertaking further education and developing these jobs into careers is a relatively new trend. Consequently, few studies of careers in tourism are reported in the literature and little information is available to those who are involved in human resource management and policy development in the industry. In addition, the tourism industry is sectorised and multifaceted, so it is difficult to generalise or stereotype a typical career path. This section of the review will summarise the research and knowledge of careers within the tourism industry and provide an understanding of the unique features of tourism that render the study of workplace issues problematic.

2.5.1 Definitional issues

Any discussion on tourism careers should begin with an examination of how tourism employment is defined and to outline features of tourism employment that may distinguish it from other more recognised professions. Two interrelated concepts underpin this definition:

The first is the idea of the 'tourism trip'. A frustration for researchers in the tourism discipline is the multitude of definitions provided for tourism. (Hall 2003; Weaver and Oppermann 2000; Tribe 1997) The Australian House of Representatives Select Committee on Tourism (1987, p3 in Hall, 2003) observed that the problem of definition is "not just a statistical problem, but one which reflected the high degree of fragmentation that exists in the industry and the diversity of the prime interests of the components of the industry". While recognising this problem, it is important to provide some generally accepted concepts that encapsulate the business of tourism. The following definitions are useful in this study:

> Tourism includes "all overnight and certain day trips undertaken by Australian residents and all visits to Australia by overseas residents of less than two months duration" (Australian Bureau of Industry Economics 1984 in Hall, 2003, p. 12)
>
> Tourism is the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction among tourists, business suppliers, host governments, host communities, origin governments, universities, community colleges and non-governmental organizations, in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing these tourists and other visitors. (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000, p. 3)

The first definition provides the Australian context underpinning the current research and the second expands the list of stakeholder parties to include origin governments,

tertiary educational institutions and non-government organisations, all of which are also relevant to the research.

The second part of the tourism employment definition concerns what is known as the multiplier effect. The multiplier is an economic concept used to define the impact of monetary expenditure on the wider economic system and the direction of this effect on output, income and employment (Losekoot and Wood, 2001; Tribe, 1999). An analogy is useful in explaining how the multiplier works. The multiplier is based on direct, indirect and induced expenditure. To use a hotel as an example, direct expenditure would be the expenditure by a tourist in paying for a room. Indirect expenditure would be the cost of supplying linen for this particular room and the induced expenditure would be expenditure from the overall profits of providing that room to the tourist. The multiplier is often used for estimating the economic benefits of tourism activity including direct and indirect employment creation (Tribe, 1999). Although the multiplier is frequently used in tourism studies, some limitations to the multiplier effect are acknowledged. However, it is important to note that tourism employment is affected by the multiplier principle and employment in the industry may be in both a direct and indirect capacity.

The above discussion of tourism employment may not highlight the fact that employment is a comprehensive, complex and dynamic social phenomena and, as such, further attention should be given to its definition. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), indicators of the general level of tourism-related employment include jobs, persons employed or full-time equivalents, with a further distinction for seasonal employment and extra jobs,

along with key employment variables such as gender, age, educational level, nationality, status in employment, working scheme, average seniority, average hours of work, average gross earnings, job permanency, irregular working hours. (OECD, 2000) According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, tourism-related employment is mostly approached from a demand-side perspective. This can be done by providing crude estimates of the number of jobs or the total labour-volume of the employment generated by tourism. This can, for example, be done by translating expenditures in or output of an industry into number of jobs, using a labour coefficient or ratio.[29]However, a *supply-side approach* can also be used and this entails defining tourism from the classification of enterprises and organisations that offer products and services to visitors. For this, the ISIC classification, *i.e.* the main economic activity of an enterprise or organisation on the basis of the International Standard Classification of Industry (ISIC, Rev. 3), can be used. From an employment perspective, this approach differs fundamentally from other possible approaches, such as a description based on occupations using the International Standard Classification of Occupations.

However, because tourism cuts through and merges into a variety of industries, it is difficult to define the production boundaries of tourism from a supply-side perspective. Here the results of the TSA can be very helpful. The TSA relates tourism consumption on the demand side to the supply side, providing some indication of which producing industries are important for tourism.

2.5.2 Unique features of tourism employment

In addition to definitional issues, it is useful to outline features of tourism employment that may distinguish it from other more recognised professions. Tourism is a multidisciplinary field, characterised by large numbers of small and medium sized

businesses (Thomas, 2000). In Australia it is estimated that the tourism and hospitality industry consists of at least 80% small business operators scattered over a wide range of urban and rural environments (Beeton and Graetz, 2001). Defining tourism employment is therefore no easy task (see Riley et al., 2002, pp. 11-14 for further information on the difficulties of defining tourism employment). However, a comprehensive list of tourism sectors that offer careers in tourism includes: transport, travel agencies, tour operators, conventions and events, tour guides, food services, attractions, festivals, sport, culture and heritage, wine tourism, indigenous tourism, retail, environment management, health and spa tourism and government agencies (Leiper, 2004; Douglas et al., 2001; Richardson and Fluker, 2004; Pearce et al., 1998). McKercher et al. (1995) in a study of tourism graduate destinations, found that first jobs were in a wide array of sectors, including the accommodation industry, the travel trade, local government, the transport sector, the licensed club sector, tourism training, conference organising, and regional tourism organisations. It should be noted that not all those employed in these sectors can be classified as tourism employees as accountants, historians, educationalists and others play vital roles within these sectors. Clearly, it is no simple task to identify exactly who works in the tourism industry in Australia or elsewhere.

As new and emerging professions such as tourism attempt to embrace the dynamic and evolving workplace discussed previously, many human resource management issues such as career development, call for attention. The relative youth of the Australian industry has meant that career paths have only recently begun to be clearly defined or developed (James, 1988 in Hall, 1998). Yet, it is already evident that many traits and characteristics of careers in tourism and hospitality lend themselves to

variations on traditional models (Ladkin and Riley, 1996). The recipe for early career success in the tourism industry appears to be based on quickly securing the first job after graduation, and then being prepared to move rapidly between jobs when opportunities arise. Career progress is likely to be enhanced by an individual's willingness to change employers as well as being geographically mobile (McKercher et al., 1995). The current research further explores this issue of mobility in Section 2.7.

Recent studies have identified that the tourism sector suffers from a poor image and the rate of turnover in the tourism sector is significantly high (Bonn and Forbringer, 1992; Hjalager, 2003a). One particular study (VisitScotland/George Street Research, 2002 in Littlejohn and Watson, 2004) shows that while a career in tourism is generally considered interesting (87%) and challenging (81%) it is also perceived as offering long working hours (56%), repetitive work (51%) and low pay (54%). The study also found that the majority of their respondents stated they did not have a good understanding of the range of jobs and career opportunities available (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004).

The majority of studies on tourism employment to date have focused on exploring careers in the hotel industry. This may be due to the difficulty in defining tourism and issues of tourism employment. By contrast, hotel management is a clear career choice, and can be easily defined and measured. In the hotel industry, traditionally employees who start at the bottom of the management career ladder can work their way to the top level general manager position (Ruddy, 1990). However, the hospitality industry has challenged the concept of long term careers in the one

organisation and the transferability of skills encourages career patterns that are likely to involve a high rate of mobility (Ladkin and Riley, 1996). In fact research suggests that for most hotel executives, strategically timed career moves between companies can result in broadening work experiences and result in higher-level positions (Swanljung, 1981).

Other research on the international arena adds value to the study under discussion. An investigation into the formation of vocational identities of workers in the sector of tourism in the Czech Republic, Green and Spain (as cited in Marhuenda et al, 2004) suggests that the "promotion of continuing training, greater recognition of formal vocational education and the development of an entrepreneurial culture are key elements that would enhance opportunities to develop a professional career in tourism" (Marhuenda et al., 2004, p. 222). This study also alludes to parallel thinking on flexibility and mobility of the workforce to the new career discourse.

As mentioned previously, tenure within the tourism industry is often very short and a genuine and traditional career orientation is not obvious. Two issues appear to contribute to this state: the industry itself and its personnel. The industry does not provide job autonomy and learning potentials that particularly appeal to the new generation of staff (Ross, 1997). It is difficult to harness the commitment of staff with a dedicated background and clear career ambitions as their motivation is often stifled by low pay and low status positions. Tourism and hospitality employees themselves also often compound the negative perceptions of the industry. Studies of personnel suggest that trained persons aiming for a job in tourism do not have traditional career ambitions, being far less determined, focusing on intrinsic values, and attracted by the

social benefits of the job (Hjalager and Anderson, 2001). Tourism professionals tend to emphasise attributes such as job autonomy and pleasant life style as opposed to higher qualifications, professional challenges and entrepreneurial performance.

2.5.3 Recruitment and retention

A knowledge of careers and patterns of behaviour in tourism organisations will impact on the industry's ability to attract and retain educated employees. Increasing global competition and globalisation of products and consumer expectations could mean that the competitive edge for many tourism organisations and destinations will rely on the human resource aspects (Dermody and Holloway, 1998). This highlights the need for human resource development to be strategically and proactively planned with a more reactionary focus on the selection and retention of tourism and hospitality employees, yet little evidence exists of coordinated policy development and direction.

With today's high turnover and low unemployment rates, recruitment and retention have become major concerns in tourism development. Significant amounts of personnel budgets are spent on recruiting and retention (Whitford, 2000). At the same time, informal recruitment processes appear to be the norm for some of the small firms in the industry (Jameson, 1998). Research on tourism and hospitality firms in general refers to recruitment as unstructured and often carried out by the owner/manager who may not possess the relevant skills to ensure effective selection processes are followed (Lucas, 1995; Boella, 1996; Jameson 1998). Informal recruitment practices and inappropriate selection can reinforce the high labour turnover spiral.

Ironically, this informal and unsophisticated approach to the management of human resources (Goldsmith, 1997; Jameson, 2000; Price, 1994) characterised by vague hiring standards and unsystematic recruitment coincides with the need to compete for human resources with other industries who often offer effective management career packages and employee incentives.

Studies indicate that jobs in tourism are not necessarily the first career choice among young people (Getz, 1994). The decline in retention rates in the 1990s seems to indicate that tourism is regarded as a temporary solution, when looking for job opportunities. It seems that around half of the graduates never enter the tourist industry even though their training was aimed at such a career (Purcell and Quinn 1996).

Goldwasser (2000) suggests the first step in the retention process is identifying the types of employees working in the industry. 'Careerists' plan to stick with tourism/hospitality for the long term. The 'undecideds' have landed in the industry as a result of not making a career choice, and the 'passing throughs' are on their way to other careers. The 'misplaced' are deeply dissatisfied with hospitality in generally and are a source of low productivity and profitability as well as high turnover. Goldwasser (2000) proposes that actively developing 'careerists' and 'undecideds' will bring a positive attitude, as well as employment longevity, to the workplace. Retaining 'careerists' requires attention to human resource practices and aspects of organisational culture that drive employees to stay or leave.

It is evident that if the industry is to continue to attract and retain highly skilled human resources, further studies need to be undertaken that explore the way careers have evolved to adapt to the new employment climate.

2.6 Social demographics and motivation

In any discussion of careers, issues of the multifaceted environment in which careers operate need to be raised. A failing of traditional career theory is that it has neglected the complexities of structural and cultural aspects (Collin and Young, 1986). Careers do not operate in isolation; individuals are influenced by the social, ethnic and gender categories to which they belong, and the concept of a career is closely linked to a person's individual identity and range of experiences as they move through their working life (Van Maanen, 1977 in Riley and Ladkin 1994). Trends such as increased numbers of women in the workforce and the consequent changes in the roles of men and women in the family, smaller family sizes, changing family structures and other new and emerging social adjustments have seen and will see changes in how individuals see their career unfolding (Arthur et al., 1999).

The links between demographic, social and personal characteristics and careers development have received much attention in the literature, including race and culture (see Ross, 2004; Grimes, 2001; Fish, 1999); age (see Armstrong-Stassen and Cameron, 2005; Wise and Millward, 2005; Maurer, 2001; Taylor and Walker, 1997; Yearta and Warr, 1995); and minority groups (Littrell and Nkomo, 2005; Bradley et al., 2004; Hurley and Giannantonio, 1999; Hite, 1996). The evidence suggesting the influence of social demographics on career development forms a considerable

component of this thesis (see Chapter 3 – Theoretical Considerations). However, other demographic influences need attention in this review and are discussed below.

2.6.1 Gender

Although the aims of the current research do not include issues of gender within the tourism workforce, the researcher has included some general discussion of gender issues in response to the relatively high number of women participants in the study. Gender issues are also discussed in other sections of this review including Section 2.7 – Education, Section 2.8 – Mobility, and Section 2.9 Mentoring.

Gender has received much attention in career literature. This interest has been demonstrated in the area of career development and advancement of managerial and professional women (see Mavin, 2001; Davidson and Burke, 1994; Fagenson, 1993, Burke and McKeen, 1994a, Burke and McKeen 1994b; Sekaran and Leong, 1992), male and female comparative management studies (see Granqvist and Persson, 2005; Ackah and Heaton, 2004; Burke, 1997 and Ohlott et al., 1994) and more recently differences in career motivations and transitions between men and women (Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005). In general, these studies suggest that although women are entering senor management sectors of the workforce, few have been successful in penetrating an invisible barrier, commonly known as the glass ceiling (Liff and Ward, 2001; Simpson and Altman, 2000 and Ragins et al., 1998 for exceptions) and that the current restructuring of organisations is an opportunity to address recruitment and selection, performance management, promotion and planning, training and development practices to ensure an organisational structure that incorporates issues pertinent to both genders (Mavin, 2001).

2.6.2 The career and the self

Lau and Shaffer (1999) suggest knowledge of career success helps individuals develop appropriate strategies for career development based on their desire for the acquisition of materialistic advancement, power, and satisfaction. At the organisational level, knowledge of the relationship between personality and career success helps human resource managers design effective career systems. Careers also provide a sense of identity, fill our time with meaningful activity, provide a sense of purpose to our view of the future, and enable us to feel worthwhile participants in social institutions and relationships (Nicholson, 1996).

Further justification for accepting the link between social demographics, motivation and careers is born out in research linking career development with individual personalities (Holland, 1985; Lau and Shaffer, 1999). This research has progressed through four stages of career theory development. The first stage was a psychological perspective which focused on static aspects of an individual's disposition while the second stage was a sociological perspective in which social classes were viewed as determinants of career outcomes. The third stage was a convergence of stages one, the psychological perspective and stage two, the sociological perspective (Sonnenfeld and Kotter, 1982). The current direction of career research appears to be principally from a psychological perspective with concerns on the relationship between careers and other major life activities (Arthur et al., 1989). This congruent approach embraces the idea that careers do not exist in isolation and illustrates the fit between the person and the environment.

Holland's (1985) research suggests a match between personality and career choices. He proposes that a person may reflect a combination of two or three of his six personality types, realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional that will highly influence career decisions and will influence eventual career success and satisfaction (Stewart and Knowles, 1999). In an earlier study of career influences on hotel managers in Hong Kong, Ruddy (1989) found that personal characteristics and behaviour were highest on their list of career influences ahead of external aspects such as education, family support, and mentoring relationships. The knowledge that personal characteristics are determinants of career success is of value to this current research and is embraced in the researcher's model as social demographics and motivation (see Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations).

2.6.3 Motivation

Career motivation is defined as the "motivation to do one's present job and to meet expectations relating to various managerial roles" (Grzeda, 1999, p. 235). Career motivation guides a wide range of career related decisions and behaviours such as searching for and accepting a job, staying with an organisation, revisiting career plans, seeking training and new job experiences and setting and trying to accomplish career goals (London, 1983).

Although many organisational career programs assume that employees are motivated by money and the prospect of promotion, the importance of career development is the recognition that there are strong non-monetary aspects which affect work and career satisfaction (Yarnall, 1998). Some of these non-monetary motivators include a way for individuals to fulfil their need for achievement and power (Lau and Shaffer, 1999),

status, job security, enjoyment of the job, pride in work, challenges and colleagues (Adams, 2001).

It is clearly beneficial to understand individual motivations within the workplace and how they will impact on the career development strategy best suited for individual employees. Other benefits of recognising individual motivators include assisting managers to: understand why quality staff may leave the organisation; target career management systems more effectively; and more constructively discuss issues of job satisfaction with employees (Barth, 1993).

Motivation is an intrinsic phenomena and as such, it is important to accept that individual motivators may differ. In addition, the career may have different meanings to each individual. Some embark on a career for purely economic needs and satisfaction. For others, the career may provide a sense of social status or social worth, and for others again, the career may even represent an individual's 'life dream' (Levinson et al., 1978).

Although it is necessary to overview these social demographics and motivations, it should be noted that this study does not focus on the link between social demographics and career development, or motivation and career development, as prior research has already established this relationship (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Knutson and Schmidgall, 1999; Ibarra, 1995; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Kanter, 1977; Judge et al., 1995; Jenkins, 1994, 1989; Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990; Littig, 1979; Chusmir, 1985; Ragins and Sundstrom, 1989; Alfred, 2001; Day and Allen, 2004, Eby et al., 2005 and others).

As mentioned previously, careers are no longer viewed as having a strong connection with growth within a particular organisation. This has implications such as job mobility, education and training and other assistant programs attached to working for a particular employer (Hall and Harrington, 2004). These influences form the basis of the model of career development tested in the current research and outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations. Education, mobility and mentoring are pivotal to this model and are the focus of the next sections of this review.

2.7 Education

'Education' is the term used in this thesis to refer to any type of learning undertaken by an individual. However, it is useful to provide some definitions of associated terms used within the 'education' portfolio. 'Formal education' refers to "participants' experiences of formal, qualification based and off-job study" (Mallon and Walton, 2005, p. 473) or "classroom (off-site) learning experiences that attempt to expose … new concepts, practices and situations that can be transferred to the workplace" (Longenecker, 2002, p. 641). 'Training' refers to "formal provision of learning experiences at work" (Mallon and Walton, 2005, p. 473). However, often these terms involve interconnection and overlap.

2.7.1 Education and the individual

The positive role of education in career development is widely accepted (Baruch, 2003) and research in labour economics and careers has suggested that there are significant returns from educational attainment in terms of pay, promotions, job satisfaction level, and achievement of personal goals (Baruch and Leeming, 2001;

Judge et al., 1995). These returns on educational attainment pertain to the human capital theory that suggests individuals will be paid on the basis of their human capital including training, both general education and firm-specific training, quality of education, prestige of the degree granting institution, degree type, and relevant work experience (Judge et al., 1995). Education is often used to illustrate investments individuals make in themselves, and education is included in virtually all career attainment studies (Hurley-Hanson et al., 2005).

Given the suggestion decreasing opportunities for hierarchical advancement, and the decreased probability of security and a life-long organisational career in the new employment climate, employability is proposed as a more appropriate goal (Kanter, 1989). Learning and development skills and know-how is a mechanism for achieving this more capitalist philosophy. As such careers are increasingly being linked to learning "in a virtuous cycle" (Arthur et al., 1999, p. 49) and a new breed of students, clearly aware of the growing importance attached to education, both by the individuals and by society as a whole (Hague, 1999) is emerging.

In a UK and New Zealand study aimed at exploring individual perceptions of learning in the context of their career (Mallon and Walton, 2005), education was often seen as a 'ticket' to enable particular outcomes such as adding value to an existing employer, management aspirations, and employability. Credentialising skills and knowledge through formal qualifications was seen as a passport to promotion and future employment. Some participants reported not having qualifications as a barrier to their career development. In the same study, training was seen as something to help them

in their present role in their present organisation, as a vehicle to enable them to become more employable and as an opportunity to retrain (Mallon and Walton, 2005).

Under new career paradigms education is becoming more important than it was in the past. The findings of a study of personnel records of two cohorts of managers entering a firm at different times indicate that while education was not important for employees entering in 1972, by 1982 it had become important for those wanting to advance (Hurley-Hanson et al., 2005). The same study revealed that while having a bachelor's degree was not important for the 1972 entrants, by 1982 it was vital for career development. Although formal qualifications may be important in today's employment climate, the less formal forms of education such as in-house or on-the-job training should not be devalued. This type of training provides an important vehicle to acquiring and maintaining the necessary skills for increasing employability (Harris et al., 2001; Billet, 2002). Training allows workers to adapt to varying skill requirements and thus may facilitate job shifts across sectoral boundaries (Korpi and Mertens, 2004). Under the new career structures discussed previously much more emphasis is placed on individuals managing their own training and development. Therefore training in organisations may be more informal than it would be in more traditional organisation and the focus of this training may be more generalised (Kelly et al., 2003).

Despite this evidence, not all research points to increased employment opportunities for graduates. Studies in the 1990s suggest that the graduate labour market is now less predictable, increasingly competitive (Connor and Pollard, 1996) and fewer graduates are able to secure traditional graduate jobs (LaValle et al., 1996).

Interestingly these findings were endorsed in a study of the value of tourism degrees that suggested while students were optimistic about securing a job in the tourism industry, the industry was not convinced of the benefits of tourism degrees and employing tourism graduates (Petrova and Mason, 2004).

2.7.2 Education and the organisation

A wealth of knowledge is locked within an organisation's human resources. This knowledge is commonly referred to as intellectual capital (Adams, 2001) and is held by the staff and management teams within the business. Intellectual capital is usually developed through formal education and training, on-the-job training and learning through work experience and is defined as "the sum of a company's intangible assets" (Adams, 2001, p. 235). This intellectual capital is paramount in keeping organisations competitive both domestically and globally where the market for skilled human resources is increasingly aggressive. A recent report in *Training and Development* (2000) shows that attracting and retaining talented employees is the biggest challenge cited by human resource professionals (Adams, 2001).

To face these challenges, organisations have realised the value of education and training as a key business strategy (Longenecker, 2002). In a 2002 study, 52% of experienced managers believed that effective education programs can help create and increase competitive advantage (Longenecker, 2002). This same study identified a number of other important benefits that can come from effective educational programs. The first is that these programs can expose the participants to new ideas and business practices which are required in rapidly changing organisations. The second is that these programs can motivate the participants to improve performance

by developing and improving their skills. Thirdly, these programs provide opportunities for reflection, introspection and self-appraisal which may help in identifying specific performance problems and deficiencies. Fourthly, education programs increase participant confidence and, finally, effective education programs can encourage participants to think about their career development and can set a good example for fellow workers who see others trying to learn and improve through participation in learning initiatives. Employers who invest in training can expect to benefit significantly from an increase in employee motivation, job satisfaction and related productivity gains (Burke and McKeen, 1994b).

In a rapidly changing employment climate, it is difficult for companies to assess people and develop them against a fixed set of competencies (Briscoe and Hall 1999). Instead, much attention has focused on individuals developing new career competencies to increase their career capital that is transferable across a range of work and non-work situations to be used in their subsequent development (Inkson and Arthur 2001). However, graduates have traditionally joined organisations with high expectations about their future career and have expected the organisation to provide high quality training and developmental opportunities (Mabey, 1986; Pitcher and Purcell, 1997; Sturges et al., 2000). These conflicting expectations, suggest the need for both the individual and the organisation to understand what role education and training plays in career development and to keep abreast of workplace expectations.

Although research suggests positive outcomes of educational programs, unfortunately, in smaller firms, human resource issues, such as training and development have been largely neglected by scholars and human resource professionals (Matlay, 2002).

Although research suggests a strong link between firm specific training and sustainable competitive advantage, some evidence exists to suggest that training interventions are of a reactive rather than proactive nature and are not perceived as a crucial element of organisational strategy. In relatively small organisations, the provision of in-house training is perhaps not feasible yet relevant external training is not always available. In addition time constraints and budgetary implications also deter many small organisations from investing in extensive training and development programs (Matlay, 2002). As mentioned, tourism is characterised by large numbers of small to medium sized firms (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004; Sigala and Baum, 2003) so these findings are particularly relevant.

As the primary focus of this research is on three possible influences on careers, that is, education, mobility and mentorship, it is useful to explore current research pertaining to possible links between each of these influences.

2.7.3 Education and mobility

Career resilience (London, 1983; Waterman et al., 1994) requires organisations to educate their employees and the individual to maintain a level of core competencies to ensure employability rather than long-term employment (Baruch, 2001; 2003). However, little evidence was found in the literature to link the level of education to a tendency or propensity to be mobile. Although a link between education and training and upward mobility (Dekker et al., 2002) in the organisation, no similar link has been established between education and changes in organisations, and geographical location. One study, however, indicated that those with a university education had a

slightly increased tendency to leave an industry more readily than other employees. (Korpi and Mertens, 2004).

2.7.4 Education and mentorship

Education and training initiatives have long been linked to mentorship. Greenhaus et al., (1990) developed a measure of 14 different education, training and development activities to assess participation levels in organisations. Mentorship and sponsorship were among these activities.

This measure was used in a study of 267 female business graduates who indicated that mentors, sponsors and networking were the most useful training and development activities in which they participated (Burke and McKeen, 1994b).

2.7.5 Education and tourism

Along with the restructuring of global economies has come the rise of the service economy (Korpi and Mertens, 2004). Service industries such as tourism and hospitality have followed this growth trend reporting increasing employment opportunities and an increased need for skilled personnel. A potential barrier to growth in these industries is a lack of appropriate skilled human resources (Dimmock, 1999**)** and the development of managers is a key human resources concern for the future health of hospitality and tourism sectors (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004). In addition, industry training advisory bodies generally believe that the skill levels of people employed in the tourism and hospitality industry are inadequate and to ensure its continued success The Government will continue to promote within the education

system the value of key tourism skills and awareness of career opportunities within the industry (Department for Industry, Science and Tourism, 1998 in Freeland, 2000).

In response, tertiary educational institutions have developed and designed an array of courses at varying levels to address this increasing skill requirement (see Weaver and Lawton, 2002, p 9 for a comprehensive list). This is partly due to the encouragement from government, industry and labour unions for the adoption of formal training and qualifications (Hall, 1998) and in recognition of the industry's need for highly skilled workers.

This trend towards higher education for the tourism and hospitality sectors is relatively new. In a study of hotel managers, behaviour and personal characteristics such as leadership qualities and motivation were placed higher than 'education' on the list of key career influences (Ruddy, 1989) A more recent study found that formal qualification was an integral part of career development, with over three-quarters of those surveyed possessing formal qualifications. However, the perceived value of this education differed radically between managers. Those who were qualified were more supportive of the role of formal qualifications than those who were unqualified (Harper et al., 2005). The same study revealed that the inclusion of structured work experience within the course curriculum is strongly supported as a method of developing personal skills.

A study of graduates from a tourism business course in Greece found that there was no correlation between age, sex or degree classification and salary or career expectations and that the graduates interviewed considered family network, foreign

languages or computer literacy to be more important than the degree itself in getting their first job in the hospitality industry (Moira et al., 2004). This differs from an Australian study by McKercher et al., (1995) that found that a university degree was rated as being the most important aspect in finding first jobs.

This issue of education is at the centre of an on-going debate regarding the content of tourism courses. Educational institutions have long deliberated the issues of course content and design and some research has been conducted into the skills and knowledge required by industry (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004; Beeton and Graetz, 2001; Jennings, 2000; Mohsin and Christie, 2000; Smith and Cooper, 2000; Airey and Johnson, 1999; Baum et al., 1997; Rudall et al., 1995; Ryan, 1995a, 1995b; Cooper et al., 1994; Bondar 1990; Buckley, 1990). Mention should be made that some of this discussion (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004; Gustin, 2001; Tait et al., 1993) stresses the need for the more generic management training rather than the industry-specific skills and knowledge development under discussion throughout much of this debate. Still others suggest that in today's climate of continually evolving information and communication technologies, tourism and hospitality curriculum should increasingly nurture and instil the development of information literacy and knowledge management competencies (Sigala, 2002).

In a Swedish study of the different motivations for taking a Master's degree in tourism, results suggest that students are very enthusiastic about careers in tourism and that they fully expect the degree to qualify them for attractive managerial jobs (Hjalager, 2003). However, tourism employers often recruit non-tourism graduates who demonstrate the generic skills required for a vocation in tourism (Dale and

Robinson, 2001) and this adds to fuel to the ongoing debate related to curriculum design.

In summary, while continuing to focus on traditional technical skills, the reality of the changing labour market means that employers in the tourism and hospitality sector give priority to social, communication and information and communication technology skills when recruiting new staff (Christou, 1999). It follows that the changing nature of careers discussed above will impact on graduates and, according to Nabi and Bagley (1998), higher education institutions can and will have an important role in preparing graduates to manage their own careers.

Training also appears to be the focus of much discussion in tourism and tourism related industries. Many employers in the industry do not demand that their staff have formal training. Hall (1998) notes that until the entry of the National Tourism Industry Training Committee (NTITC), the forerunner of Tourism Training Australia (TTA), the industry had never successfully recognised its training needs. Poor attitudes to training have existed in the industry at large and the then Department of Employment, Education and Training noted that "much of the industry appears to regard expenditure on training as an operating cost to be minimised rather than an investment to be optimalised" (1988, p 27 in Hall, 1998). This appears to be endorsed by research conducted by Jameson (2000) that revealed only 28 per cent of tourism industry firms had a training plan and 19 percent had a training budget.

Results from the current research suggest that the role of education and training in careers in the tourism industry should not be underestimated. Both formal education

and on-the-job training facilitate careers in terms of increased promotion and increased potential for mobility.

2.8 Mobility

The boundaryless career literature suggests that workers will be making more job transitions today, by choice or chance, than under the traditional career systems of the past (Jablonski, 2005). Individuals within the new careers construct voluntarily move into and out of the employment system including changes between jobs, occupations and industries (Korpi and Mertens, 2004). These moves may be intraorganisationally, across projects and jobs within an organisation and interorganisationally, across employers and even occupations. In the current study, the researcher refers to career moves as any change of job (for example upward or sideways movement within the same organisation) or employer (event management in one organisation to event management in another) or industry (teaching to tourism) or geographical location, and uses the terms of 'career moves' and 'mobility' interchangeably throughout this thesis.

Despite evidence that adults are making occupational choices throughout their lifetimes (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996a), relatively little research has been conducted on mobility issues (van der Heijden, 2003). Little information is known on what motivates adults to change occupations and jobs and statistics vary in relation to the level of mobility among workers. In one of the few studies available Arthur et al., (1999) studied 75 individuals spread across nine New Zealand-based occupations ranging from professional/managerial to agricultural, and found 84% had changed

employers. The average tenure of employment lasted four and a half years per job and six years per company.

Although the organisational perspective in respect to staff turnover has been given attention in the literature, the individual's perspective in relation to the propensity to be mobile is an area neglected in career research, particularly in Australia. Despite this dearth of scholarly work, there is some suggestion that the young are more likely to undertake career moves than those in the older age brackets (van der Heijden, 2003; Chelli and Rosti, 2002), those who are dissatisfied with their current employment situation may be motivated to initiate career moves (Blau and Lunz, 1998; Breeden, 1993) and that career moves may be initiated due to personality aspects (Oleski and Subich,1996). Outside the tourism field, Blau and Lunz (1998) examined the effect of professional commitment of 457 medical technologists' intentions to leave their profession. They found that the technologists who were young, less satisfied, and male were more likely to change professions. Breeden (1993) conducted a longitudinal study of job and occupational transitions of 436 employed adults who sought career counselling. Thirty-six percent of the adults changed jobs, 39% changed occupations, and 25% made no changes. Those who changed careers had significantly greater satisfaction than those who made no changes. Similarly, Oleski and Subich (1996) applied Holland's (1985) theory of congruence to the career transitions of 42 non-traditional college students. They found career changers moved towards work environments with greater congruence to their personality.

In addition, it would appear that mobility is influenced more by personal issues than by job and labour market characteristics. Some of these personal aspects include

gender, age, family situation, and level of training; others are associated with the process of socialisation, like relationships with the work colleagues, or attachment to specific occupations or social contexts (Mitchell et al., 2001). Further, the trend to work past retirement age may require workers to change careers (Latack and Dozier, 1986). Surprisingly, the reported aspects affecting the propensity to be mobile do not include career moves aimed at the acquisition of career capital and increasing skills and knowledge as suggested by the new career construct.

Other unanswered questions on mobility relate to how often employees should make career moves to achieve ultimate performance. It is suggested that performance is positively related to the degree of mobility in mid- and late career (van der Heijden, 2003) but that this may differ according to occupation. Beer et al., (1984) suggest that slow movement of personnel or too rapid movement is likely to result in too few opportunities for employees to enlarge their knowledge and skills. In addition, remaining in a position for overly long periods leads to isolation and sterility in thinking (van der Heijden, 2003).

As individuals may move through multiple employers and multiple occupations or jobs during their working life, it is important to note some of the negative impacts associated with this high level of mobility. In a vicious circle, high levels of mobility reduce organisational loyalty, and organisational loyalty manifests itself in lower turnover (Blau, 1986). At the same time, talented managers are told to be less committed to their organisation and more committed to their careers (Hirschs 1993). It may be that the cause is mobility or it may be the consequence of other influences.

2.8.1 Mobility and the organisation

Diminishing organisational loyalty is likely to impact on staff turnover and have implications for the company's competitiveness and human resource management. Therefore understanding the influences on an individual's mobility is crucial in a market with a growing scarcity of, and increased competition for, skilled human resources. Dalton and Todor (1993) contend that firms that offer liberal internal transfer policies, may reduce absenteeism and staff turnover as individuals dissatisfied with their supervisor or desiring a geographic transfer will be able to do so while remaining with the firm.

Interestingly, it would appear that compensation variables such as salary are less influential on an individual's decision to be mobile than organisational aspects that have an impact on the employee's job attractiveness such as job satisfaction and employment stability (de Luis Carnicer et al., 2004). Thus organisational policies need to be addressed to not only facilitate these inevitable multiple transitions of its employees, but also to address the organisational aspects that impact on job attractiveness.

2.8.2 Mobility and gender

Most studies on career mobility and gender have been concentrated on various parts of the labour market such as single firm occupations, specific labour market groups or internal labour markets (Granqvist and Persson, 2005). Few studies have explored any differences in male and female propensity to be mobile in terms of job, organisation, industry or geographic location, although general economic literature suggests women are more likely to change jobs than men. This absence of current

research relating to gender and mobility is again particularly evident in the Australian context. On the international scene, some evidence suggests women have a higher propensity to make career moves than men. One such study explored age and gender differences in the Italian workforce and found that job mobility was greater for both young people and for women (Chelli and Rosti, 2002). Further, a Canadian study found that that over 20% of men and nearly 40% of women with children turned down jobs that involved relocation (Rodgers, 1988 in Haines and Saba, 1999). In terms of upward career mobility, it would appear that there is also some difference between male and female employees. In a Swedish study Granqvist and Persson (2005) found that women's chances of getting a better job are about half those of men and that family-related aspects do affect women's career mobility.

It has been suggested that women are often discriminated against in organisational policy and practices in ways that limit their career mobility (Morrison, 1992) and often women leave their organisations because of this discrimination (Rosen and Korabik, 1991). Some evidence exists to suggest that women are encouraged to leave their organisations to create a greater sense of equity between themselves and their male counterparts (Stroh et al., 1992). Others suggest that women make career moves not only for progression but to attend to such issues as the degree of organisational politics and the availability of career opportunities (Stroh and Reilly, 1997). In a 1997 study, Moore and Buttner, used surveys and interviews to examine the work experience of 128 women entrepreneurs (Buttner and Moore, 1997). They found that the women's decisions to leave corporate firms to become self-employed were motivated by organisational aspects and personal aspirations rather than by family demands.

Yet, in some areas it would appear that policies and practices attempt to address such gender issues relating to mobility and in the area of international mobility, policies and practices have been found to be more responsive to the needs of women than to those of men (Haines and Saba, 1999). Clearly, more research needs to be undertaken in this area.

In addition to occupational boundaries, other traditional boundaries, like those dividing workplace from home and recreation are also being permeated. Career theorists (see Granqvist and Persson 2005; Mitchell et al., 2001; Stroh et al., 1992; Haines and Saba, 1999) have argued that focusing on the perspective of individuals adds to our understanding of how individuals cope with such change.

2.8.3 Mobility in the tourism industry

Tourism is a relatively fragmented industry and comprises high numbers of small to medium sized organisations (Hall, 2003). It is therefore likely that career patterns are characterised by high levels of mobility that may be further stimulated by the current workplace practices. McKercher et al., (1995) found that early career paths in tourism are influenced by graduates' first jobs which were found in a wide array of sectors, including the accommodation industry, the travel trade, local government, the transport sector, the licensed club sector, tourism training, conference organisation and regional trade organisations. This study found that early career paths are typified by relatively short tenure in jobs and, rather than progressing through the ranks of one organisation, graduates are most likely to change employers and often geographic location. On average graduates left their first job after 13.4 months and their second

job after 10.5 months. People who had stayed at the same job for a longer period of time were often motivated to do so for reasons other than career growth. The recipe for early career success appears to be based on quickly securing a job after graduation, and then being prepared to move rapidly between jobs when opportunities arise. Career progress is likely to be enhanced by an individual's willingness to change employers as well as being geographically mobile (McKercher et al., 1995).

Although little research investigating the career development of managers in the tourism industry is available, one particular study focussing on inter-industry mobility that terminated in tourism in Hungary found that 80.63% of the sample had moved into tourism during the 10 year period 1987-1996. Mobility into tourism occurred from every sector of the economy (Riley et al., 2002). Other useful studies have been conducted into the career paths of hotel managers (Baum and Nickson, 1998; Nebel et al., 1994; Ladkin and Laws, 2000; Ladkin and Riley, 1994, 1996; Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000; Riley et al., 2002). The major findings of these studies relate to the high levels of employee mobility and appear to align with the characteristics underpinning the *new career* construct. One study found a dominance of internal company moves initiated by the individuals (Ladkin and Riley, 1996). This same study found managers had seven jobs in their careers and they changed jobs approximately every three to four years. However, a later study (Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000) found a slight dominance of external labour market moves indicating the propensity for managers to look both within their existing companies and at other companies when seeking to advance their careers. Given the high levels of mobility in a hotel manager’s career, it was interesting to find in the study by Ladkin and Juwaheer (2000) that of the 88 job moves generated by the hotel managers, 53.5

percent were initiated by the managers themselves and 46.5 per cent were initiated by the managers' companies. This indicates a slight dominance of self-motivated moves and aligns with the literature on the new career construct.

It would appear that the theme of career mobility in the general career literature appears to correlate with the limited literature on career paths in the tourism industry in general (Baum et al., 1997; Ladkin and Laws, 2000; Barron, 1997; McKercher et al., 1995).

It is useful at this stage to revisit the three forms of knowing or career competencies discussed previously. These forms of knowing are manifested in people's beliefs and identities (knowing why) knowledge and skills (knowing how) and network or relationships (knowing whom). Specifically, the knowing why competency reflects values and motivation, otherwise known as a passion career anchor (Schein, 1978). Knowing why relates to the identity of an individual and the fit between this identity and choices made relative to tasks, projects and organisations. Knowing how refers to the skills and knowledge needed for performance on the job. Knowing whom refers to the relationship or links that contribute to an individual's networking activities. The following section of this chapter concentrates on the knowing whom aspect of career development by exploring the current thinking on mentoring and developmental relationships.

2.9 Mentorship

As a result of the changing employment environment discussed previously in this chapter, people can no longer expect their careers to develop within one or even two

organisations that offer stability and long term employment. Individuals need to take more control of their career and implement self-management strategies to enhance career growth. It is not surprising, therefore, that mentorship has become a popular self management tool. This is not to suggest that mentoring is a new initiative from the perspective of both the individual and the organisation, but acknowledges the growing role of mentorship as a human resource management tool.

2.9.1 Mentorship defined

Mentorship, like tourism discussed above, suffers with problems of definition. Traditional definitions of mentoring assume a dyadic relationship in which the more experienced organisational member helped to guide the career of a younger organisational member, to "navigate the world of work" (Kram 1985, p.2) and to move up the organisation's hierarchy (Ragins, 1997). A mentor is "one of the most complex and developmentally important relationships…the mentor is ordinarily several years older, a person of greater experience and seniority…a teacher, adviser or sponsor" (Levinson et al., 1978, p. 97).

However, changes in organisational structures and changes in the workplace generally have necessitated a shift in the way mentorship is conceptualised. The resulting complexities and challenges in the contemporary environment make the traditional, "single master-apprentice mentor model insufficient" (de Janasz and Sullivan 2004, p. 264). Mentoring scholars have long debated the broadening of the definition of mentoring to incorporate more informal relationships as they acknowledge the need for individuals to consider relying not just on one but on multiple, diverse individuals to provide needed development to succeed in their chosen career (Baugh and

Scandura, 1999; Higgins, 2000; Higgins and Kram, 2001; Thomas and Higgins, 1996; Kram, 1985).

Although survey instruments in some empirical studies specifically define mentoring (eg Baugh and Scandura, 1999), it appears that lacking a formal, agreed upon definition, both researchers and practitioners have very different ideas of what constitutes a mentor. In the literature, concepts are sometimes interpreted as substitutes, for example, networking is seen as a viable substitute for mentoring (Forrett and Dougherty, 2001). Many use the term mentor interchangeably with coach, sponsor and colleague, yet these roles may involve very different types of relationships and support (de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004).

There is, however, no general agreement that the terms are interchangeable. In a study of university faculty members in the Netherlands, Van Emmerik (2004b) explored the relationship between mentoring constellations and intrinsic career success. Mentoring and developmental networking were separately measured. The findings of this study indicated that having developmental contacts is not so much a substitute, but has an incremental effect, on top of having a mentor to achieve valued outcomes. It should be noted, however, that the same study replicated and reinforced the idea that mentoring of any type, is a critical resource to facilitate employees' careers (see Baugh and Scandura, 1999; de Janasz and Sullivan, 2004; Ragins et al., 2000).

Others suggest that while mentoring and developmental relationships have several common attributes in that both have the potential to support development at

successive career stages, several important differences between these two can be identified. In a study of the role of peer relationships on career development, Kram and Isabella (1985) found that, firstly, conventional mentoring relationships tend to have significant differences in age and hierarchical level while in developmental relationships with peers, one of these variables is usually the same. Second, mentoring relationships involve a one-way helping dynamic while peer relationships involve a two-way exchange (Kram and Isabella, 1985).

Rather than continue this debate on definition, it would be more useful to accept that mentoring relationships have changed and evolved as have organisations and individuals, to adapt to the changing nature of today's career environment. Some scholars will continue to see mentoring and developmental networking as distinct and separate phenomena (Van Emmerik, 2004a and 2004b), while others suggest mentoring is a multiple relationship phenomenon (Higgins and Kram, 2001). Although noting the technical differences between mentoring, developmental networks, instrumental networking and career communities (Molloy, 2005), the researcher has used the term mentorship to embrace all mentoring relationships, developmental networking relationships and other supportive networks, to avoid participant confusion. As suggested by Baugh and Sullivan (2005, p. 426), "mentoring relationships need not necessarily be dyadic, as different forms of group mentoring have been proposed. Mentoring relationships are no longer considered to be relatively rare and may occur sequentially or simultaneously." This amalgamation of the various supportive relationships under the 'mentorship' term is endorsed by the results of the current study. It is clear that the respondents in this particular study

perceive mentoring as including both traditional mentoring programs and other developmental relationships.

For this study mentorship is divided into formal and informal as discussed in Section 2.9.3 of this thesis.

2.9.2 Benefits of mentorship

Mentorship has been the focus of much research and discussion over the past two decades, and although there is not general agreement on definitional issues, there appears to be general agreement that mentoring relationships have great potential to enhance the development of individuals in both early and middle career stages (Kram, 1985; Ragins et al., 2000).

Mentoring relationships are thought to be beneficial by providing career development aid or instrumental support (Higgins, 2001; Allen and Finkelstein, 2003) that facilitates the protégé's advancement in the organisation (Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Whitely et al., 1991; Kram, 1985). Career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection and providing challenging assignments. Such support could provide the individual with an introduction to a professional association that might assist in 'opening doors', resulting in new or different employment offers or could enable an individual to be informed about new opportunities in a timely manner (Higgins, 2001). In a recent study, information support (for example mentors acting as a sounding board for discussing issues), was listed by 46% of respondents as important support behaviour (Levesque et al., 2005).

The second benefit from mentoring relationships is in the provision of psychosocial functions or emotional support (Higgins, 2001) that contribute to the protégé's personal growth and professional development (Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Kram, 1985; Waters, 2004). Psychosocial functions include role modelling, acceptance and confirmation, counselling, and friendship (Higgins and Thomas, 2001). This type of emotional caring and friendship confirms one's sense of self and increases an individual's confidence and sense of identity (Kram, 1985). This is an important point for the current research as an individual's confidence to overcome career obstacles is expected to increase an individual's willingness to change careers (Higgins, 2001) and this suggests a link between mentorship and career mobility discussed later in this chapter. The five most identified mentoring behaviours include championing, exposure and visibility, coaching, informational support and political assistance (Cohen et al., 1985; Kram, 1985, Ragins and Cotton, 1999).

Much of the literature reports studies on individual-level aspects that account for successful mentoring relationships including sex role orientation (Scandura and Ragins, 1993) and protégé and mentor race and gender (Ragins and Cotton, 1993, Thomas, 1990). Gender issues are discussed in more detail in Section 2.8.6 below. Other studies have explored organisation-level aspects that affect the growth of developmental relationships such as organisational culture (Aryee et al., 1996), and hierarchical structure (Ragins and Cotton, 1991) and diversity (Ragins, 1997b).

In addition to research into individual-level and organisation-level aspects affecting relationship development, much work into the outcomes of traditional mentoring relationships has been undertaken. Comparisons of nonmentored and mentored

individuals, reveal positive outcomes in areas of enhanced career development (Kram, 1985), career progression (Zey, 1984), higher rates of promotion and compensation (Whitely et al., 1991), career satisfaction (Fagenson, 1989; Riley and Wrench, 1985), career commitment (Colarelli and Bishop, 1990), career mobility (Scandura, 1992) and clarity of professional identity and sense of competence (Kram, 1985). It is important to note that in almost all these studies, traditional mentoring focusing on single or primary mentoring relationships a protégé has experienced over the course of their career has been the focus.

Before moving away from the literature exploring the benefits of mentorship, it should be noted that the majority of scholarly attention has been directed to the perspective of the mentee or protégé. However, it should be noted that while research on the benefits to the mentor or the mentoring organisation are limited there is some suggestion that the benefits to the mentor include gaining internal satisfaction and the respect from colleagues for successfully developing younger talent (Ragins and Cotton, 1993; Kram and Isabella, 1985).

In not such a positive light, it has been suggested that the main motive for mentors is their own career development and a self-serving drive (Allen, 2003). Furthermore, there is a tendency for the relatively young employees to want to be a mentor so organisations need to address mentor selection with care. It may not be effective to have relatively inexperienced people, especially those with high career aspirations, to undertake the mentoring role (Van Emmerik et al., 2005).

For the organisation, the benefits of mentorship are evident. Organisations with mentoring programs benefit through management development and succession planning (Murphy and Ensher, 2001).

2.9.3 Formal and informal mentoring

Both formal and informal mentoring types are relevant to the current research. Formal mentoring relationships develop with organisational assistance or intervention and usually develop through the assignment of members to the relationships by a third party. Such formal mentoring programs have been defined as follows: "In order to assist individuals in their development and advancement, some organisations have established formal mentoring programs, where protégés and mentors are linked in some way" (Ragins et al., 2000, p. 1182). Formal programs have been identified as an emerging trend in the new millennium.

Informal relationships, in contrast, develop by mutual identification: mentors choose protégés whom they view as younger versions of themselves and protégés select mentors whom they view as role models. Informal mentors are motivated to enter the relationship by mutual identification and development needs (Ragins et al., 2000).

Although formal and informal mentoring programs have been the subject of recent studies, there is little evidence to suggest one is more effective than the other. While Chao et al., (1992) found that formal and informally mentored individuals did not significantly differ in reports of job satisfaction or organisational socialisation, Seibert (1999) found that formally mentored employees reported greater job satisfaction than nonmentored employees. In another study protégés in informal relationships reported

that their mentors provided more psychosocial functions than in protégés in formal relationships (Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997).

2.9.4 Multiple mentoring relationships

Although some recent theoretical work has suggested alternative forms of mentoring relationships as being helpful to individuals in adapting to organisational change (Eby, 1997; Kram and Hall, 1996), only a few studies have examined sources of mentoring support beyond traditional or primary mentor (Higgins and Kram, 2001). Scholars have yet to directly solicit from protégés a set of concurrent relationships that are specifically developmental in nature that include but do not limit themselves to Kram's relationship constellation construct (Higgins and Kram, 2001), and Mullen (1994, p. 258) suggests "we have yet to agree on whether a mentor can be one's immediate supervisor or if that type of relationship has different characteristics and outcomes than a mentor".

The move away from the idea of a traditional dyadic mentoring relationship is well established. Kram and Isabella (1985) examined peer relationships and the support they can provide almost 20 years ago. More recently Higgins and Kram (2001) have further developed the work of Arthur and Rousseau (1996a) and Hall (1996) to link changes to mentoring relationships to changes in the nature of the career environment. As a result of changes to the psychological contract discussed previously in this chapter, with job security becoming a phenomenon of the past (Pfeffer, 1997) and organisational restructuring, it has been suggested that individuals may need to look beyond the organisation to multiple relationships to provide the necessary developmental assistance (Thomas and Higgins, 1996).

Van Emmerik (2004a) also suggests that in today's dynamic career environment, having a variety of different types of mentoring relationships is perhaps indispensable. The advantages of multiple developmental relationships have been well documented. By fostering developmental relationships beyond the boundaries of a single organisation, a more 'cosmopolitan' or outward orientation could result and could lead to specific information that could enhance one's career development (Higgins and Thomas, 2001). As organisational structures are changing, the protégé's ability to rely on one mentor inside the organisation may not be practical as the mentor may be subject to relocation, job redefinition, or organisational change (Higgins and Kram, 2001). Having a network of mentors can provide a protégé with a variety of developers with different perspectives, knowledge and skills and who can serve different mentoring functions by providing career related or emotional support (Baugh and Scandura, 1999; Eby, 1997; Higgins, 2000; Kram and Isabella, 1985). In addition, relationships with bosses, subordinates, and peers offer alternatives to the formal mentoring relationship that is often unavailable to many individuals in organisations (Kram, 1985; Levinson et al., 1978). The lack of hierarchical dimension in many of these relationships might make it easier to achieve communication, mutual support and collaboration than it would be in a more formal mentoring relationship (Kram and Isabella, 1985).

Clearly the notion of mentoring for the provision of career and psychosocial support is still important. What appears to have changed is the issue of who provides such support and how such support is provided. Several terms have been used to encompass this range of mentoring relationships. As scholars have revisited Kram's

(1985) original proposal that individuals rely upon not just one but multiple individuals for developmental support in their careers, the term 'relationship constellations' has re-emerged (Baugh and Scandura, 1999; Higgins, 2000; Thomas and Higgins, 1996). This concept suggests that individuals receive mentoring assistance from many people at any point in time, including senior colleagues, peers, parents, siblings, community members, and significant others (Higgins and Kram, 2001; Palladino Schultheiss et al, 2001). Higgins and Kram (2001) discuss theory and methods from social network research to assist in understanding mentoring as a multiple developmental relationship phenomenon and although it is not appropriate to begin a discourse into such theories and methods in this review, this type of research extends the mentoring literature beyond its traditional dyadic focus to emphasise the importance of multiple developmental relationships or a developmental network perspective (Higgins and Kram, 2001).

There are four central themes to the developmental network perspective: developmental networks, developmental relationships, developmental network diversity and relationship strength. An individual's developmental network comprises a set of people a protégé names as taking an active interest in and action to advance the protégé's career by providing developmental assistance. It should be noted that a development network does not consist all of the individual's interpersonal relationships but relates to those whom the protégé names as having had a positive influence on their career development (Molloy, 2005). The concept of network diversity refers to the range of relationships and the extent to which the people in a network know or are connected to one another. Finally, relationship strength is the level of emotional affect and reciprocity (Higgins and Kram, 2001).

With the exception of a few studies (see Baugh and Scandura, 1999; Dobrow and Higgins, 2005), mentoring research has focused on a single or primary relationship or on the cumulative mentoring a protégé has received over time (Higgins and Kram, 2001). In one of the first longitudinal studies on mentoring relationships Higgins and Thomas (2001) aimed to compare the effects of a single developmental relationship to the effects of constellations of developmental relationships on protégé career outcomes. They found that while the quality of one's primary mentor affects short-term career outcomes such as work satisfaction and the intention to remain with one's firm, it is the composition and quality of an individual's entire constellation of developmental relationships that account for long-run protégé career outcomes such as organisational retention and promotion. Interestingly, age and organisational tenure impact on mentoring relationships. In a study of consistency in goals and perceptions of mentoring dyads, Fagenson-Eland et al., (2005) found that when there is a large difference in organisational tenure or age between the mentor and protégé, there is less perceptual agreement with respect to the extent of developmental support provided.

2.9.5 Marginal or negative mentoring

Not all the literature on mentoring suggests positive outcomes. Mentoring researchers are beginning to recognise that there may be considerable variation in the level of satisfaction obtained from mentoring relationships (Ragins and Scandura, 1999). Despite many successful mentoring relationships, some may be marginally satisfying, dissatisfying, dysfunctional or even harmful (Eby et al., 2000; Scandura, 1998). Research suggests that while the proportion of dysfunctional or harmful relationships

has been found to be relatively low (Ragins and Scandura, 1997), substantial proportions of mentors may be rated as marginal (Ragins et al., 2000). Individuals in highly satisfying mentoring relationships are more likely to have positive attitudes than nonmentored individuals but the attitude of those in dissatisfying or marginally satisfying relationships are equivalent to those of non-mentored individuals (Ragins et al., 2000).

Recent studies have investigated these less positive aspects of mentoring relationships. Relational problems associated with truly dysfunctional mentor-protégé relations was explored by Scandura in 1998. In another study, 15 specific types of experiences that protégés report as characterising negative mentoring relationships were explored (Eby et al., 2000). In the same study, 54% of 156 proteges in a wide range of industries and occupations reported being in at least one negative mentoring relationship at some stage. A follow up study linked the incidence of these experiences to protégé outcomes such as stress, turnover intentions and job satisfaction (Eby and Allen, 2002). On a slightly different tact, a study of education, training and development activities, the least useful programs were reportedly networking outside the company and sponsors (Burke, 1998).

Practitioner literature also provides warnings about the negative aspects of mentoring, citing problems such as interpersonal incompatibilities, technically or interpersonally inept mentors, power-mongering mentors and situations where mentors might become resentful and jealous of their proteges' success (Simon and Eby, 2003).

2.9.6 Mentoring and gender

As mentioned previously, high numbers of female employees participated in the current study. To assist in the analysis and interpretation of the results of the current study, some discussion of variations between genders in relation to mentoring is useful.

Attention to gender and mentoring in the literature is quite extensive and quite diverse. Existing research recognises many differences between men and women in mentoring relationships and suggests that mentorship is a particularly valuable career assistance tool for women (Burke and McKeen, 1990, Ragins, 1999). It can assist women address problems with the informal 'old boys network' that has been identified as a major hurdle for women managers to career success and advancement (Guerrier, 1986; Ng et al., 2002).

Mentorship enables women to access key resources and senior personnel, and helps increase their knowledge of organisational policies (Headlam-Wells 2004). In a study of 18 women managers who had received mentoring "the female managers revealed that they had more realistic expectations of their careers; they had learned the political skills of organisational life faster than if they had not been involved in the mentoring process, and they had matured and increased in self-confidence" (Monks, 1998, p. 173). In a later study female mentees believed that mentors provide "information, training, advice, career direction and were important for introducing them to the formal networks which existed in their organisations" (Linehan and Walsh, 1999, p. 349). This is contrary to previous research that suggested that women do not receive as great a 'payoff' for networking activity as do men (Ibarra, 1992).

In a study of a number of managerial and professional women in business participation rates in 14 education, training and development activities and the usefulness of each activity were measured, the role of developmental relationships – mentors and sponsors – was listed as the most beneficial. Yet evidence suggested that women have more difficulty obtaining this personal support than do men (Burke and McKeen, 1994a, 1994b). Some studies suggest differences in how males and females respond to mentoring support, such as Brownell (1994), who suggested that female and male managers differed significantly in their opinions of the importance of the aspect 'mentoring' (mean scores in a 1-6 ranking were women, 3.88; men, 4.34). However, in other studies (Ng and Pine, 2003) opinions between both were relatively similar (women 4.54; men 4.52). In an extensive study of alumni who had graduated from an MBA program between 1980 and 1995, there was relatively little difference between men's and women's perceptions of important mentoring behaviour (Levesque et al., 2005).

Research has, however, established that although mentoring relationships may be particularly important for the advancement of women in organisations, there are limited numbers of mentors available to women compared to men (Burke and McKeen, 1994a). The reason for this is generally that women may not seek mentors and that mentors may not select female mentees (Ragins, 1989).

Other research into the differences between men's and women's mentoring relationships found that female mentors provide more psychosocial support than male mentors and male mentors tend to emphasise career-related support more than female

mentors (Allen and Eby, 2004) Apart from the studies mentioned above, the focus of most of the research into comparing men and women have focused on which sex is more likely to consider having a mentor, the extent of help offered or received, and mentoring outcomes (Levesque et al., 2005). In summary, there is little evidence to suggest that women respond more positively or negatively to mentoring than their male counterparts.

2.9.7 Mentorship and mobility

There is little information in the literature linking mentorship to mobility. However, in the new economy a strong "network of relationships with colleagues, friends, and other associates who provide information that aids in the worker's development of career opportunities" contributes to mobility and leads to more rewards and higher career satisfaction (Sullivan, 1999, p. 468-469).

Social networks were seen to support the high rates of job mobility and continuous learning in a case study of professionals in the Silicon Valley (Saxenian, 1996). The same study detailed how the region's open labour markets made job changes the norm and encouraged loyalty based on professional relationships, rather than organisational membership. Individuals seeking to cross the boundaries of multiple firms should be more successful if they develop large and diverse networks (Sullivan, 1999).

In a study by Conger (2002) most people got their present jobs or 'careers' by happenstance, not by long term planning for their career. As some of the attributes of mentorship include information sharing, career strategising, exposure and visibility and personal feedback (Kram and Isabella, 1985) it follows that the benefits of

mentorship should not be underestimated and individuals should be encouraged to foster and embrace such opportunities.

Whether due to the relative youth of the mentoring network concept or perceived measurement issues, we have yet to study the effects of a particular configuration or constellation of mentors. Questions regarding the mix of mentors between formal and informal relationships, relationships internal and external to the organisation or profession, and the mix of mentoring and peer relationships need to be addressed. Further, how the optimal mix of mentors may vary by occupation, industry or career life stage needs to be studied.

It is important to note that no tourism specific studies of the role and impact of mentoring relations in the industry have yet to emerge. The current study will address this gap.

2.10 Conclusion

Whether or not the traditional career is disappearing (Guest and McKenzie-Davey, 1996), scholars are now reconceptualising the concept of a career. Today's changing career context renders the accepted developmental models "less effective in understanding, predicting and responding to a particular individual's career concerns" (Kram, 1996, p. 136). These reconceptualisations make the individual, the organisation and the career problematic and existing career theories are ill-prepared to incorporate these newly emerging constructions of career (Collin, 1998). In the current employment climate, it would appear that individuals, not organisations, are responsible for their own career development (McDonald et al., 2005). The new

career is also sometimes depicted in terms of a ‘new deal’, where the psychological contract that exists between employer and employee has changed to reflect the fact that there is no longer a promise of an expectation of a career for life (Herriot and Pemberton, 1995).

Keeping in mind the criticisms of the new career construct, clearly some attention needs to be given to careers in the new climate. As established above, careers are unfolding in a new economy in which uncertainty has superseded the more stable social, political and economic context. The new career operates in a labour market that now expect individuals to assume greater personal responsibility for understanding their own needs, determining their own goals, and managing their own careers (Parker et al., 2004). In addition, the new psychological contract has seen changed employment loyalties and the introduction of more casual, project, and contract-based working arrangements. Clearly, new challenges face workers in such a time of change.

Proponents of the new challenges facing workers suggest that although the new concept appears daunting, there is much to suggest it is advantageous to careerists and offers opportunity and a new level of freedom. These include increasing variation in career and employment patterns (Higgins, 2001) and a sense of freedom, vitality, and desirability (Truty, 2003).

In the new paradigm, managers will adapt to the changing needs of the company. The company undertakes to add labour market value to employees by helping them acquire portable and marketable skills – employability. Employability replaces security. Self-determination is the underlying principle governing the organisation and in this vein individuals manage their own careers (Nicholson, 1996). To successfully manage the new career, the worker must develop relevant career-related competencies and accumulate career capital because one's job security depends on future employability (Sullivan and Emerson, 2000; Valcour and Snell, 2002). Boundless energy; self-directedness; inter- and intrapersonal and networking skills; insatiable willingness, ability, and opportunity to engage in continuous learning; self-marketing skills; goal setting ability; possession of entrepreneurial skills; and creativity underpin the development of a career (Ardichvili, 2003; Beck, 2003; Schied, 2003). Such skills have been bundled into categorical labels including 'knowing-why' (personal motives and values one attaches to work), 'knowing-how' (the resources one brings to one's work), and 'knowing-whom' (social relationships that somehow affect both the working and social life) (Arthur et al., 2003; Clarke, 2001; Imel, 2001).

For some time, mentoring has been recognised as an important developmental relationship, benefiting the careers of mentors and protégés alike. As a result of the new economy and the uncertainties of the new career construct in which individuals are expected to assume greater personal responsibility for understanding their own needs, determining their own goals, and managing their own careers, mentorship is perhaps more important to career success than at any other time.

The traditional idea of mentoring has developed into discussions of social networks and other relationships aimed at support. Career communities are self-organising member-defined social structures through which individuals draw career support (Parker, 2002). More recently, emphasis has been placed on understanding the nature of the relationship itself and the context within which such relationships are developed.

According to the new career concepts, less attention should be paid to the 'old fashioned' understanding of the perfect career, defined by traditions and institutions. Rather, careers should be personally specified paths that overcome organisational, occupational and geographical restrictions and boundaries. However careful studies of emerging career attitudes and their implementation and legitimisation are still lacking, particularly in tourism. If career management is an individual rather than an organisational responsibility, how do companies foster organisational commitment and loyalty, how do they maintain employee motivation and job satisfaction? On the other hand, how do individuals remain marketable, know what opportunities are available in their industry, make positive career moves and, in general, manage their own careers. A model of career development linking social demographics, motivation, education, mobility and mentoring may be a useful tool for addressing some of these human resource issues.

In summary the ‘old’ meaning of a career is a course of professional advancement restricted to occupations with formal hierarchical progression. The ‘new’ meaning reflects the unfolding sequence of any person’s work experiences over time (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996b). As both the general *career* literature and the specific *tourism*

career literature place emphasis on mobility (career moves), education and mentoring, the current research linking these three influences on tourism careers will provide current and future tourism employees with tools on which to build their careers.

Chapter 3

Theoretical Considerations

The aim of this research is to develop a model of influences on careers in the Australian tourism industry. It is hoped that the findings from this research will provide stakeholders with information so they can further understand the environment of tourism employment. The results of this research should also assist current and future employees with career choices and decisions as well as provide the industry itself with a platform on which to base planning and development of human resource management practices.

Chapter 2 of this thesis provides a summary of the current state of career related research, and Chapter 4 outlines a methodology for testing the model of career development in the tourism industry in Australia. In the current chapter the theoretical considerations that underpin the framework for the development of this model are discussed.

Fundamentally, four major pieces of work underpin the framework of this model. These works by Ruddy (1995a), Arthur, Inkson, and Pringle (1999), Riley, Ladkin, and Szivas (2002) and Ayres (2006a and 2006b) provide the foundation of the model presented in this chapter. Each of these works is discussed below and a summary of how each work has contributed to the development of a model of influences on careers in the tourism industry is provided at the end of the discussion of each work. Limitations to each piece of work are also outlined.

3.1 Stage 1 of model development

***The Career Development of Hotel Managers: Towards a Model of Individual Career Planning and Management* – Thesis submitted by Nicholas Joseph Ruddy, University of Salford, Doctor of Philosophy (1995)**

Nicholas Joseph Ruddy completed his doctoral Thesis entitled *The Career Development of Hotel Managers: Towards a Model of Individual Career Planning and Management* at the Department of Business and Management Studies, University of Salford. The aim of Ruddy's study was "to develop a conceptual understanding of career development of individual hotel managers and to highlight particular areas pertinent to career planning and management" (p. 2). The model of Influences on Careers in Tourism presented later in this Chapter builds on all aspects of Ruddy's model that is discussed below but some reorganisation of variables and a redistribution of emphasis is evident. In summary, the major contribution from Ruddy is the influence of education, mobility, and personal and social aspects on career development.

At the time of Ruddy's research, the knowledge of career development of hotel managers was at a rudimentary level, rather than supported by a valid set of theories or conceptual models. The preliminary research involved a pilot study to identify the parameters for a model of career development. Keeping with the exploratory nature of this study, focus group interviews were conducted in which managers were encouraged to talk about their careers, events, influences and aspects that helped them achieve their current status of hotel manager. They were also encouraged to discuss preparations they made for their personal career development, such as education,

training and development. Four parameters were identified which relate to individual career development of hotel managers:

- Career path
- Influences for career progression
- Skills and experiences for career development
- Education and training in career development

From these key parameters, a range of research questions was identified to examine and investigate: age, education, career mobility, career influences, learning experiences, competencies, training and development. The information collected during this preliminary research became the basis for a more formal questionnaire and in-depth interviews of a sample of hotel managers in Hong Kong. The four parameters identified above formed the basis of this next stage of his research. These four parameters are discussed below.

3.1.1 Parameter 1: Career Path

The objective of parameter 1 was to identify the importance of age, education and mobility in career development.

The results from Ruddy's research indicated that on average hotel managers were appointed to their first assistant manager position by age of 30 and their appointment as hotel manager came about 5-6 years later. On average a hotel manager worked for four separate hotel organisations and held approximately eight separate jobs throughout their career. This represents a move every two years.

Other results suggest that hotel managers are relatively well-educated with 78% having a college or university degree of which 6% held post graduate qualifications.

Clearly, a college or university qualification is becoming essential for those who aspire to manage a large deluxe hotel.

3.1.2 Parameter 2: Influences and Success Aspects

The objective of Parameter 2 was to identify the key influences for career progression and the success aspects that hotel managers believe helped them to career success. The following list of statements is based on the hotel managers' real experiences (Table 6.10, p. 415)

- an ability to work with a variety of people
- a need to achieve results
- an ability to develop new ideas
- a willingness to accept a challenge
- a width of experience in many functions
- a sound technical training
- an ability to change my managerial style as needed
- a desire to seek new opportunities
- a willingness to take risks
- leadership experience early in my career
- an ability to work long hours
- early overall responsibility for important tasks
- a good education background
- an ability to negotiate deals
- a determination to get to the top ahead of others
- visibility to top management
- family support
- a manager early in my career who acted as a model
- developing and using political skills
- off-the-job management development training

In Ruddy's findings, *an ability to work with a variety of people* was cited as the most important influence on success for a hotel manager followed by a deeply felt *need to achieve results* and *accept challenges.* The potential to *develop new ideas* combined with a *broad experience*, a *willingness to take risks* and the *opportunity to take responsibility* were all found to influence success.

3.1.3 Parameter 3: Skills and Experience

The objective of Parameter 3 was to determine what hotel managers had to learn to perform once on the job, what they found took up most of their time, and what was difficult in the job.

Results suggested that people management, operation planning, controlling standards, communication skills, delegation and technical knowledge were fundamental skills for a hotel manager. Education in the business aspects of management such as financial control, marketing and sales skills were deemed important but played a relatively lesser role in the hotel manager's ongoing development than those listed above.

3.1.4 Parameter 4: Education and Training

The objective of Parameter 4 was to ascertain which approaches to hotel management education and training held the most promise in the career development of managers. Comprehensive research was conducted in the countries that are the major worldwide providers of hotel management education to explore which approaches to hotel management and training hold the most promise. Additional research aimed to identify what hotel managers had learned in their career, their competencies, skills and knowledge.

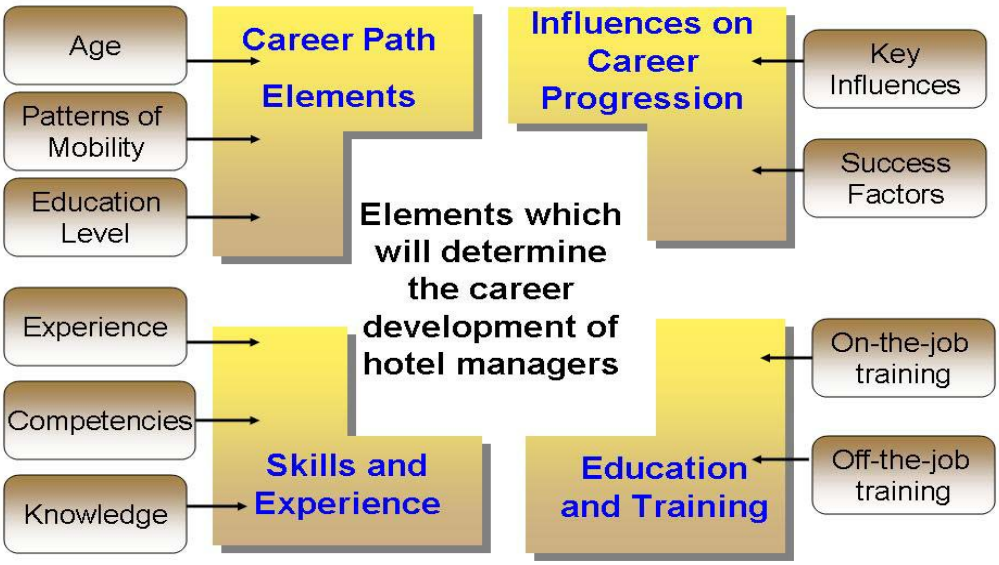
The results indicated that much of a hotel manager's time was spent planning, conducting routine inspections, in meetings, communicating with staff and completing

paperwork. Managing people was clearly the most difficult task of a hotel manager along with communication and understanding people. Research showed that many aspiring hotel managers enter the career path well versed in technical knowledge and skills but lacked the human relations knowledge and skills.

Hotel management courses need to be combined with a planned process of continuing development over a number of years. The need for both on-the-job and off-the job development became apparent.

From the research findings, Ruddy developed a model of career development of hotel managers. This model is shown in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1 - Model of career development of hotel managers



(Ruddy, 1995a, p. 541)

Ruddy's research also suggests that developmental variables also impact on the career development for Hotel Managers. Among these developmental variables are personal aspects including:

- Career choice
- Gender
- Individual choice
- Learning ability
- Life styles
- Personal competence
- Self concept
- Self esteem
- Self knowledge

And societal aspects including:

- Cultural influences
- Economic influences
- Educational opportunities
- Ethnic influences
- Family
- Genetic endowment
- Learning experiences
- Social change
- Societal influence

Ruddy emphasised the need for a new way of thinking in respect to career development. This required a fresh look at career development practices rather than "simply grafting onto a traditional system that de-emphasises individual responsibility" (p 42). Ruddy's study had two clear aims. The first was to identify those aspects that will determine the career development of hotel managers and the second was to identify those aspects which will contribute to their effective performance once in the hotel manager's role. It is the first aim that provides grounding for the current research and is used as a basis for the development of a model of influences on careers in tourism.

Although this research provides a useful framework for the current study, there are some limitations to note and these are discussed below.

Ruddy's research was specifically focused on the hotel industry, which is only one sector of the tourism industry. There are, however, some synergies with the wider tourism population. At the time of this study, hospitality education was only 15 years old and except for a few exceptions, hotels had yet to make good use of newly qualified graduates. In Australia, tourism education is approximately 20 years old and much anecdotal evidence suggests a similar lack of unity between industry and education. A study by McKercher et al., (1995) found graduates from the Charles Sturt University were highly employable, but more than half were not employed in the tourism industry.

Ruddy's research was conducted in the 1980s. As established in Chapter 2, the career environment has considerably changed since this time. Regardless, this work provides a useful basis for further developing research into career influences.

This research focussed on hotel managers and the hotel industry provides managers with a clear career path, well-established, clearly defined and well- researched roles and a stable employment environment. Careers within other sectors of the tourism industry may not have the same employment climate. The findings from the current study may provide a clearer picture of employment in the wider tourism industry.

3.2 The contribution to the current model of influences on careers in tourism

- **Education** and training is clearly a key influence on career development of hotel managers.

- **Education** and training can be
  - ⇒ Formal education
  - ⇒ On-the-job training
  - ⇒ Off-the-job training

- **Mobility** is a key influence on career development of hotel managers

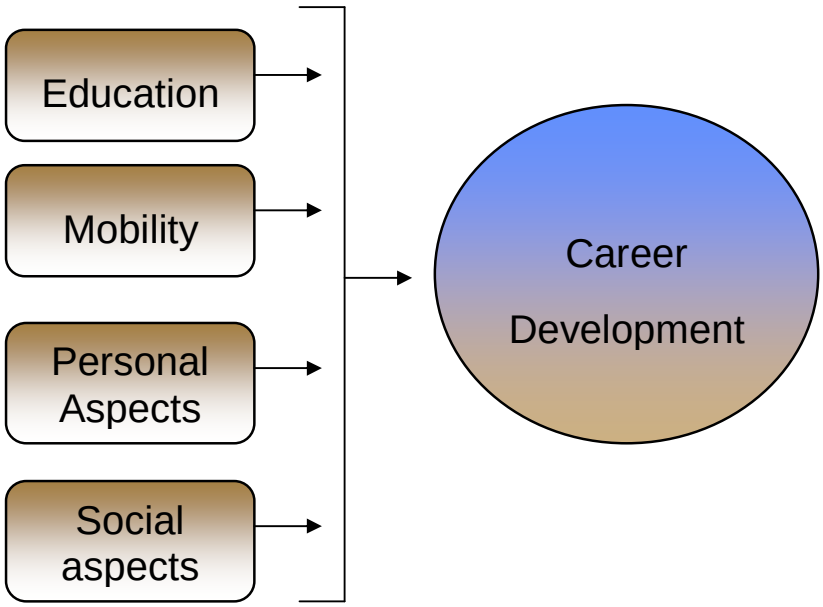
- **Mobility** can refer to
  - ⇒ Organisational moves
  - ⇒ Job moves
  - ⇒ Geographical moves

- **Personal aspects** influence career development of hotel managers

- **Social aspects** influence career development of hotel managers

Based on the discussion above, the foundations of a model of influences on careers in tourism can be laid as shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2 - Stage 1: Model of influences on careers in tourism



3.3 Stage 2 of model development

Arthur, M.B., Inkson, K., and Pringle, J.K., (1999) *The New Careers: Individual Action and Economic Change*

In addition to the contributions of Ruddy discussed earlier in this chapter, the researcher has incorporated the findings of a New Zealand study by Arthur, Inkson and Pringle in the development of the model of influences on careers in tourism. In summary, the contributions by Arthur et al include the notion that careers can not be viewed as independent aspects of a person's life, but rather are enacted within the context of the personal circumstances of the individual. This enactment results in a career story. The authors reinforce the issue of mobility introduced by Ruddy earlier in this chapter and go on to suggest that through this mobility, the career actor amasses career capital which further enhances opportunities for career change. Arthur

et al examine the individual as a key player in the creation of the career story and motivation and social demographics were suggested as key influences on career development. These contributions by Arthur et al (1999) are discussed in detail below.

The intention of this book was to gather data about new career realities and to relate that data to new theories about careers .

> The purpose in this study was to gather a set of contemporary 'career stories' as a database to enable us to explore and develop common themes and mechanisms covering objective careers, subjective careers, career motivations, job-to-job transitions…We were also interested in the effects of key external stakeholders – partners, families, employers, workmates, unions, professionals and trade institutions, and informal networks – on career moves. (p. 24)

The data was collected in New Zealand, a country representative in population make-up, economic development, and political status of the western block of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) of which it is a member. To create a sample of career actors broadly representative of the present workforce, the authors used statistical information on gender, ethnic origin, and nine major occupational groups.

They excluded people under 25, thereby anticipating at least five years of career experiences and also excluded retired people. Where potential participants were not currently in the workforce, they were included if they had been in the workforce during the previous five years or hoped to return to it in the next five. Seventy-five case histories were compiled across nine distinct occupational groups ranging from top management positions to basic jobs such as garbage collector (p 25). Further

details of the sample are provided in Table 3.1 In summary, the sample included 39 men and 36 women, 61 Caucasians and 14 non-Caucasians. These numbers align approximately with the gender and ethnic distributions in the national workforce. The ages of participants ranged from 25 to 66 with a median of 42.

Table 3.1 - Overview of the research sample

Occupational Group	Number	Male	Female	Caucasian	Non-Caucasian	Average age	Age range
Legislators Administrators and managers	11	5	6	9	2	37	27-48
Professionals	13	6	7	12	1	44	25-56
Technicians and Associate professionals	8	3	5	6	2	42	26-56
Clerks	8	1	7	6	2	37	25-50
Service and sales workers	11	5	6	9	2	44	26-58
Agricultural and fishery workers	7	5	2	7	0	41	26-56
Trades workers	6	6	0	5	1	44	32-51
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	5	4	1	4	1	42	26-66
Elementary occupations	6	4	2	2	4	40	28-54
Total	**75**	**39**	**36**	**60**	**15**	**42**	**25-66**

(Arthur, Inkson, Pringle, 1999, p. 28)

The sample was drawn from within one metropolitan area and the surrounding countryside. The authors made random selections from the telephone book, and asked individuals about their work experience to see if they fitted an available slot in their ideal sample. If they met all criteria they were invited for a 1-1.5 hour interview. These interviews were taped and transcribed. The transcripts were read, analysed, and coded by all three authors. The content analysis covered voluntary versus involuntary job changes, industry, occupation and geographic mobility, and the reciprocal benefits participants gave and received for each job they held. The data were transferred to the

qualitative analysis computer program NUD*IST to assist in subsequent analysis. The research intended to highlight global phenomena rather than be limited to any social or occupational group.

The work of Karl Weick (1968 in Arthur and Rousseau, 1996a) on the enactment of careers provided the framework for the work of Arthur, Inkson and Pringle. Career theory, unlike other approaches to the study of work and employment emphasises the time perspective through which experience unfolds. This perspective asserts that we can understand each step in the development of a career by reference to the 'evolving sequence' of steps which precede and influence it.

An underlying premise of this research is that the career climate is characterised by high mobility. Arthur et al believe that mobility was traditionally viewed as the exception and has been assumed to be 'bad' for both companies and individuals. For the company, a high level of mobility results in the need for companies to constantly replace lost skills and experience, and for the individual, high mobility suggests insecurity and untapped expertise.

However, these views seem to have changed over the last 20 years as many countries have made a major shift from relatively static, socialised economies to the more dynamic enterprise-oriented economies characterised by competitive, and technology-driven global forces.

3.3.1 Characteristics of the 'new economy'

Arthur et al suggest that the employment arena moved from a strong situation, characterised by clear structures and minimal scope for individual career choices, to a weak situation, providing new opportunities for enactment allowing learning to be driven by individual rather than organisational agendas.

These changes to both the organisation structure and to a more employee driven employment arena, coincided with two additional employment characteristics: the workforce accommodating increasing numbers of women and the development of more flexible career aspirations. The more flexible career aspirations account for the career actor taking on a series of employment roles in addition to other roles of parent, family member, and volunteer commitments, amongst others. The emergent links among careers, and life beyond work, yet again, calls for a broadening of career theory.

It is now acknowledged that all workers accumulate learning and develop networks, and amass resources to *enact* their careers. This approach to careers facilitates an understanding of them not only as phenomena in their own right, but in terms of the enactment of wider social and economic arrangements.

3.3.2 Exploring new patterns of career behaviour

Careers that do not conform to the expectations of traditional employment thinking, are typical in today's employment environment. High levels of mobility and new patterns of career development dominate these careers. Concurrently, employers and employees appear to have changing attitudes in reference to high levels of mobility.

The propensity to change jobs and careers is increasingly seen as a positive initiative for both the individual and the organisation. In reference to the merits of mobility the authors ask:

- What price do people pay for staying for long periods in the same situations?
- Do they lose flexibility and versatility?
- At what point does their ability to contribute to different employment situations begin to be reduced?
- And what about the employing company? When and how much does people's continued tenure block the possible acquisition of innovative newcomers?
- How does mobility contribute to individual learning over time?
- How does individual learning contribute to company learning as people move between employment situations?
- What are the consequences of learning relationships that span the boundaries between companies rather than being restricted by them?
- How do people exercising boundaryless career behaviour contribute to the unfolding fabric of the New Economy? (p. 32)

To explore these issues further, the authors traced the dispersion of employees over time given a representative six-year medium employment period. Taking this median and projecting forward over twenty years, and assuming the propensity to change jobs remains constant, the authors estimate that "only 10% of a company's employees would still be in the company 20 years later. The remaining 90% will have moved on" (p. 30). This suggests the movement in most people's careers occurred between companies rather than between jobs within companies. In addition in only 5% of inter-company moves did the industry, occupation and location remain the same. It also suggests that those who are mobile between employers usually take on more than one kind of change since they typically change industry and/or occupation and/or geographic location as well.

The typical job-to-job moves evidenced in the data collected by the authors are characteristically non-linear. The career actor may make lateral, diagonal, or apparent

downward shifts to adapt to changing situations. In contrast to the traditional linear career path, a more cycling and spiralling pattern stigmatises the 'new economy' career. "Career actors 'cycle' around activities without apparent progressions, or 'spiral' around different activities so that some progression is apparent in terms of personal fulfilment, learning, or earnings" (p. 35). These cycles and spirals integrate our "social roles as workers in the economic system with our personal identities and needs, and our other roles as family and community members." (p. 36).

This accumulated experience and knowledge, combined with family and social networks empowers the individual to exert their will in choice and activity. This choice perspective revisits Weick's philosophy of *enactment* as outlined in the aim of this work on page 13 on this thesis. The basis of enactment is the imposition of individual will in situations where choice is possible: the person enacts the career. As we enact our career we create 'stories'.

> A career story incorporates both the subjective and the objective career. We create stories retrospectively, interpreting into a coherent picture the fragments that make up our career experience…A career story is based on the events, such as job moves and job titles of the objective career, but also includes memories of subjective career phenomena such as satisfactions, emotions, and ambitions (p. 42).

The authors go on to introduce three characteristics underpinning the enactment of careers. These characteristics include 'fresh energy', 'informed direction', and 'seasoned engagement' and are introduced below.

3.3.3 *Fresh energy*

The career theory of age-related stages of career development discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis suggests that early in a career, one displays intense passion, exuberance and creativity. "It is this vitality and patterns of motivation and behaviour associated with it that causes 'fresh energy'" (p. 60). However, Arthur et al suggest that the surges of experimental, exploratory, curiosity-driven behaviour that provide careers with their essential exuberance and 'fresh energy' may occur at any stage of any adult's career. They suggest that radical career change typically arises from a deep-seated discontent or feeling of stagnation and the desire to start afresh. The new start may be accompanied by verve and the discovery of hidden energies and talents.

3.3.4 Informed direction

As a career unfolds, career actors tend to see ways in which broad life objectives and aspirations can be achieved and they, therefore, develop a clearer direction. "The data that inform their direction come not only from their paid work role but also from their wider social roles as family members, partners, parents, volunteers, members of ethnic or class groups and positions as privileged and underprivileged members of society" (p. 83). The authors suggest that at the start of a career employees generally have limited movement available to them but as they move they acquire not only new positions but potential for a wider range of new moves. Often moves are enacted opportunistically rather than planned rationally in advance.

3.3.5 Seasoned engagement

Seasoned engagement refers to the career behaviour of 'holding on', 'experiencing affirmation', and 'passing on learning to others' by single-occupation, single- industry and long-service employees. Developing a strong occupational identity can result in the cultivation of valued occupations skills and result in high earnings, strong career growth and a degree of security. However, "over-investment in a vocation and under-investment in flexibility" (p. 104) can stifle career progression. Successful careerists appear to have adapted cumulatively by being mobile within their occupation, by consciously seeking new experiences and skills, by adding qualifications as their careers progressed, cultivating occupational networks and by being willing to accept managerial responsibilities. More successful 'stories' used 'seasoned engagement' to combine experience with versatility to apply that experience in new ways.

In addition to the use of 'fresh energy', 'informed direction', and 'seasoned engagement' as influences on career behaviour, the authors introduce the concept of 'career capital'. Career competencies are accumulated through education work and life experience and amass as career capital. As employees move from opportunity to opportunity, this career capital builds and in the process, original qualifications and past experiences may fade as primary career tools.

The acquisition and accumulation of career competencies or core competencies fall into three areas: company culture, know-how, and networks. "Briefly, culture embodies the values and beliefs behind the company's mission and strategic purpose; know-how involves the company's accumulated skills and understanding of its present circumstances; and networks represent the relationship through which a

company relates to suppliers, customers, alliance partners, and other participants in the economic marketplace" (p. 122). In addition career competencies can be termed knowing-why (motivational energy), knowing-how (skills and education), and knowing-whom (networks of people) as discussed in Chapter 2.

Although this research provides a useful framework for the current study, there are some limitations to note and these are discussed below.

The research for this work was conducted in one regional area in New Zealand and, although the authors claim that New Zealand is representative in population make-up, economic development, and political fashion of the western block of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), care needs to be taken on drawing parallels to other regional or international areas.

The data collected from Arthur et al aimed to represent global phenomena rather than any specific occupational or social group. This suggests generic findings that apply across a broad spectrum of occupation. The research under discussion in this thesis will focus on only one occupational group and aims to identify career phenomena relating specifically to the tourism industry.

As noted by the authors, the sample may be biased towards those who felt they had a good career story to tell or were too polite to refuse. It could be that the sample agreed to be involved in the research because they felt aggrieved about their own career experience.

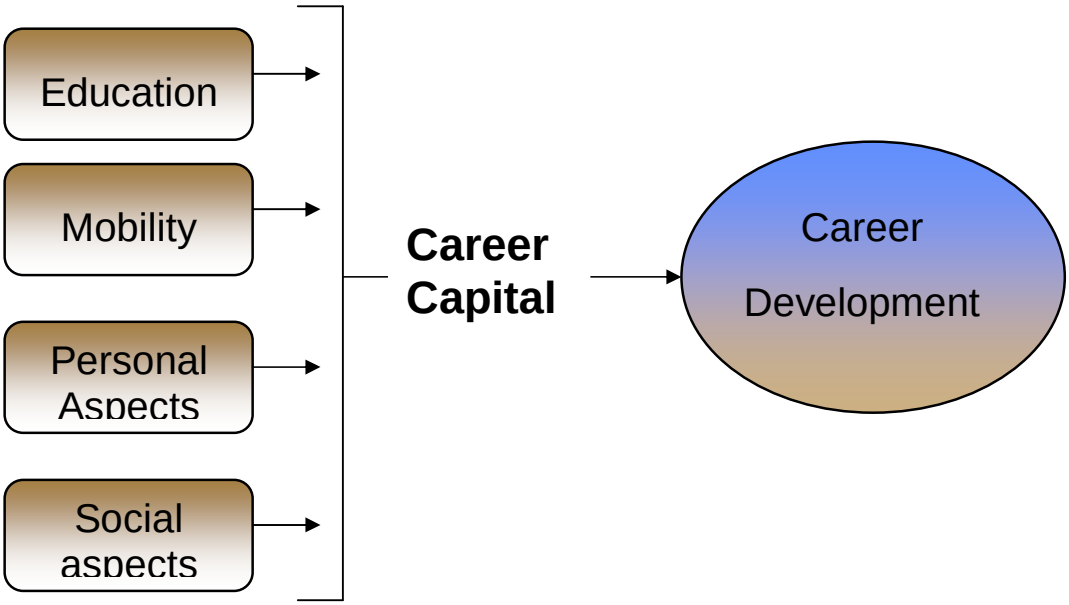
The work of Arthur et al was published in 1999. The employment environment is likely considerably changed since that time.

3.4 The contribution to the current model of influences on careers in tourism

- The notion of **career stories** created from the **enactment** by career actors.
- High levels of **mobility** characterise the current employment environment.
- Versatility is, therefore, an increasingly important attribute for the career actor.
- Most career moves take place across company boundaries with high frequency movement across occupation, industrial and geographical boundaries as well.
- **Career capital** is amassed during the enactment of careers
- **Motivation** and 'fresh energy' is influential on career development throughout the entire creation of the career story.
- **Social** data influence career directions.
- **Opportunistic** career development is emerging as typical than **rationally planned** career development.
- The view of high levels of mobility is changing; there is an increased concern for immobile people in a mobile society.
- Creative combining of 'fresh energy', 'informed direction' and 'seasoned engagement' can continue to open up fresh career opportunities in the new economy.

This contribution is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 - Stage 2: Model of influences on careers in tourism



3.5 Stage 3 of model development

Riley, M., Ladkin, A., Szivas, E., (2002) *Tourism Employment: Analysis and Planning*

The authors' aim in publishing this work was to highlight issues of tourism employment and encourage serious study of labour in tourism. The authors have each contributed to research on human resource management in tourism. This work has contributed to the development of this researcher's model of influences on careers in tourism by firstly reinforcing the views of Ruddy and Arthur et al regarding the high levels of mobility characterising careers in general and more specifically in the tourism industry, and secondly by suggesting that this mobility may be job, occupational, industry or geographically related. This work also introduces the notion of career development strategies falling into two major categories: tactical (planned by the individual) or opportunistic (arising from the organisation or industry). In

addition, Riley et al suggest demographics and motivation as indirect influences on career development, with the potential to influence all aspects of an individual's career story. For this reason, in Stage 4 of the development of the model, the researcher has repositioned social demographics and motivation to be discussed in Section 3.7 and Figure 3.4.

As found in the review of literature, much research has been conducted into the generic principles of career development and career management. The value of this work by Riley et al is that it places career research in the tourism context and highlights issues unique to tourism employment. Analysis in this work is centralised around three constructs: the labour market, the operating unit, and the occupation. The authors have superimposed these three constructs upon the tourism industry in order to explore the relationship between its structural dynamics and the behaviour of managers and workers within it (p. 2).

To summarise, the first section of this work looks at the labour industry as a whole and concentrates on its primary features, such as diversity, skill, pay and productivity. The second section establishes the principles of investigative manpower planning and details the technique of biographical analysis. The final section examines the implications of sections one and two for policy making in human resource management, organisational structure and in tourism education. Information in this book is primarily based on a series of studies over a range of employment areas, which include motivation, mobility and classification of job content. In order to critically consider the analysis highlighted in Riley et al, a brief discussion of these case studies is important.

3.5.1 Case Study 1: Memory recall for autobiographical and public events

As part of the justification for the recall method used in the case studies to be discussed below, the authors report on several studies relating to how far back individuals will be able to recall memories from their past, the lifespan approach, and a comparative study of three projects involving autobiographical memories across the lifespan (Rubin et al., 1986; Howes and Katz, 1992; Franklin and Holding, 1977; Fitzgerald and Lawrence, 1984; Zola-Morgan et al., 1983 in Riley et al., 2002). For more information on this methodology, see Chapter 2 of this thesis.

3.5.2 Case Study 2: Mobility into tourism: A study from Hungary

This research focused on inter-industry mobility that terminated in tourism. The primary data was collected through self-completed biographical surveys based on autobiographical memory. The design followed the principles explored in career structure research (Ladkin and Riley, 1996) and discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis. The aim of the methodology "was to analyse the actual patterns of mobility, explore the motives and measure the impacts related to the mobility decision" (Riley et al., 2002, p. 103). Six hundred questionnaires were sent to a random sample of tourism workers in four selected areas of Hungary. The response rate was 58.5% or 351 surveys. The questionnaire asked subjects to give their employment pattern over the period of 1987-1996.

3.5.3 Case Study 3: The career path of hotel managers

This case study reported findings from research gathered from a posted questionnaire distributed to a random sample of hotel managers working in hotels in the UK. The questionnaire was designed on the principles of work biography, in order to provide a detailed career history of the hotel managers. The sample size was based on an assumed population of 6000. The questionnaire was sent to 800 hotel managers with a response rate of 45% or 284 questionnaires. The survey was designed to elicit information relating to rates of progress, key stages in career development, job moves and mobility patterns.

3.5.4 Case Study 4: Motivational orientations in tourism: A case study from Hungary

The aims of this study were:

1. To test the existence of a four dimensional structure of the motivational orientations:
    - Instrumental utility – tourism employment is perceived solely as a means to the achievement of economic advancement;
    - Positive commitment to tourism – tourism employment is favoured for the intrinsic value of the jobs it offers, for example their image, the pleasant surroundings, the variety of tasks they involve and the potential for job satisfaction;

- Refugee orientation – tourism employment offers an escape route from a declining industry, an unpleasant job or even unemployment; and
- Entrepreneurial orientation – tourism employment is appreciated for its suitability for one's private business or at least is seen as a potential avenue towards entrepreneurship.

2. To establish whether there are any dominant orientations.
3. To examine dynamics of the interaction between the orientations.

The primary data were collected through a self-completed questionnaire by individuals who had moved into tourism from another industry. In total 600 questionnaires were sent to a random sample of tourism workers in four selected areas of Hungary. The sample returned 351, resulting in a 58.5% response rate. The research instrument contained 30 statements measured on a five-point Likert scale. Each statement was designed to fit with the introductory words: 'I have chosen tourism because'.

3.5.5 Case Study 5: Occupational classification and analysis

In order to explore the relationship between jobs and education, it was important to develop a job classification scheme useful for analytical purposes. In order for a researcher to identify the relevance of educational subjects to job performance or career trajectory, some kind of knowledge typology needs to be related to as many job dimensions as possible. To this end, a study of a random sample of 153 tourism professionals combining generic job content with organisational variables was undertaken. Four dimensions were used to analyse jobs:

- the work that is actually done (job activity);
- the level of skill required (job activity level);
- the level of the job within the organisation (job authority level); and,
- the specialised knowledge needed to do the job (job knowledge). (p. 138)

In respect to job activity, subjects were asked to identify their job with two activities from a list adapted from a standard managerial occupational classification scheme. Respondents were then asked to identify the level of activity ranging between common-sense understanding, understanding rational systems and understanding logical and scientific thinking. These job activities were then ranked from five levels of authority to reflect the difference in authority between jobs and to capture similarities of authority across a wide range of titles. Finally subjects were asked to identify up to two academic subjects that were important to their jobs.

3.5.6 Case Study 6: Empirical study of culinary education

The aim of this case study was to trace skill accumulation patterns. The study was located in Malaysia and compared the career paths of chefs who started with culinary education and those learning entirely through experience. The methodology used focussed on tracing skills as they add and accumulate and offered the opportunity for skills sampling and auditing across organisations and labour market sectors.

The questionnaire used was based on the concept of autobiographical memory as used in Case study 2 discussed above and also contained an additional section on skill accumulation. Twenty-five dishes were listed against jobs and the subjects were

asked whether they could cook each dish. If the answer was affirmative, the subject identified the place in his or her career, which could include education, where the dish was first prepared. Subjects were also asked to indicate if they were competent in particular skills. This process links skill acquisition to career progression. The questionnaire was applied to a sample of head chefs, sous chefs and chef de partie selected randomly from hotels and restaurants across the whole of Malaysia. The sample size was 286. The sample split was, educated 128: non-educated 158.

3.5.7 Case Study 7: The development of personal career strategies: The case of UK hotel managers

Research was undertaken to examine the personal career strategies of 284 hotel general managers in the UK. Personal career strategies were measured by presenting a list of personal strategies to the general managers, from which they were asked to indicate which had been used in seeking to advance their career. These strategies relate to the three main areas of personal career strategies: job search techniques, evidence of career planning, and personal attributes.

The authors have combined information from the above case studies with information from secondary sources to highlight issues for analysis and planning for tourism employment. These issues are discussed below.

3.5.8 Attraction and accessibility

The image of tourism employment appears to be split: tourism jobs possess a certain image of glamour, while they are also deemed of low status and of low skills. Positive characteristics attributed to tourism include opportunities to travel, to meet

people, to use or learn foreign language and variety in job description. However, at the same time, the industry's traditional image of low pay, long hours and minimal training still prevail. In the general tourism literature, the industry is described as a low-skill employer and despite the improvement in the overall image of the industry in recent years, "in some countries the sector is not yet viewed favourably as an employer owing to poor employment and working conditions and high levels of unskilled employment" (International Labour Office, 1989:9 in Riley, et al., 2002). Tourism jobs often require lower levels of qualification, pay low wages and, therefore, it is not surprising that tourism employment in general does not enjoy high status. Hotel work, for example, is often associated with low image jobs such as maids, waiters and porters which causes serious and unfair damage to the image of the related occupations.

For many employees, the sector is not a career option, but rather a preparation for a career in another section of the economy. An international research project – "Tourism as a aspect of change: a sociocultural study" (Jafari et al., 1990 in Riley et al., 2002) found that generally tourism jobs did not possess a great deal of status but despite the image problem the majority of the respondents in each country expressed a willingness to take up a job in tourism. However, given the seasonal and period variations in demand in tourism, seasonal and part-time work is common and can have a negative effect on job security, career prospects and pay and makes tourism employment unattractive for those who are looking for permanent full-time jobs with clear career opportunities.

3.5.9 Mobility in tourism

As part of the tourism workforce enters the industry from other sectors, studying inter-sector and inter-organisational mobility is an important part of understanding tourism employment. In addition, the literature on geographical mobility suggests that when people change location there is a tendency for them to also change careers. Similarly the tendency of organisation size diversity, and job diversity, within an industry promotes both inter-organisational mobility and job mobility (Greve, 1994, in Riley, et al., 2002). In other words, if an industry contains a wide range of enterprises of different size and a wide range of jobs therein, then inter-industry mobility will be encouraged because there are always vacancies for new entrants.

Maillat's (1984) idea of mobility channels suggests that jobs form linkages with each other and that any job leads only to a limited number of other jobs. In this respect each job has a particular function in the career of the individual: a job can provide stability, serve as a springboard, or offer flexibility. Many aspects influence a worker's mobility:

- The availability and transferability of skills has a strong influence on the prospects and the direction of the mobility. On the one hand, people with higher education might be more able to change jobs regularly, but on the other hand, it means a higher risk (Greve, 1994).
- The more job-specific and industry-specific human capital is then the probability of job mobility declines (Becker, 1975).
- Industry-specific human capital reduces the propensity for inter-industry mobility (Riley et al., 2002).

- Personal characteristics such as the labour force experience of the worker, age and gender are aspects that influence the overall mobility of the individuals (Riley et al., 2002).

Apart from inter-industry and job mobility there are other types of labour mobility. Some people change industries or jobs using the same skills and knowledge as before while others experience an additional change, their occupation. When moving between jobs, occupations or industries, people often move geographically as well. In summary, mobility can be classified as:

- Job mobility
- Occupational mobility
- Inter-industry mobility
- Geographical mobility

It is impossible to understand how careers are planned and developed without considering the labour market characteristics in which they operate. Career opportunities are not infinite as they are determined by the size and structure of the industry or profession for which an individual is qualified. Structural features, including the size of the industry, the degree of fragmentation in the industry, the shape of the organisational pyramid, the distribution of knowledge and technological specificity, all impact on career opportunities available to the individual. Where the structure is fragmented, the units small, the technology low level, and where knowledge is homogenously distributed, there is greater propensity for mobility. Tourism and hospitality labour markets have high levels of mobility in internal and

external labour markets and therefore career analysis must take into account the dynamics of the labour market.

3.5.10 Labour market dynamics

In order to understand labour in the tourism industry, it is crucial to understand the way in which the labour market behaves. For example, the number of jobs, the type of job, rates of pay, geographical boundaries, specificity of skills, size of organisations and the required educational attainment are all structural characteristics that form the basis of the opportunity structure of the industry. These features are fundamental to career development in the industry.

But there are issues for consideration at both the individual and organisational level that make a career more complex than the industry's labour market dynamics. At the individual level, a career is a concept which is central to individual identity and is comprised of personal choices, abilities and decision-making processes that occur continuously throughout an individual's working life. These individual choices are the driving force behind career progression and development. From an organisational perspective, careers are a reflection of the nature and workings of complex organisations and labour markets. This is particularly significant due to changes in work patterns, such as the increase in part time work, job redesign, job sharing and the changing demand for skills (Arthur, 1992). As a result of these changes, careers are altering in their shape and form, as discussed in much detail in Chapter 2 of this thesis. These changes have seen careers moving from traditional structures that typically involve only one or two companies and few job moves, to those that are centred in the labour market, involve regular job changes and lateral job moves.

Personal choices and abilities highlight the importance of structure and opportunity as influential variables in career development.

3.5.11 Personal career strategies

The reasons why a person changes jobs at any particular time can be any one or a combination of personal or organisational related aspects. For example, a person may change jobs because they have been made redundant, they are relocating, they are promoted, they have been offered a higher salary, or they desire a change of occupation. Within this pattern of job changes, it is possible that the individual is changing jobs for strategic reasons as they are actively seeking job changes in order to advance their careers. These strategies at the individual level are called personal career strategies and are tactical manoeuvres that an individual may employ in seeking to advance their careers.

Examining personal career strategies provides information about how people use the internal and external labour market for their career development and provides crucial information on recruitment and retention of employees. In careers where mobility is dominant as in tourism it is essential that both organisations and individuals have an understanding of the internal and external labour market processes at work in creating career development opportunities.

Although this research provides a useful framework for the current study, there are some limitations to note and these are discussed below.

As the authors state, there is a clear void in operational research in the area of careers in tourism. It was, therefore necessary to rely heavily on secondary research to supplement the case studies undertaken by Riley et al. Extensive case study research provides a framework for this work. However, as with the work of Arthur et al, some of the data in the case studies is dated and in a rapidly changing employment environment, the findings may not reflect the current situation.

The case study research was conducted in the UK, Hungary, and Malaysia. Care needs to be taken in applying the findings to an Australian study.

3.6 The contribution to the current model of influences on careers in tourism

- Careers in the tourism industry are characterised by high levels of **mobility**

- Mobility in careers may involve
  - ⇒ **Job mobility**
  - ⇒ **Occupational mobility**
  - ⇒ **Inter-industry mobility**
  - ⇒ **Geographical mobility**

- Personal characteristics and **demographics** are aspects that influence the overall mobility of individuals

- Structural features impact on career opportunities for the individual. These may include:
  - ⇒ The size of the industry
  - ⇒ The degree of fragmentation in the industry
  - ⇒ The shape of the organisational pyramid
  - ⇒ The distribution of knowledge
  - ⇒ Technological specificity

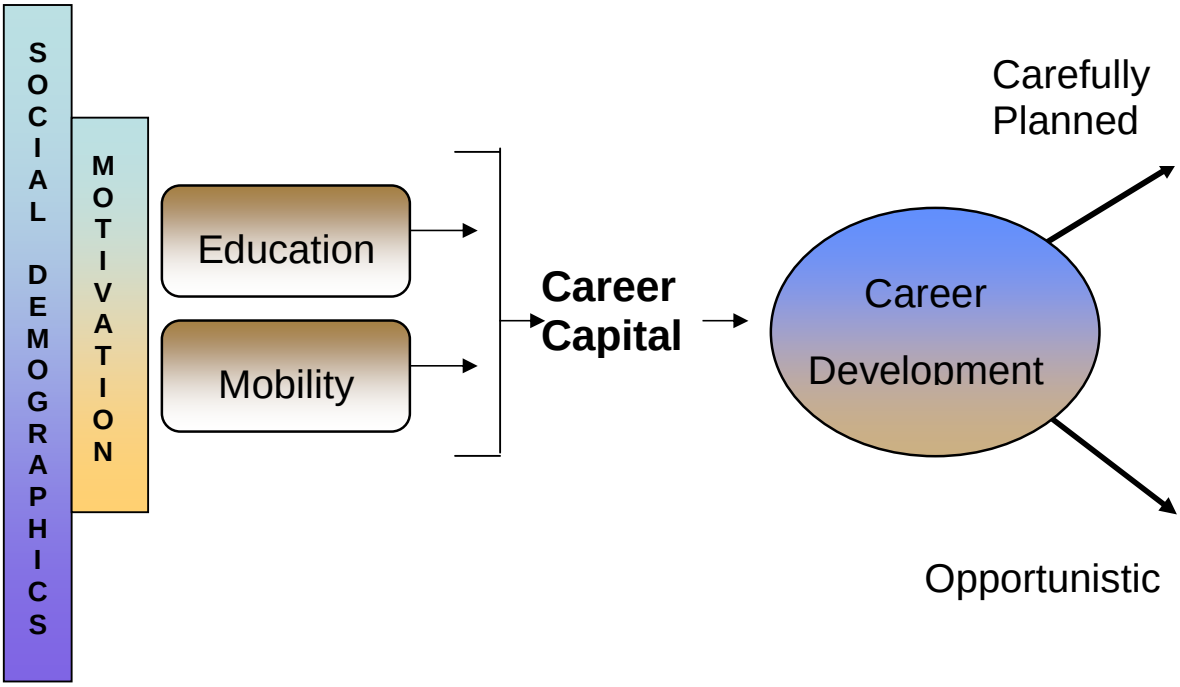
- Labour market dynamics impact on career opportunities for the individual. These may include:
  - ⇒ The number of jobs
  - ⇒ The type of job
  - ⇒ Rates of pay
  - ⇒ Geographical boundaries
  - ⇒ Specificity of skills
  - ⇒ Size of the organisation

⇒ The required educational attainment

- Personal choices (**motivation**) and abilities are the driving force behind career progression and development

- **Career development strategies** may be **tactical** or **opportunistic** and may change as career stories evolve.

Figure 3.4 - Stage 3: Model of influences on careers in tourism



3.7 Stage 4 of model development

Ayres, H.J. (2006) Education and Opportunity as influences on career development: findings from a preliminary study in Eastern Australian tourism *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* Vol 5: 1, pp 16-27

Ayres, H.J. (2006) Career development in tourism and leisure: an exploratory study of the influence of mobility and mentoring *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management* Vol 13: 2 (to be published in August)

Despite the contributions from the three works discussion previously, there is clearly a paucity of information specifically relating to careers in the tourism industry in Australia. To address this, the researcher conducted a preliminary study to explore influences on careers of senior and middle managers in the Australian tourism industry. However, prior to discussing this preliminary study it is useful to summarise the themes emerging from the works of Ruddy, (1995a), Arthur et al., (1999), and Riley et al., (2002).

- Education and training is clearly a key influence on career development. This education and training may be formal education or on-the-job training or off-the-job training.

- Mobility is a key influence on career development. Mobility can refer to organisational moves, job moves, inter-industry moves or geographical relocation.

- Personal aspects and demographics influence career development.

- Social aspects influence career development.

- Career capital is the accumulation of skills and experience that is amassed during the enactment of an individual's career.

- Motivation is influential on career development throughout the entire creation of an individual's career story.

- Career development strategies may be tactical (carefully planned by the individual) or opportunistic (arising from the industry) and may change as career stories evolve.

Career analysis in the broad tradition of life history (Creswell, 1998) was used as a research methodology for this particular study. In this study a qualitative approach was used as the primary data collection method and this was supplemented by the collection of some numeric information for variables that will likely influence the findings such as years of experience and number of job moves. The aim of this career analysis was to expose patterns and trends in career development and identify some of the influences on career development in the tourism industry. In addition, this study aimed to collect information to assist in understanding human behaviour in the organisational context and to provide a framework and guidelines to underpin further research.

A purposive sample comprising a cross-section of organisations representing four of the major tourism sectors was selected. The sectors represented include the

attractions sector, the meeting and event management sector, the state government tourism offices, and the transport sector. A sample of 12 organisations was selected within these two criteria. Twenty-three employees in these organisations were selected for this research. Twelve of the informants were employed at the senior management level (Chief Executive Officers or General Managers) and eleven were employed in middle management. Data was collected by a brief questionnaire, and by a one-on-one interview, to obtain the opinions, attitudes, values and beliefs of employees about careers in the tourism industry. More information on the sample is provided in Table 3.2: Summary of sample.

The interviews, of approximately one hour each were designed to elicit information on the major influences on career progression. One middle manager, after agreeing to participate in the research, became ill and subsequently left employment. As the research project was well underway at this time, it was decided to run the study with one less participant at the middle management level. Therefore a total of 23 managers participated in the study. As tourism is a multi-disciplinary field, it should be noted that all managers at the time of the interview were employed in the tourism industry but many brought with them experience from other sectors of employment.

Table 3.2 - Summary of sample

Description	Senior Managers	Middle Managers
Employment level	12	11
Education		
PhD or equivalent	3	0
Masters degree	3	2
Bachelors degree	4	6
TAFE certificate	1	3
High school certificate	1	0
Years of experience	11-33 years	4-35 years
Female	3	7
Male	9	4
Tourism Sector		
Events	4	4
Attractions	4	3
Government	2	2
Transport	2	2

The mode of questioning in the interviews for each target group was necessarily different. For the senior managers a historical perspective was adopted asking them to recall the impact of the various influences on their careers. The middle managers were asked to address the questions in a more visionary mode: how did they expect these influences to impact on their careers. All participants were given the opportunity to provide their own career narrative.

The results were analysed using basic numeric comparisons of the quantitative data and content analysis of the qualitative data. As the data was collected using open-ended questions, it was essential to assign data to pre-defined categories. Patterns and trends were identified from each of these broad descriptive codes.

Findings

3.7.1 Strategies for career development

Career opportunities for eight of the twelve senior managers had arisen by chance; being in the right spot at the right time had been the primary driver for professional development. Two senior managers had progressed through their career by carefully planning their career moves. The other two reported strategies of a mixed approach as the acquisition of particular skills is often strategically planned: identifying particular weaknesses and acquiring training and education to develop strengths in particular areas increases the chance of career development opportunities arising.

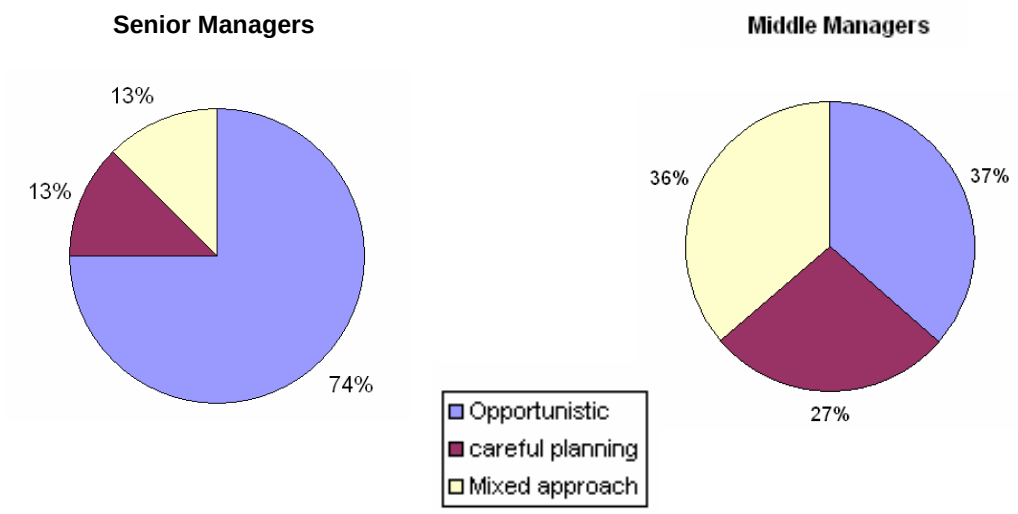
It is important to note that career development strategies may change throughout the enactment of a career. A dominant trend was for managers to take advantage of opportunities as they arose early on in the career and then later become more strategic by carefully planning career moves.

Career development strategies differed between tourism sectors. An interesting comment from a respondent in the events sector suggested event managers are employed to manage a particular major event and once the event is over, employment ceases. Opportunistic career development often prevailed as a result. In comparison, in the attractions sector, career moves appeared to be more planned and carefully developed.

Although the results differed for middle managers, similar themes and comments emerged. Four middle managers expected opportunistic moves while three thought

they would need to plan future career moves. Another four expected a mix of strategies would be used for career development and one was unsure of how future career opportunities would arise. Middle managers also commented that although jobs may arise opportunistically, some strategic planning in skill development was important to maximize the impact of opportunistic careers. Opportunities for acquiring experience, acting in higher or different positions to help develop a multiskilled approach, were also reported as important in career development. Figure 3.5 provides a comparison of senior and middle manager career development strategies.

Figure 3.5 - Comparison of senior and middle managers' career development strategies



Much of the discussion of opportunistic careers focused on mobility issues. All senior managers had found that to take advantage of opportunities they were often required to change geographical location, change organisation and even leave the industry for a period of time.

3.7.2 The role of formal education in career progression

Four senior managers believed that formal education has been crucial for their career development. However, education did not influence the career development of half the senior managers and two more were not sure what role their formal education had played in their career development. At some point it would appear that experience is more important than formal education. Information on the educational qualifications of the participants is listed in Table 3.2 - Summary of Sample.

Interestingly, the influence of education on career development is changing. Informants commented on a belief that while education may not have been vital for those already in senior management, this perception was now no longer valid. For current tourism employees and those who envision a career in tourism, the role of tertiary qualifications and even post-graduate work is becoming increasingly important. Middle managers endorsed the influence of education on tourism careers. Seven believed that their formal education has been and would continue to be a major influence in their career development and was certainly important in obtaining that first position in tourism. The remaining four were unsure of how important education would be to their career.

Although the informants generally agreed on the influence of education on careers, the focus of this education was diverse. The findings relating to what areas of study were important for tourism careers were also diverse. This endorses much of the debate in the literature over the last decade relating to tourism curricula and programs. Although the preliminary study does not aim to add to this debate, it is useful to note that senior managers agreed that the skills and maturity that are generally acquired through academic study are as vital as the specialist skills and knowledge acquired in the various degree programs. Some of the areas of study suggested by the respondents included Marketing, Business, Tourism, Museum Management, Psychology, Finance, Sales, Management, Education, Communication, and Event Management.

3.7.3 Mobility

The results appear to align with the general career literature on the *new career* concept and the limited information on the tourism and hospitality sector (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996a; Arthur and Rousseau, 1996b; Ladkin and Riley, 1996; McCabe, 2001; Baruch, 2003). All senior managers had reported a need to change geographical location, change organisation or even leave the industry for a period of time if they were to avail themselves of opportunities on offer.

Senior managers had averaged 4.9 career moves in the last 15 years representing a career move every three years. Middle managers averaged 3.9 career moves, representing a move almost every four years. All managers had reported intra-organisational and inter-organisational moves. Seventy eight percent of respondents reported inter-industry moves as well.

In line with much of the literature on the *new* career, many senior managers reported encouraging employees to leave the organisation to broaden their experience. High staff turnover and low retention rates underpin human resource management in the tourism industry and are often reported as problematic for the industry. However, it would appear some managers see mobility as good practice as suggested in the literature on the new career concept discussed earlier.

In contrast, all employers reported high retention rates in junior employees. However, there is a clear indication that as employees reach higher management levels, a lack of opportunity may lead to turnover. As the sample in this project was limited, these findings on mobility provide only a snap shot of this small purposive sample and further research needs to be conducted before drawing conclusions on mobility in the tourism industry.

3.7.4 Barriers to career development

One of the interesting findings from these career stories was the feedback relating to career barriers. Table 3.3 summarises the number of managers who have encountering career barriers. Four senior managers reported barriers while another four had no obstacles to report. Seven middle managers reported some hurdles and another four again had no obstacles to career development to report.

Table 3.3 - Barriers to career development

Barriers to Career Development			
	Yes	**Possibly**	**No**
Senior managers	4	4	4
Middle managers	7	0	4

Interviewees responding 'possibly' did not feel they had personally experienced barriers to career progression; however, they reported being aware of barriers for others.

Types of the barriers to career development reported by senior staff included:

- Age
- Access to a mentor
- Limited education
- Female gender
- Indigenous race
- Mobility or immobility

Overall, the most common barrier to career development in the industry was reported as not having access to either a formal or informal mentor with eight of the 12 senior managers raising this issue and six of the 11 middle managers. "I made some poor choices … a mentor may have guided my decision-making in relation to career moves."

3.7.5 The impact of mentoring programs on career success

Mentoring programs were reported as highly influential to career development of the respondents. All senior staff interviewed reported undertaking either an official or unofficial mentoring role in the career development of their junior employees. Eight

senior managers were actively involved in the career development of their staff while four attempted to involve themselves. In several cases this role was to oversee and encourage further education and training while for others a more holistic approach was adopted relating to education, professional and personal development. This commitment to initiating, developing or participating in mentoring programs attests to the value placed on mentoring by the participants. As evidenced by many of the comments, management's concern for professional development and issues such as mentoring have changed over the last few years and respondents reported an increasing organisational commitment in this particular area.

Most managers take this role of mentoring seriously as they perceive junior employees are generally aspiring to higher levels of management. All respondents believed that the majority of junior employees entering the industry have aspirations of hierarchical career development and the role of leaders is to support and foster these career ambitions.

It is interesting to note that in Ruddy's research discussed above, hotel managers did not see having a model or mentor as important. Managers in other professions have had mentors but according to the hotel managers in this study, the hotel industry is different (Ruddy, 1995a).

Other findings

Career theory is often linked to theories of motivation. A passion for the job was a theme that frequently emerged from this research. It is often not the motivation for higher pay or a more prestigious position that influence careers in the tourism

industry, but more, a love of the job and even the geographical location of a particular position.

Twenty of the 23 participants believe that the tourism industry is perceived as a positive and rewarding work environment providing excellent employment opportunities and financial reward and reported positive outcomes from recruitment practices.

To summarise, the major influences on career progression from this sample appeared to be:

- taking advantage of career opportunities either inside or outside the organisation or industry as they arise;
- a willingness to remain geographically, organisationally and industrially mobile;
- embracing mentoring programs as a useful mechanisms for assisting career development, and
- undertaking tertiary study.

This exploratory study provided a useful framework on which additional research in this area could be developed.

3.8 The contribution to the current model of influences on careers in tourism

- Higher education is becoming increasingly important for employees in the tourism industry. The area of study, however is not tightly constrained

- Geographical, organisational and industrial mobility is a characteristic of tourism employment
- Mentorship programs offer much support for career development
- Mentorship can be both formal and informal
- Career development can be opportunistic or carefully planned or a mix of both

3.9 Development of model of influences on career development in the tourism industry

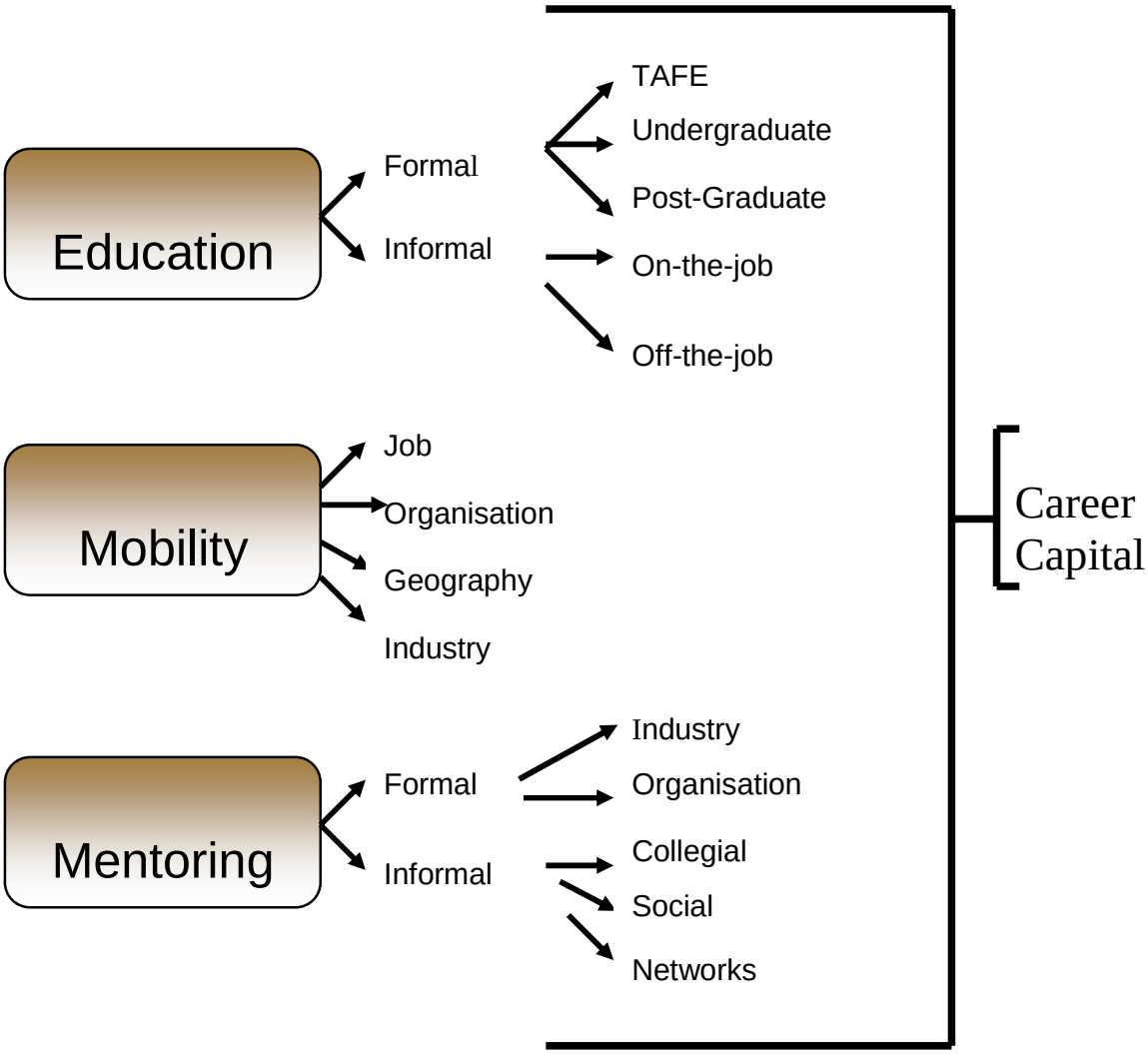
Based on the current knowledge of careers, and more specifically, careers in tourism, it is clear that there are three primary influences on their development. The first influence is education. The term education here is used to represent a composite of knowledge, skill development, competencies and 'know-how'. Education may be formal and reflect the acquisition of a qualification from a recognised tertiary institution. This type of education could include a Technical and Further Education qualification or an undergraduate or postgraduate qualification from a university. Alternatively, education may be informal, on-the-job, in-house training, or off-the-job training such as short courses, conference attendance or similar information sharing forums.

The second influence on careers is mobility. Flexibility is clearly an advantage in the current employment environment where career moves are now regarded as a means of increasing an individual's career capital rather than as a sign of disloyalty or instability. Mobility can require changes in job within the one organisation or can refer to inter-organisational moves. In addition, mobility may seen individuals move between industries and move geographically.

The final primary influence on careers is mentorship. Mentoring encompasses all relationships and networks that support an individual throughout their career. Mentoring and mentorship programs can be formal or informal or a combination or both. Formal mentoring may be run by the industry or the organisation. Informal mentoring may be carried out collegially by those in the same or similar organisation or industry. Social and other networking relationships can also provide support and guidance to individuals throughout their career.

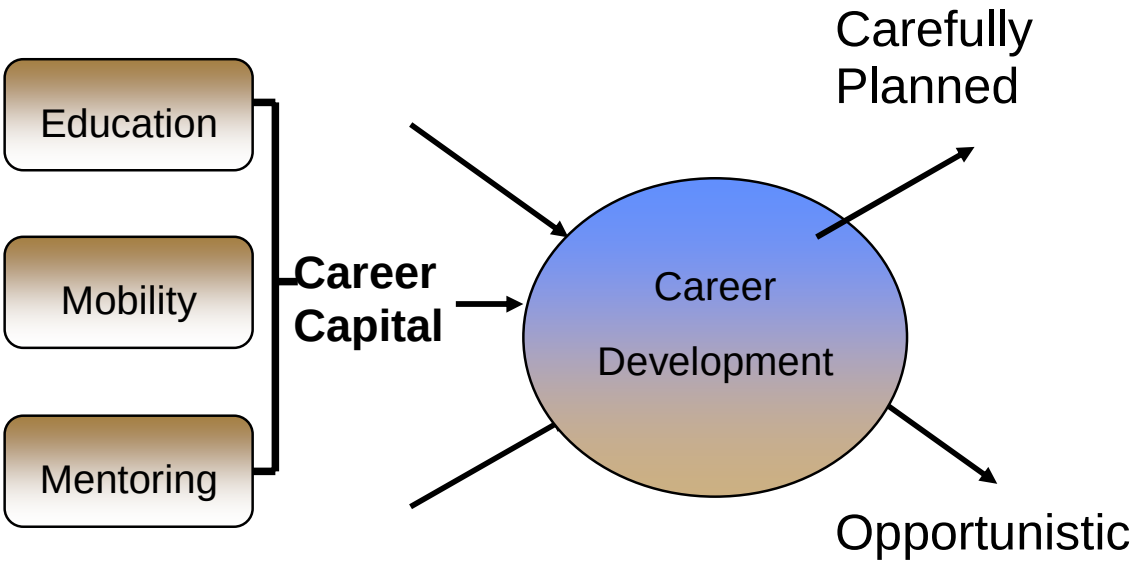
All three influences on career development play a role in the construction of an individual's career story and all facilitate the cultivation and accumulation of career capital. A summary of the above discussion is provided in Figure 3.6 below.

Figure 3.6 - Summary of career influences based on the works of Ruddy, Arthur, et al., Riley, et al., and Ayres Exploratory Study



As career capital accumulates, individuals make decisions affecting their career development. These career development decisions appear to be made either opportunistically or by careful planning. Opportunistic career development occurs as an organisation or industry initiates career moves for the individual. Carefully planned career moves are proactive efforts by the individual to develop their own career. Obviously individual careers can develop using a combination of strategies or by changing strategies intermittently throughout the career. The link between the carer influences and career development strategies is depicted in Figure 3.7 below.

Figure 3.7 - Career influences and career development strategies



There are obviously other influences on individual career development that need to be taken into account when designing any model. A demographic profile as an influence on careers has been accepted for some time (Patton and Lokan, 2001). Age, for example, is linked to the Stage theories (Super, 1990; Smart and Peterson, 1997) and is certainly recognised as a aspect in career development. Gender has received recurring attention in career development literature along with race and economic background (Patton and Lokan, 2001). It is also recognised that career decision-making is a social process and consideration must also be given to the social category to which workers belong, the homes and families in which they live and the churches, voluntary societies, and leisure groups in which they participate. All of these may influence career behaviour and provide repositories of learning and provide resources to develop careers (Parker, 2002). The researcher therefore suggests that the role of social demographics in careers be accepted and included in the model of the influences on careers in tourism. Incorporating social demographics embraces the idea of Lau and Shaffer (1999) that careers do not exist in isolation. The congruence approach concerns the fit between the person and the environment.

It is, therefore, not the aim of the current research to re-establish demographics as an influence on career development. The model depicted below groups social demographics together and accepts they are influential in guiding vocational behaviour.

In a similar vein, career theorists accept that individual motivation is a prime influence on career development. The need for achievement (Lau and Shaffer, 1999; McClelland, 1990; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982) or power (Lau and Shaffer, 1999)

or affiliation (Kniveton, 2004; Nicholson, 1996) or economic rewards (Kniveton, 2004) is different for most people but these needs will underpin career development for the majority. This is especially the case in tourism where career decisions may be more related to the environment of work (resorts, etc) than on economic incentives. "It is often not the motivation for higher pay or a more prestigious position that influence careers for this particular sample, but more, a love of the job and even the geographical location of a particular position" (Ayres, 2006a, p. 22). Career motivation is associated with a wide range of career decisions and behaviours. "These include searching for and accepting a job, deciding to stay with an organization, revising one's career plans, seeking training and new job experiences, and setting and trying to accomplish career goals" (London, 1983 p 620). London (1983) suggests three dimensions to career motivation:

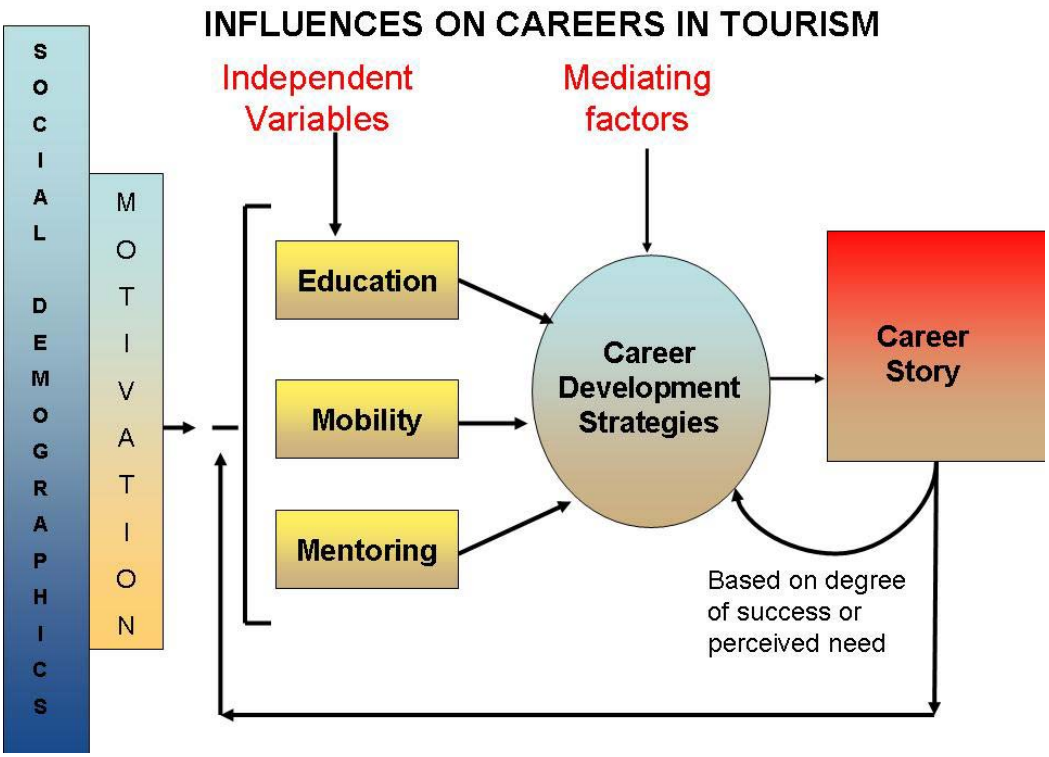
- *Career Identity*: How central one's career is to one's identity.
- *Career Insight*: This is the extent to which the person has realistic perceptions of themselves and the organisation and relates these perceptions to career goals.
- *Career Resilience*: This is a person's resistance to career disruption in a less than optimal environment including barriers to career goals, uncertainty, and poor relationships with co-workers.

In Chapter 2 of this thesis the subjective and objective aspects of a career and the intelligent career framework were discussed and the three ways of 'knowing' were explored. The 'knowing-why' we work reflects our values, interests, motivation, and work-family issues. Acknowledging motivation as an individual characteristic can

contribute to a fuller picture of a person's career by helping to make sense of the various aspects of career development (Parker, 2002). Motivation has been linked to individual personality and much research of careers has linked personality with career development. Motivation, therefore, is an accepted influence on career development and, as such, has been incorporated into the model below in a similar context to social demographics

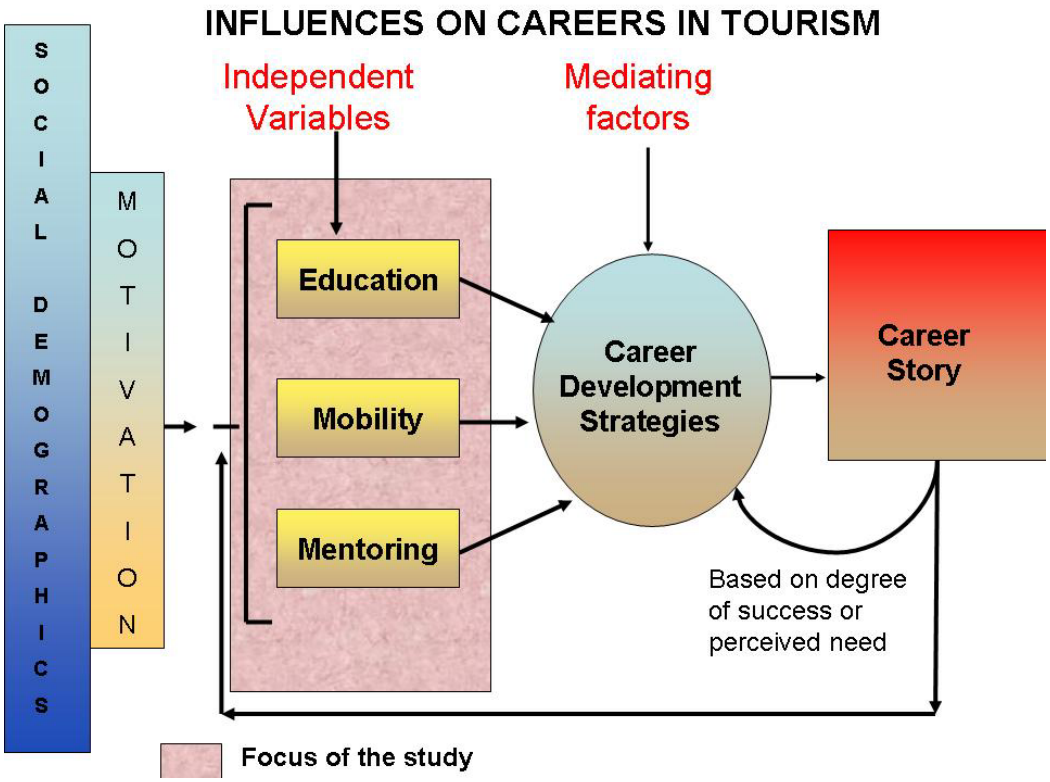
In summary, the model depicted in Figure 3.8 below recognises that social demographics and motivation underpin careers in tourism. Independent variables of education, mobility and mentoring are suggested as key influences on careers in tourism and form the focus of this study. Mediating aspects for such careers include the career development strategies adopted by individuals in the industry. The result is a career story that continues to evolve. It is suggested that as individuals consider their career they may rethink their career development strategy and move from a carefully planned tactic to one involving the uptake of opportunities on offer or conversely, decide to carefully plan their career rather than accept opportunities presented by the industry. Similarly, if individuals feel their career is unsatisfactory they may revisit the independent variables of education, mobility and mentoring and take advantage of one or more of these influences. The model to be tested in this research thesis is presented in Figure 3.8 below.

Figure 3.8 - Stage 4: Model of influences on careers in tourism



As mentioned previously, social demographics and motivation are accepted as key influences on career development and as such fall outside the focus of this particular study. It is also accepted that career stories evolve through career development that is opportunistic, carefully planned or a combination of both. It is, therefore, useful to identify the research interests of this current study as depicted below in Figure 3.9.

Figure 3.9 - The focus of the current study of influences on careers in the Australian tourism industry



3.10 Conclusion

A 'social model' (Pfeffer, 1997) or 'relational approach' (Hall 1996) to understanding career change complements prior research on career transitions. In particular the present research focuses on the combined effect of demographics, motivation, education, mobility and the relationships an individual has with people who take an active interest in and action to advance his or her career. The study reported here explores the influence of the independent variables on the gateway to new opportunities and their role on the evolving career story.

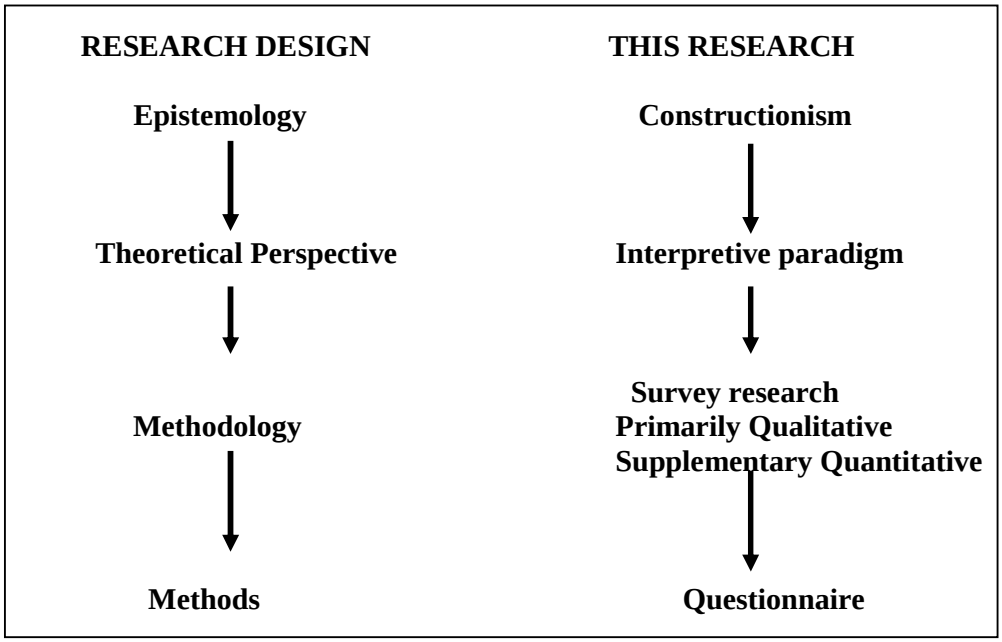
In Chapter 4, Methodology, a detailed description of the epistemological issues underpinning the testing of this model on the Australian population will be discussed. In addition, the theoretical perspective, methodology and specific methods adopted will be outlined and discussed.

Chapter 4

Methodology

The current chapter provides an outline of the epistemological issues and the research design governing this work. Figure 4.1 guides the structure of this chapter.

Figure 4.1 - Research design



(Based on Crotty, 1998)

This construct is discussed below

4.1 Epistemological issues

Epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge, its possibility, scope and general basis (Hamlyn, 1995). The researcher has adopted a constructionist view of human

knowledge whereby knowledge is *constructed* rather than *discovered*. The philosophy behind this *view of the world* is that knowledge is not 'out there' waiting to be discovered but exists as we engage with the real world. Constructivists believe that the mind is active in the construction of knowledge and aim to understand the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it. "We invent concepts, models, and schemes to make sense of experience, and, further, we continually test and modify these constructions in the light of new experience" (Schwandt, 1998, p. 237). For constructionists, research should be understood as the exploration of experience within its social context because the objective world is mediated by people's limited perceptions and these perceptions can vary according to the context. Research involving people tends to be complex, difficult to define, and dynamic. To inquire about the nature of social events, a researcher need to gather evidence of people's perceptions according to the context in which they occur and the findings will always be qualified by people's perceptions of their experience in context.

Social constructionism is concerned with how the world comes to be endowed with meaning, and how these meanings are "reproduced, negotiated and transformed through social practice" (Cohen et al., 2004, p. 411). The social constructionist approach assumes that the terms by which the world is understood are social artefacts, products and historically situated interchanges among people (Gergen, 1999). Accepting that knowledge is accumulated in this way, it follows that individuals may construct meaning in different ways. Careers, the focus of the current research, mean different things to different people. What influences a career to one person may have no impact on another. It is feasible that knowledge of careers in the tourism industry

could be constructed in various ways depending on the culture, environment or social group. It is therefore important to reiterate that the current research will provide the tourism industry and individuals with knowledge of careers in the Australian context but care needs to be taken in generalising this information.

Burr (1995) outlines four key assumptions underpinning social constructionism. The first is *a critical stance toward taken-for-granted knowledge.* Constructionists challenge the notions of reality as objective, fixed and knowlable and are invited to use reflexivity in the research relationship. *Historical and cultural specificity* is Burr's second point. Our understandings of the world "must not be seen as static or inevitable, but as historically and culturally situated, changing and developing across time and space" (Cohen et al., 2004, p. 410). Third, *knowledge is sustained by social processes.* Social constructionism views the construction of knowledge as an interactive process whereby people create and recreate versions of reality through social practice. Burr's final point is that *knowledge and social action go together.* This point suggests that particular versions of reality lead to particular forms of action.

Burr's four assumptions of social constructionism encourage the questioning of conventional definitions of career, assumptions about what constitutes viable career paths and notions of acceptable career behaviour, and highlight the importance of the historical and cultural context in career thinking while linking individuals and their social worlds.

The researcher believes there is a knowable world but that we can only imperfectly understand it. According to the tenets of constructivism, knowledge will always be mediated by experience and the current understanding of the phenomena under investigation. The term constructivism derives from the Latin term to interpret or to analyse. In the social sciences, constructivism is a means of highlighting the social contexts that construct and orient our efforts at knowing, communicating and becoming (Kayrooz and Trevitt, 2005).

Richardson (1993) promoted the inclusion of a social constructionist epistemological perspective for career development. From this position, there is no single reality 'out there', but it is recognised that what people see before them is affected by who they are, and what they value, as well as by their biases, theoretical predilections and social locations. Reality is socially created through the conversations that people have with one another and the agree-upon meanings that are determined through interactions. Savickas (1993) emphasised the need for professionals in career development fields to transition from a psychology of careers to a social analysis of work as in this era of fading hierarchical bureaucracies, individuals can no longer build their lives around one stable career. He also applied the postmodern concepts of moving from objective truth to perspective reality and moving from general principles to useful practices. He suggested that both modern (quantitative) and postmodern (qualitative) approaches to research could advance the knowledge and understanding of career development and that the usefulness of knowledge should guide inquiry. Both Savickas and Richardson believe that the field of career development would benefit from postmodern methods of inquiry and theory development that incorporate the context and multiple influences of an individual's career or work history.

Peavy (1997) asserted that most models of career development are still based on logical positivism even though this concept as a viable philosophical position has been 'dead' since the 1970s. He called for subsequent revisions in the practice of careers to reflect the more relevant postmodern or postpositivist philosophy. Specifically he placed his ideas for revision in a constructivist perspective that acknowledged the multiplicity of realities and contextual influences on career development. He suggested that the gap between 'life' and 'career' be eliminated and more holistic perspectives be incorporated.

As stated, the social constructionist epistemology guides the approach to the current career research. This approach aims to tackle this challenge by embracing three of the criteria suggested by Cohen et al., (2004, p. 410): first

> elucidate the socially and culturally embedded nature of careers…that facilitate greater understanding of the relationship between individual agency and social context. Second, given the notion of constructed/contested versions of reality discussed, we need methods that bring contractions and struggles over meaning to the surface… Third, we must be aware of the frames of meaning that we, as researchers, bring to the research process, recognising that these assumptions and values are themselves only versions of reality, echoing, competing, and colliding with the versions presented by our participants.

Within the career literature discussed in Chapter 2, a dichotomy has emerged between what is seen as the traditional and bureaucratic career and the *new* or *boundaryless* career. However, positivistic methods still dominate research in the career field and this has resulted in the persistence of unhelpful divisions: the individual or the organisation; career as subjective experience or objective phenomenon; and the old or the new career concept (Cohen et al., 2004). Within a constructionist perspective, individuals through their social practices construct the notion of the social world. A

career, from a social constructionist perspective "is not conceptualised as a form or structure that an individual temporarily inhabits, constraining or enabling her in her journey. Rather, it is constituted by the actor herself, in interaction with others, as she moves through time and space" (Cohen et al., 2004, p. 409).

As the current thesis embeds career research in a historical and cultural context, a central tenet of social constructionism, this epistemological view is appropriate. According to Cohen et al., (2004, p. 419) "a social constructionist perspective accesses the parts that other approaches can not reach, providing insights into dimensions of career that are often eclipsed through more positivistic approaches".

This research does not aim to pursue knowledge that seeks to provide an accurate and comprehensive description of reality. Rather, it is anticipated that the results from this thesis will advance our understanding of the tourism career phenomena and ignite further interest and enquiry. The constructivist paradigm allows the enquirer to address concerns through a 'dialectic' of iteration, analysis, critique, reiteration, reanalysis, that leads eventually to a joint construction of a case (Schwandt, 1998).

4.2 Theoretical perspective

A brief discussion of this study's theoretical perspective or the philosophical stance lying behind the methodology provides a context for the process involved in the research and a basis for its logic and its criteria (Crotty, 1998).

Various theoretical paradigms underpin tourism research. These paradigms are positivism, an interpretive social sciences approach, a critical theory orientation,

feminist perspectives, a post-modern approach and a chaos theory orientation (Jennings, 2001).

The debate over positivism versus postpositivism within the social sciences plays out in career studies due to differing assumptions about measuring and predicting careers. These include the social science reform perspective that takes a more interactionist approach and emphasises the relative nature of individual and organisational behaviour such as Van Maanen (1977) advocated. The applied career theory typically takes either a functional or more critical perspective. The functional perspective, with applications in human resource management assumes that status quo organisational structures are generally effective. The goal is to keep the structure appropriately staffed through predictive measures of human capital. The critical perspective examines how these structures adversely affect individuals and how individuals adapt to and perhaps influence organisational structures (Jablonski, 2005)

For Arthur et al (1999) these 'philosophies of knowledge' in career theory compel the interrogation of all career research. Namely, is the research focused on adding incrementally to our understanding of the world or on directly challenging existing knowledge as it is claimed? And does the research aim to refine or refute existing applications or practice.

4.2.1 Why an interpretive approach is appropriate

A constructivist believes that to understand this world of meaning one must interpret it (Schwandt, 1998). While the positivist approach is based on universal regularities or causal laws, the interpretive approach suggests that the most significant aspect of

human activity is the way it creates or expresses 'meaning', a quality of life that cannot be adequately grasped in terms of the regularities and uniformities of causal laws (Hayes, 1985). Interpretivism is the theoretical perspective emerged in contradistinction to positivism and attempts to understand and explain human and social reality (Crotty, 1998). The ontological basis of interpretive research is the acceptance of multiple realities. The research is conducted in the empirical world in order to develop explanations of the phenomena. The goal is to understand the meaning of social phenomena (Schwandt, 1998). This contrasts with the positivist paradigm which commences with theory and then tests the theory in the empirical world (Jennings, 2001) with an aim of scientific explanation (Schwandt, 1998). For the empiricist, social reality consists of a set of social facts that can be defined and described. This data is identifiable and verifiable in such a way so as not to be subject to further interpretation. Interpretivists assume that the empiricist's picture of social reality omits the processes by which meanings are "created, negotiated, sustained, and modified within a specific context of human action" (Schwandt, 1998, p. 225).

The interpretive theoretical paradigm has primarily grown from the works of Geertz (1973) and Becker (1979, in Harwood, 1985) and has informed much research in the social sciences domain. Geertz (1973) has proposed that social scientists study meaning rather than behaviour, seek understanding rather than causal laws, and reject mechanistic explanations of the natural-science variety in favour of interpretive explanations. The basic premise behind Geertz's thought is a reconsideration of the concept of culture in that 'culture is context' and that analysis of it should not be an experimental science in search of law but an interpretive one in search of meaning (Shankman, 1984). Geertz (1973, p 26) contends that "the essential task of theory

building here is not to codify abstract regularities but to make thick description possible, not to generalise across cases, but to generalise within them".

Interpretive approaches require the inquirer to actively enter the worlds of people being studied in order to see the situation as it is seen by the actor (Schwandt, 1998). To understand career development in the tourism industry, it was important to gather information from an insider's perspective. The collection of qualitative data through surveys and follow-up, in depth, semi structured interviews allowed the exploration of this perspective. The use of the interpretive paradigm allowed the researcher to acquire an in-depth knowledge of the tourism career experience that is grounded in the empirical world. The emphasis from the interpretive point of view is in seeking generalisations from the particular (Phillimore and Goodson, 2004). The aim of the current research was to identify patterns and trends recognising that phenomena are multifaceted, with each contributing to understanding (Riley and Love, 2000). Patterns emerge through an interative process and can change over time.

Limitations to the interpretive theory need to be acknowledged. These imitations are present because it "lacks predictability, replicability, verifiability, and law-generating capacity (Shankman, 1984, p. 264) but it is argued that the road to discovering the causes and effects of social phenomena lies less through postulating forces and measuring them than through noting expressions and inspecting them (Geertz, 1973 in Shankman, 1984). Geertz also acknowledges that while the interpretive explanation should somehow fit realities both past and in the future, he acknowledges that interpretive explanation is not, at least in the strict meaning of the term, *predictive* nor is it *verifiable.* Furthermore he concedes that interpretive theory has no means for

evaluating alternative accounts of the same phenomenon. Despite these criticisms, interpretive approaches to research phenomena are accepted as providing information rich, descriptive analysis that facilitates the process of *understanding* which is fundamental to interpretivism.

4.3 Methodology

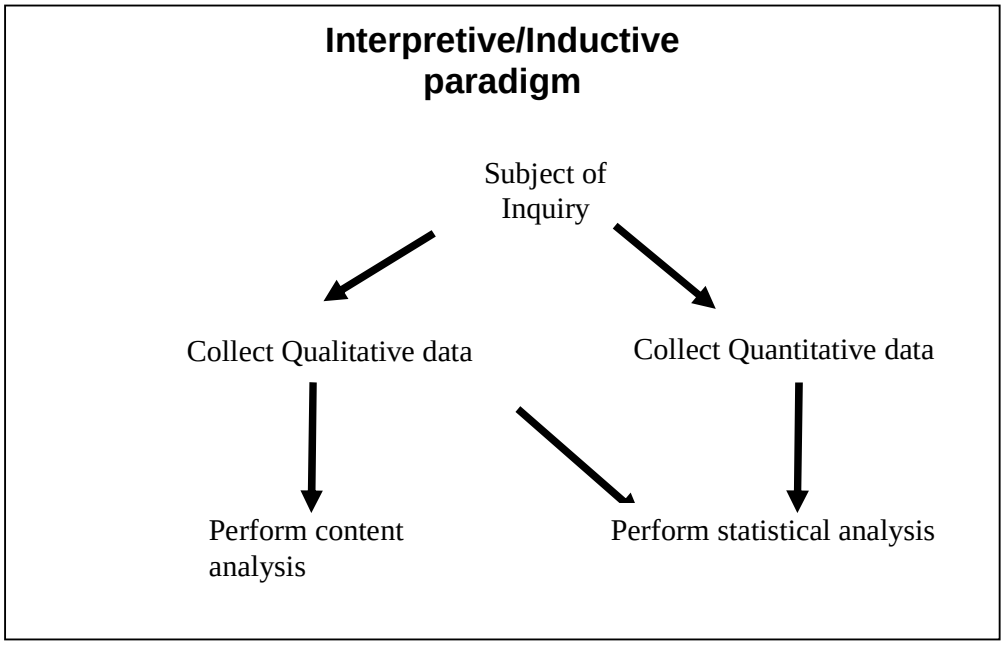
The current research took advantage of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Support for the use of mixed methods is divided. Supporters suggest mixed methods as a means to maximise the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of each method. However, non-supporters suggest that "as the two methodologies are founded in specific paradigms with differing ontological and epistemological views, mixing methods results in mixing theoretical world views that are contradictory to each other." (Jennings, 2001, p. 133). Gorard (2004, p 20) takes this point a little further by suggesting that research 'paradigms' are often used as "silos to protect their inhabitants from having to work with both text and numbers".

Supporters of the mix of qualitative and quantitative methodologies suggest that the two are complementary rather than competing approaches (Finn et al., 2000). This support is further endorsed by Patton (1990, p. 189) who suggests "a variety of mixes are possible – mixes of measurement, design and analysis" and Richards (2005, p. 36) that "qualitative and quantitative data do not inhabit different worlds…most qualitative studies will need both sorts of data". In the area of psychology, Miller and Crabtree (1994) talk of four possible designs involving qualitative inquiry: concurrent, nested, sequential and the combination design. Other researchers have introduced variations to these categories, amending them to reflect the emphasis on

qualitative approaches (see Henderson and Bedini, 1995). This latter adaptation suggests 'primary' combination designs rely on qualitative methods but use quantitative data to determine representativeness. 'Secondary' designs would utilise qualitative methods to enrich, explain or elaborate quantitative findings. It is not necessary to discuss these designs further in this dissertation; suffice it to say that mixed methods are widely accepted and increasing in their sophistication.

It is useful to illustrate the use of mixed methods followed in this research.

Figure 4.2 - Interpretive paradigm



(Adapted from Patton, 1990)

It is important to note that the two methods of data collection do not have equal weighting in this thesis. The researcher relies heavily on the use of qualitative data that is supplemented by the use of quantitative research representing a 'primary' combination design suggested by Henderson and Bedini (1995). The combining of

both qualitative and quantitative methodologies facilitated the process of *understanding*, a fundamental of interpretivism discussed earlier in this chapter.

4.3.1 Qualitative methodology

The aim of this research was to explore contextual influences on careers in the tourism industry. To achieve this aim, it was essential for the research participants to tell parts of their *career stories* which would produce meaningful data for interpretation and understanding. As qualitative methods comprise "an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world" (Van Maanen, 1983, p. 9) this method is appropriate for this thesis. A research procedure that produced descriptive data, presenting the respondents' own words and their views and experiences was necessary to allow real life situations to unfold. The use of qualitative measures allows information to be collected both textually and verbally. In qualitative research, the context and the associated interactions of natural surroundings are crucial because they shape the entity being studied (Riley and Love, 2000). As mentioned in Chapter 1, it was hoped this thesis might add to the body of knowledge in respect to both 'career studies' and 'tourism' literature. Qualitative research has been a primary source of enquiry in both disciplines. Cohen (1988, p. 30) even suggests that "the most significant and lasting contributions…have been made by researchers who employed an often-loose qualitative methodology in the study of tourism and provides a list of authors involved in seminal work in tourism initiated by qualitative research.

In the quest to understand how individuals understand careers and account for their careers, a consideration of how people talk about their careers is important. One approach to obtaining a more holistic view of careers is to adopt a narrative approach that enables the identification of patterns in a retrospective study (Gibson, 2004; Collin, 1998; Bailey, 1996; Ladkin, 1999b; Czarniawska, 1998). Through these narratives, individuals talk about stages and episodes relevant in the creation of their career stories. These continuous narratives, merging past and present, are central to new definitions of career (Cohen et al., 2004). Examples of such definitions are provided by Arthur and Rousseau (1996a, p.6) "The unfolding sequence of a person's work experience over time" and Collin and Watts (1996, p. 393) "individual's development in learning and work throughout life". Although the data collection method used in the current research, and described later in this chapter, cannot be deemed full narratives, opportunities were provided to elicit the telling of relevant episodes and events in the creation of the respondents' career stories. This method was endorsed by Waitzkin et al (1994) who assert that narratives do not require full completion or need to form a coherent whole. These narratives can be interrupted and lacking a discrete form of clear beginnings, endings and chronological sequencing of events.

It should also be noted that the researcher conducted an exploratory study using career story-telling which was used in the development of the theoretical framework for the current study. This preliminary study was discussed in detail in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

Despite the increased popularity of qualitative research, opponents such as Wells (1991) consider that qualitative findings lack factual data–based validity and assert that this type of research should be conducted systematically enough to render it valid in the sense that quantitative research is valid. However, this view ignores the flexibility of qualitative research particularly for service organisations that are labour intensive and require high levels of client interaction.

The issue of *reliability* is often raised when assessing qualitative research techniques. However, the issue of 'repeatability' is not particularly useful for much social science research, of which the current thesis is an example. Careers and career development are unique to the individual. They are underpinned by demographic, cultural, and motivational stimuli. There is, therefore, little chance that the findings would be the same if the research were to be repeated at a later date, or with a different sample of subjects (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000; Gorman and Clayton, 2005). It is also doubtful that the researcher could reproduce the same social setting in order to repeat the study.

Although much attention is placed on testing the *validity* of qualitative research, it should be noted that Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that in qualitative research, investigators do not need to demonstrate validity but rather methodological excellence.

Another criticism of qualitative analysis is that it may not be appropriate for the researcher to be the only one to decide which are the important themes or issues emerging from the information (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). However, the researcher argues that the content analysis was thorough and strategic and the use of some

statistical analysis and direct participant quotations ensures the emergent themes are credible.

In summary, the use of qualitative research for this thesis enabled the researcher to:

- understand and explain the personal career experiences of individuals;
- experience some of the research issues from the participants' perspective;
- explore personal changes over time;
- conduct a holistic study of the influences on careers in tourism;
- focus on the participants' understanding and interpretations; and
- focus on human-interest issues that are meaningful to everyday managers.

(Based on Ticehurst and Veal, 2000).

The use of qualitative information in this research varies from traditional methods is several ways and these are discussed below.

Qualitative research tends to use unstructured forms of data collection (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1998). Traditionally methods include in-depth interviews, group interviews, focus groups, participant observation and ethnographic approaches (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). However, the researcher has used a structured data collection technique.

In the qualitative research process, the data analysis and collection usually take place concurrently while in this thesis data analysis occurred at the end of the project.

In the qualitative research process, the hypothesis formation usually evolves as the research progresses. As noted in Chapter 1 of this thesis, the research questions were established prior to the data collection.

Qualitative research is generally associated with small sample sizes as the traditional methods of collecting qualitative data mentioned earlier, tend to be time consuming. However, a relatively large number of participants were involved in the current study.

4.3.2 Quantitative methodology

Although the research method was primarily qualitative, some of the questionnaire material provided the opportunity for an initial quantitative analysis of the salient features of the thesis.

The collection of data in numeric form allowed the researcher to identify and test relationships between variables. These relationships have been represented in statistical tables and graphical representations. Simple data analysis was carried out on these quantitative measures and took the form of frequency distributions and cross-tabulations.

As mentioned previously, quantitative data was collected to supplement the use of qualitative analysis. The researcher was aware that some quantifiable variables will likely impact on the findings of this research and analysing these variables adds to the findings of this thesis.

4.4 Methods

Survey research was used to collect both the qualitative and quantitative data. Follow-up in-depth interviews were then conducted to further explore some of the findings from the surveys.

4.4.1 Survey research

A Questionnaire design

As established in Chapter 2, careers in the tourism industry have received minimal attention in the literature. Despite this dearth of information, four relevant works were analysed in Chapter 3, Theoretical considerations, and a model developed based on these works. In order to test this model, the researcher aimed to collect both qualitative and quantitative data on career experiences from an Australian population of tourism employees. The questionnaire is best used where "people's self reports or subjects' responses… are the best sources of information" (Sproull, 1995, p. 164). Questionnaires are normally associated with the collection of quantitative data; however, they can incorporate open-ended questions for analytical purposes if explanations and clarification is required. For survey research it is essential that all pertinent variables are identified and operationalised in the research design (Finn et al., 2000). Information on this step is included in Chapter 1, Introduction, Chapter 2, Literature Review, and Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations.

The questionnaire was designed for self completion by respondents. The macro design of the questionnaire aimed to address the research questions outlined in the introduction and to test all aspects of the model developed in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

The questionnaire was divided into seven separate sections, each representing one aspect of the model. These sections include:

- Section 1: Demographic Information
- Section 2: Career Development
- Section 3: Education
- Section 4: Career Moves (mobility)
- Section 5: Mentoring
- Section 6: Career Development Strategies
- Section 7: Additional Information

A copy of the final questionnaire used is provided in Appendix 1. The questionnaire was designed using closed questions, with pre-coded answers or scales, and open-ended questions for the collection of a respondent's feeling on, or explanation of, particular issues. Some questions utilised a Likert scale for ratings. Likert scales are commonly used for measuring attitudes and perceptions (Johns and Lee-Ross,1998). In this particular survey the scales were used to measure perceptions and included ratings of strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree. Although there is some debate (Johns and Lee-Ross,1998) about the use of a mid point in such scales, the researcher saw little value in forcing respondents to select one view or the other so a mid point was provided in each Likert scale. The questionnaire was designed using the computer program, Survey Monkey (see www.surveymonkey.com) and identical questionnaires were prepared for each State and Territory in Australia.

The questionnaire was opened on 16 January 2005 and was closed on 13 March 2005. The research was confident that this eight week period allowed adequate time to ensure an acceptable response rate.

Some of the questions included in the questionnaire need explanation.

Question 7 is designed to establish the tourism sectors employing the respondents. As mentioned previously, it is difficult to reach agreement on what constitutes tourism employment.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics includes the following list of sectors in the Tourism Satellite Accounts:

- travel agency and tour operator services
- road transport and motor vehicle hiring
- air and water transport
- accommodation
- cafes and restaurants
- clubs, pubs, taverns and bars
- rail transport
- manufacturing
- retail trade
- casinos and other gambling services
- libraries, museums and arts
- other entertainment services
- education

- all other industries.

Although the TSA provides valuable information on the impact of tourism on the Australian economy, these accounts place much emphasis on the hospitality sector rather than tourism. Tourism experts debate the break-up of tourism employment sectors but suggest there are strong links to other economic sectors. Suggested sector categories include:

- transport
- tour operators, travel agencies
- tourist attractions
- conference business
- tour guides
- tourist information services
- souvenir shops, beach vendors
- relevant government offices
- NGOs
- educational establishments (Riley et al., 2002)

In an examination of popular tourism references, this list is yet again revised to include: transport, travel agencies, tour operators, conventions and events, tour guides, food services, attractions, festivals, sport, culture and heritage, wine tourism, indigenous tourism, retail, environment management, health and spa tourism and government agencies (Leiper, 2004; Douglas et al., 2001; Richardson and Fluker, 2004; Pearce et al., 1998).

In the current survey design, the list of tourism sectors was designed to take account of ABS, tourism lists and the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification. Participants were asked to identify in which of the following sectors they are employed:

- cultural and recreational services
- education
- accommodation, cafes and restaurants
- transport and storage
- government, administration, or defence
- retail trade
- other

(See Page 2 of Attachment 1: Questionnaire)

Clearly the multi-disciplinary dimension of tourism requires researchers of careers to collect descriptive variables in addition to employment sector to reflect the diversity in labour types. This diversity of labour types is due to the diversity in size, business type and in the extent of fluctuation of customer demand. These variations in job types also result in a variety of different types of workers employed in the industry (Riley et al., 2002). In addition there are variations in employment status with the industry offering jobs on both a full time and part time basis requiring permanent, seasonal, and migrant labour (International Labour Office 1989a in Riley et al., 2002).

Riley et al., (2002) suggest the collection of descriptive variables such as job title, job content, job tenure, level of pay, level of skill, sector employed, type of organisation, size of organisation, status or class of organisation. These are standard tenets of any

occupational classification scheme. In the current research, the questionnaire was designed to collect information on these variables and to establish the basis of employment such as transient worker or professional.

Tourism establishment are often used as indicators of tourism employment but a careful set of assumptions needs to be set up for interpreting the results. The kinds of variables that need to be defined are: sector of tourism, type of establishment, location and inclusive occupational titles. Again the questionnaire was designed to take account of these variables.

Question 12 asked respondents to reflect on the aspects that had influenced their career. The researcher included this question in Section 2 with the aim of eliciting a list of influences generated by the respondents. It was thought that this structure would get respondents to consider all influences that have likely affected their career before considering only the role of education, mobility and mentoring.

Sections 3, 4, and 5 of the questionnaire are similar in structure and aim to establish the relevance of education (Section 3), career moves or mobility (Section 4) and mentoring (Section 5) on tourism careers. Each of these sections includes a Likert rating on how the individual influence has helped their career, the way the influence has helped or hindered their career and other related information.

Section 6 of the questionnaire was designed to establish career development strategies employed by respondents and Section 7 sought information on any additional aspects respondents would like to make relating to career influences. Respondents were then

asked if they would be willing to take part in interviews to follow up information included in their survey.

At the completion of the design phase the questionnaire was piloted on 20 industry members and academics. A pilot study is a small-scale replica and a rehearsal of the main study which aims to the research methods and research instruments and to test the response of the subjects to the methods of data collection (Sarantakos, 2005). Feedback was positive and any confusing or sensitive questions were amended or reworded.

B Validity

All steps were taken to ensure that the questionnaire was designed to maximise the validity of this research. This was done by testing questions with fellow academics and amending as appropriate. The questionnaire was then issued as a pilot on the local tourism industry and again amendments were carried out as suggested. The researcher was confident that the terminology used within the questionnaire was clear and comprehensible to a wide audience and that the questions were designed to maximise the collection of appropriate and useful information.

C E-questionnaires

There are both advantages and disadvantages of e-questionnaires. The benefits of an e-questionnaire can be the speed and ease of reaching potential respondents, the minimal cost involved, and the speed of data collection (Jennings, 2001). However, the limitations of e-questionnaires also need to be considered. Among these are the extent to which the population being studied uses information technology, the

possibility of data corruption via virus transition, the possibility of non-genuine replies as a result of computer hacking activities, and the possible unreliability of e-lists (Jennings, 2001).

The disadvantages of e-questionnaires were considered throughout the design phase and the following points address the limitations of e-questionnaires:

- As potential respondents all had an email address, some IT knowledge was assumed.
- Dedicated e-lists were not used in the distribution of the survey.
- Virus detection software offered a high level of protection against data corruption.
- The chance of receiving non-genuine replies was thought to be minimal due to the time required to complete the questionnaire and the type of information sought.

4.4.2 Justification for utilising an e-questionnaire

The decision to use an e-questionnaire rather than a mail survey or telephone survey was based on the sample frame discussed in the sample design below. As no database of addresses or telephone numbers of Australian tourism employees was available, the use of on-line technology was attractive. Feedback from the pilot e-questionnaire endorsed this option. Respondents of the pilot survey reinforced the researcher's perception that the e-questionnaire was both easy and fast to complete and return.

4.5 Sample design

Sample design involves the selection of a technique to choose the survey population. All efforts to obtain a representative sample were exhausted.

A major concern of this research was identifying the target population. The aim of this thesis was to survey the national population of tourism employees. The difficulty of defining tourism employment was discussed in Chapter 2, Literature Review, and the result of this issue of definition is identifying those workers in Australia who are clearly in the tourism industry. Tourism is not an industry in the traditional sense. Industries are classified according to the goods and services that they produce and this works well for supply driven industries. However, tourism depends on the status of the consumer (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002-03) so is demand driven and as such tourism is not a recognised industry in the Standard Industrial Classification. Most countries' national accounts would not list tourism as a separate entity (Riley et al., 2002). To address this issue, Australia now measures the economic contribution of tourism through the Tourism Satellite Accounts. As no comprehensive list of tourism industry employees is available, the researcher implemented three separate steps to attain the sample frame.

4.5.1 Step 1- A cluster sample of Tourism Industry Council membership.

Due to the difficulties of finding information on the population, the researcher sought advice from tourism professionals and, in particular, the Tourism Industry Council (TIC). Each State in Australia except for the Northern Territory has a regional Tourism Industry Council. Membership of these Councils includes small, medium, and large tourism enterprises, private and public sector enterprises and profit and non-

profit organisations. The ACT Tourism Industry Council worked with the researcher and in consultation with each regional Tourism Industry Council Executive Officer organised for the electronic distribution of the questionnaire to their members. In the case of the Northern Territory, the questionnaire was emailed to the State officer of accredited tourism businesses to forward to its members.

This TIC sample effectively targeted membership tourism organisations and resulted in an approximate response rate of 32%. However, the researcher was doubtful that TIC members alone could be classified as representative of Australian tourism employment so a broader population was targeted in Step 2.

4.5.2 Step 2 – An exhaustive Google search

In addition to cluster sampling explained in Step 1 above the next stage for the researcher was to gather a more purposive sample by conducting an exhaustive Google search of tourism businesses in each State and Territory. An email with a link to the survey was then sent to a contact within each of the tourism businesses found via the Google search. The approximate response rate from the Google search was 23%. Steps 1 and 2 of the sample design effectively target State and Territory tourism organisations. However, the researcher was concerned that national bodies may have been omitted from the survey population.

4.5.3 Step 3 – National tourism organisations

In order to capture organisations at the national level, a purposive sampling technique was used. This involved an additional questionnaire targeting national tourism bodies

that would not be members of any State or Territory Tourism Industry Council or listed with Google under State/Territory tourism organisations. These national representatives were collected through an additional Google internet search and included Tourism Australia, Tourism Training Australia, Meetings Industry Association of Australia and others. A response rate of 77% was achieved in this step.

The aim of the three steps in the survey design discussed above was to collect 60 surveys from each State and Territory and to obtain 20 from business representing Australia-wide tourism enterprises. The researcher aimed to collect approximately 500 surveys.

4.5.4 Justification for the sampling technique

The decision to adopt a non-probability sampling technique and more specifically, to use a combination of cluster and purposive sampling was taken because of the difficulty of accessing a national list of tourism employees. Cluster sampling involves groups of elements or clusters and is often used when no sampling frame is available for all units of the target population (Sarantakos, 2005). The cluster involved in the current research is the TIC membership sample. In purposive sampling, the selection of participants for a study is based on judgement; in the researcher's opinion, the subjects are thought to be relevant to the research topic (Jennings, 2000; Sarantakos, 2005). In this study the purposive sample is the national survey discussed above.

In defence of the choice of this sampling method, TIC membership is representative of both ABS Tourism Satellite Account sectors and generally accepted tourism

sectors. In reference to monitoring the response rate, in qualitative research, it is the 'quality', not the 'quantity' of the data that determines the sample size (Sarantakos, 2005). Finally membership of TIC reflects a clear perception of work within the tourism industry and this was supplemented by the sample allocated from the Google search.

4.5.5 Disadvantages of the sampling technique

Some issues with this sampling method caused the researcher concern. Firstly, a lack of control over the process was an issue. As the databases of TIC membership are confidential, the researcher placed control for the questionnaire distribution in the hands of each State/Territory Executive Officer. Access to the questionnaire for prospective respondents was via a link in an email, and the researcher provided appropriate textual information relating to both the study and the researcher. However, complete control over the exact message lay with Executive Officers. This may seem a minor concern but as response rates to questionnaires are generally low, (Crotty, 1998; Sarantakos, 2005; Jennings, 2001) the persuasive and encouraging communication of documentation accompanying the survey could impact on this response rate.

The second concern involved the measurement of a response rate. As the researcher was not able to accurately monitor the distribution of the questionnaire, only an approximate response rate could be calculated. As the distribution of the questionnaire was layered it was not possible to keep track of exactly how many questionnaires were distributed. It is important to illustrate this point. The National Capital Attractions Association (NCAA) is a member of the ACT and Region

Tourism Industry Council. The NCAA represents approximately twelve tourism enterprises. The distribution process involved the TIC Executive Officer forwarding the email/questionnaire to the NCAA who then forwarded it onto its own membership list. Each Executive Officer was able to provide the researcher with only an estimation of distribution numbers. The response rate is discussed in Chapter 5, Results.

4.6 Data analysis

Before detailing the process of analysis for this particular thesis is it useful to explore the types of career research and analysis discussed in the popular literature.

4.6.1 Career analysis

The research technique used to understand career patterns and processes is called career analysis. It is a form of work history analysis and is concerned specifically with examining a person's career over time. Work history information can generate both quantitative and qualitative data and is carried out by collecting data either longitudinally over time or by using the recall method. The collection of life and work history data is an established methodology for the social sciences (Ladkin, 1999b) and falls within the umbrella term of 'life writing' along with life stories, autobiographies, journals, diaries, portraits, profiles, memoirs and case studies (Smith, 1994). These work biographies can then be analysed at the individual level, or on an aggregate to illustrate patterns and trends. (Riley et al., 2002). Support for the life history approach continued through the Chicago tradition of sociological analysis.

4.6.2 The problems of measurement: theory and technique

Work histories are the basic data of many approaches to career research and draw for their theoretical foundations from the notion of biographical memory. Life histories provide an opportunity for the researcher to get close to the experiences and feelings of the respondent and offer a valuable insight into attempts to unravel the relationships in social life and gain a better understanding of social relationships (Ladkin, 1999b).

This type of methodology is not without its critics. Underpinning critiques of life histories and the recall method is the argument that they provide no wider link to the theoretical understanding, they have little power of generalisability, they are time consuming and the results are often vague. They are only as good as the accuracy with which individuals report their career histories. The use of biographic collection raises certain questions. For example, how far back can people remember? What sort of bias will be found in their recollection? Can people accurately remember the specific dates that events took place and in what kind of detail can people remember past events?

4.6.3 Justification for autobiographical memory as a research method

Reiser et al (1986) argue that autobiographical retrieval is a directed research process where retrieval strategies are employed to direct and narrow the scope of the search. Activity based strategies, goal-based strategies, people-based strategies and time strategies are identified as classifications of information represented in knowledge structures which directly search for an experience. As work biographies are essentially examining careers, and as careers are goal based, and fit into any of the

four identified knowledge structures (activity, goal, people and time-based) it is reasonable to assume that aspects relating to the career can be effectively remembered and recalled.

As part of the justification for the recall method, one must attempt to address how far back individuals will be able to recall memories from the past. In an examination of autobiographical memories across the lifespan, Rubin et al (1986) analysed the results of their own and other research. The comparison revealed the important finding that the data displayed the same basic patterns: memories decline over the age of 40 with the increase in memories occurring at the time when the subjects were approximately 10-30. Within this pattern, three components were identified. Firstly a retention component for the last 20-30 years was noted, secondly, a childhood amnesia for the very early years was identified, and finally a reminiscence component focussing on youth was apparent. In conclusion, the distribution of autobiographical memories across the lifespan is orderly but differences are evident in the memory of autobiographical events across the lifespan.

The final section of autobiographical memory as a research methodology, is to illustrate support for the retrospective method of data collection. Data from five studies identified that subjects have a tendency to over estimate their ability to remember data and that there is a bias in reporting for factual data and attitude data. The authors stated that the best a retrospective inquiry can hope to achieve is the approximation of the event or the condition experienced by the subject. The implications of these aspects of human memory in the design of retrospective surveys are that the most obvious conclusions from human memory psychology is that

forgetting will occur and this would place constraints on the interpretation of results. Moss (1979 in Riley et al., 2002) provides an overview of the recall method in social survey. The overview states with confidence that the use of retrospective data will remain a necessary research tool as the research is much cheaper than longitudinal surveys, the shortcomings of the research method are not necessarily conclusive, and finally, new research can build on and improve existing work.

The principles of biographical analysis have been demonstrated as a way by which the supply side vehicles of the labour market can be understood. The fundamental approach is the idea that we can learn from the past and that an understanding of past labour market trends and how capital is accumulated gives vital indicators of the supply side of labour. The technique has been demonstrated to work successfully as an exploratory tool in dynamic labour markets.

Qualitative data are generally complex and before they can be analysed and used, must be coded to ensure methodical management (Johns and Lee-Ross, 1998). In the current thesis, each questionnaire was printed and given an identification number. In the preliminary stage of data analysis particular ideas and key words were counted and sorted into types, coded, and indexed.

4.6.4 Key word analysis

Key words were identified and the frequencies of their occurrence counted. This type of analysis helped to identify various elements influencing careers in tourism and the keywords most frequently used to describe elements of the participants' career experiences. This initial stage of data analysis was to determine possible themes.

4.6.5 Data reduction

All data require reduction if a story is to be told (Richards, 2005). All records were read and the researcher added comments and reflected on the record as a whole. The aim at this stage of the data analysis was to record qualitative data records that retain complexity and context.

4.6.6 Statistical analysis

For the quantitative data some simple statistical analysis and correlations were conducted. Some of the qualitative data records were reduced into numeric data for analysis and some quotations were kept for illustrative purposes (Richards, 2005). Quantifiable data was entered into SPSS and a series of cross tabulations were produced. In the cross tabulation process an exact Chi-square test was conducted using the Monte Carlo procedure. This procedure removes some of the concern relating to too many expected cells with a count less than five.

Chi-square test for independence is used to determine if two categorical variables are related (Pallant, 2004). Establishing this type of relation added a further depth to the analysis of the qualitative data.

In several of the questions, respondents were asked to rank particular influences into categories of ‘Strongly Agree’, ‘Agree’, ‘Neutral’, ‘Disagree’ and ‘Strongly Disagree’. For some of the statistical testing these categories were kept in tact but for others the ‘Strongly Agree’ and ‘Agree’ categories and the ‘Disagree’ and ‘Strongly Disagree’ categories were merged. This merging was conducted to various correlations to assist in the identification of patterns and trends.

4.6.7 Content analysis

The information gathered was sorted, coded, and evaluated in relation to the questions posed in Chapter 1 of this thesis. Coding refers to data reduction either by a system of symbols or by number and in qualitative research may fall under descriptors of 'descriptive', 'topic' and 'analytical' coding (Richardson, 2005). The final two descriptors involve interpretative processes. For this thesis symbolic coders were used for analysis. It should be noted that this coding process is clerical and mechanical, not analytical (Richardson, 2005). The next step was reading, thinking and reflecting on each data record. These purposive readings aimed to question the record and add to it, comment on it and move from particular text to themes in the thesis.

The researcher approached this purposive reading using the guidelines set out by Richardson (2005).

- Take the first data document, skim read it, then start again and read the text very thoroughly, line by line.
- Record anything interesting about any of the text.
- Identify why the text was interesting and record your answer.
- Focus on any passages that are especially interesting and compare with other situations. Write down your ideas.

Data records were then linked. A phrase that was just interesting acquired a deeper significance as it recurred in other accounts. Single comments were built into themes.

Through this process, themes evolved, were written up as memos, annotated and dated. These memos stored the story of interpretations and ideas which later gave legitimacy to the explanations and provided a type of 'log trail' for interpretation of the data. Coding of this data provided the opportunity to reflect on what the coded segments tell about a theme and its meaning in the project, and to find patterns in attitudes and behaviour. The process of data analysis, conducted in the manner described by Post and Andrews (1982) and Sanders (1982), involves searching the data for initial categories that seemed to reflect similarity across cases.

These steps allowed the researcher to move from descriptive writing up of the original record to writing conceptually and analytically.

4.7 Ethical considerations

Attempts to consider ethical questions at all stages of the research were made. The research received approval by the University of Canberra Ethics Committee. Participants were kept fully informed of the aims and objectives of the research and were empowered with information on which to make the choice to participate (Finn et al., 2000; Jennings, 2000).

As questionnaires were distributed electronically, an email was forwarded to all participants, detailing:

- the researcher's role and background;
- the aims of the research;
- what the research involved for the participants;
- the time commitment; and,
- how the results from this research were to be disseminated.

All interviewees indicated their willingness to participate on the questionnaire. At all stages of the research, confidentiality and anonymity was assured. All personal details of the respondents and all interview transcripts were handled as per the requirements of the Ethics Committee. All results were published in an aggregated form so that individual responses could not be identified and all supporting quotations were kept anonymous.

4.8 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to provide a clear illustration and justification of the research design to convince all readers that data collection and analysis was carried out in a thorough and unprejudiced way. The thesis was governed by a constructionist approach to knowledge and the theoretical perspective was interpretive. In line with this approach a mix of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies involving the use of electronic distribution of questionnaires with follow-up, in-depth interviews was adopted.

In support of this research approach it should again be stated that the aim of this thesis is to obtain only a snapshot, a 'still' of the 'moving picture' of influences on a career unfolding overtime. Care should be taken in adopting or transferring the findings of

this particular thesis to other settings as the snapshot will change each time a person changes company occupation, industry, location or social arrangement.

A detailed analysis of the influences affecting the careers of the respondents follows in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Results

An analysis of the data collected from the survey detailed in Chapter 4, Methodology is presented in this chapter and in Chapter 6. In this Chapter information on the respondents (Section 5.1 and 5.2) is detailed, including the industries in which they work, the positions they hold and demographic data relevant to the current research thesis.

The current Chapter also provides a detailed analysis of the influences which respondents believe have affected on their careers (Section 5.3). The researcher chose to detail these findings separately to the model testing to emphasise that the analysis to follow provides a spontaneous and unprompted picture of the issues respondents perceived to be affecting careers in tourism. This information was sought early in the data collection stage to determine if other areas emerged apart from those hypothesised.

In Chapter 6, an analysis is provided of the data collected to test the model as outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations. Throughout these two results chapters, the researcher will present the qualitative findings of the analysis and will supplement these findings with quantitative data as appropriate.

As outlined in Chapter 4, Methodology, an email survey was sent to a cross section of the Australian tourism workforce. In response to this email, 515 usable surveys were returned to the researcher. The breakdown of responses included in the survey from each State and Territory is listed in Table 5.1 below along with the response number from a separate survey sent to national organisations.

Table 5.1 - Responses by geographical location

Australian Capital Territory	n = 78
New South Wales	n = 90
Victoria	n = 72
Queensland	n = 64
South Australia	n = 66
Western Australia	n = 63
Northern Territory	n = 35
Tasmania	n = 32
Nation-wide organisations	n = 15
Total	**n = 515**

As discussed in the Methodology, it was not possible to determine an exact response rate. However, in Step 1 a link to the questionnaire was emailed to Tourism Industry Council membership (approximately 900 emails) and a usable response rate of 279 surveys or approximately 31% was achieved. In Step 2, a google search (approximately 1000 emails) resulted in the response rate of 220 usable surveys or approximately 22% and finally Step 3, targeting national tourism bodies (20 emails) achieved 15 usable surveys or an approximate response rate of 75% (See Chapter 4, Methodology, for further details of each step).

5.1 A representative sample

In order to confidently discuss the analysis, it is important to determine how representative this sample may be of total tourism employment. Representativeness

needs to be discussed in terms of the number of responses from each state and also in terms of the number of responses nationally. Although the Tourism Satellite Accounts produce data at a national level, no uniformity of data collection is available at the sub-national level for tourism sector employment. Consequently, it is problematic to estimate exact employment figures for the tourism industry at the state level and provide an accurate statement of the representativeness of the population. According to Fran Bailey, Minister for Small Business and Tourism, "The Tourism Satellite Account does not provide measures at the state/territory and regional levels. As a result a number of states/territories as well as Tourism Transport Forum Australia have developed estimates of tourism at the sub-national level. As differing methodologies have been used, these estimates cannot be compared with each other or with the national Tourism Satellite Account measure." (Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources, Sept, 2005)

As information on State/Territory tourism employment is not available, two estimates of tourism employment have been used in this Chapter in an attempt to determine how representative the State responses may be. The first is a comparison to hospitality employment collected by the Australian Bureau of Statistics and the second is with the use of estimates provided by the Tourism and Transport Forum Australia.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics produces current labour force figures regularly. Hospitality employment figures are a sub-set of this labour force survey and, as such, provide some insight into tourism employment. Table 5.2 below specifies tourism-related employment in the hospitality industry.

Table 5.2 - Tourism related employment in hospitality industry.

	Estimated employment effect on tourism 2003-04[1]	**Total industry employment, year to May 2004[2]**	**Effective proportion of tourism employment [3]**
	('000 persons)	('000 persons)	(%)
Accommodation	94.2	109.7	85.9%
Cafes and restaurants	50.7	226.1	22.4%
Pubs, clubs, taverns and bars	25.7	131.9	19.5%
Hospitality (not further defined)	-	2.6	-
TOTAL	**170.6**	**470.3**	**36.3%**

[1] Australian National Accounts, Tourism Satellite Account, 2003-04
[2] Australian Bureau of Statistics, Quarterly Labour Force Survey May 2004
[3] Data converted to percentages from original data

Table 5.2 suggests that hospitality is quite an integral part of tourism representing 36.3% of overall tourism employment. A comparison of hospitality employment figures to survey response figures provides an indication of how representative the sample may be. In Table 5.3 below, the percentage of responses received from each State and Territory is compared to each State or Territory percentage of total hospitality employment.

Table 5.3 - State survey responses and State hospitality employment

State	**Number of surveys received**	**Percentage of response**	**Approximate number of hospitality employees**	**% of Hospitality employees**
ACT	78	15.1%	9,100	1.8%
NSW	90	17.5%	176,000	35.0%
VIC	72	14.0%	115,200	22.9%
QLD	64	12.4%	106,800	21.2%
SA	66	12.8%	34,800	6.9%
WA	63	12.2%	43,500	8.6%
NT	35	6.8%	5,500	1.1%
TAS	32	6.2%	12,100	2.4%
National	15	2.9%		
TOTAL	**515**	**100.0%**	**503,000.0**	**100.0%**

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Quarterly Labour Force Survey (Annual average to August 2005)

The second measure of representativeness is derived from the Tourism and Transport Forum of Australia that produces an estimate of tourism employment by Commonwealth Electoral Divisions. From this data it was possible to extract data to provide an approximation of tourism employment numbers by State. These figures are provided in Table 5.4 below.

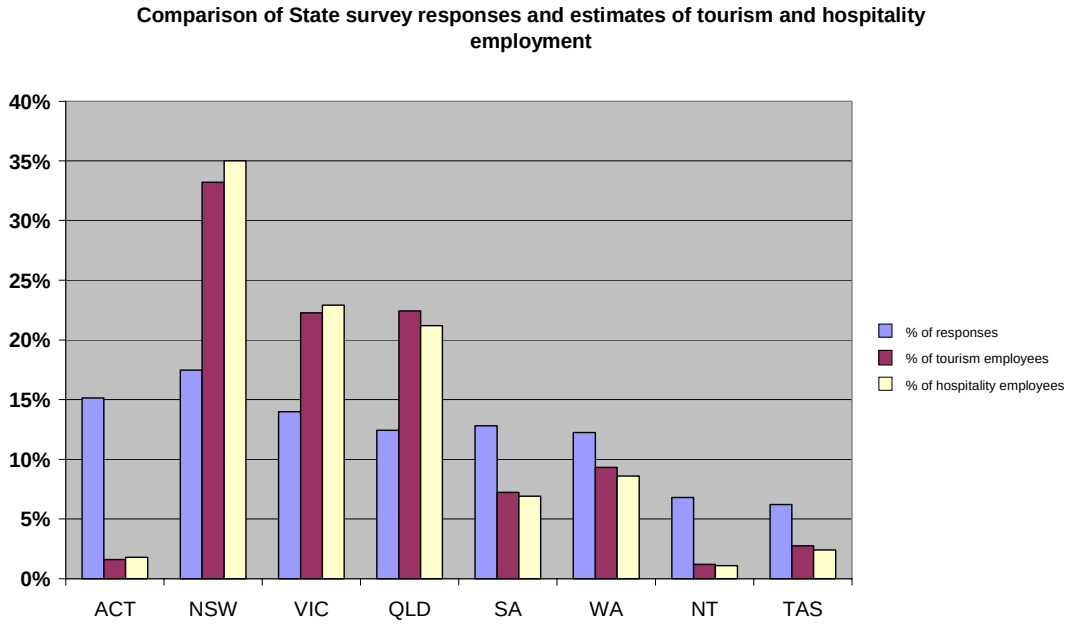
Table 5.4 - State Survey responses and State tourism employment

State	Number of Surveys Received	% of response	Approximate number of tourism employees	% of tourism employees
ACT	78	15.1%	8474	1.6%
NSW	90	17.5%	176766	33.2%
VIC	72	14.0%	118474	22.3%
QLD	64	12.4%	119425	22.4%
SA	66	12.8%	38519	7.2%
WA	63	12.2%	49603	9.3%
NT	35	6.8%	6354	1.2%
TAS	32	6.2%	14650	2.8%
National	15	2.9%		
TOTAL	**515**	**100.0%**	**532265**	**100.0%**

Source: Tourism and Transport Forum Estimates of Tourism Employment by Commonwealth Electoral Divisions (August 2004)

Combining and comparing the information above, provides some information on which to base any discussion of representativeness. In Figure 5.1 below, State/Territory survey response percentages are compared with State/Territory hospitality and tourism employment percentages as detailed in Tables 5.3 and 5.4 above:

Figure 5.1 - Comparison of response rate of survey by State/Territory to estimates of tourism and hospitality employment.



From Figure 5.1 above, it is clear that 15% of the total responses received originated from the ACT. As this Territory employs only 1.6% of tourism employment (see Table 5.4) and 1.8% of hospitality employment (see Table 5.3), it is overrepresented in this study. Several reasons may explain this over-representation. Firstly, the researcher is known by the ACT tourism industry. Secondly, these tourism employees knew that this study was being conducted and this may have lead to their enthusiasm to participate. Thirdly, there are a high number of tourism bodies affected by Government issues and, as the seat of Government is situated in Canberra, they may have been more aware of human resource management concerns in the industry. Fourthly, one stage of the data collection required Executive Officers of State and Regional Tourism Industry Council offices to disseminate the electronic survey. The then Executive Officer in Canberra was very enthusiastic about the research and this

may have stimulated high response rates. This overrepresentation by the ACT is acknowledged as a limitation in this study and is further discussed in Chapter 7. It should be noted that, South Australia, Western Australia, Northern Territory and Tasmania are over-represented.

On the other hand, New South Wales is under-represented in this study. Only 17.5% of the survey responses originated from this State yet New South Wales represents 33.2% of tourism employment (see Table 5.4) and 35% of hospitality employment (see Table 5.3). Victoria and Queensland are also under-represented in this study.

As the results of the study have been aggregated, this over and under-representation should be noted but should not have a major impact on the findings of this study. All analysis is conducted on the sample as a whole with no reference to State of origin.

A major difficulty for this research thesis was obtaining the sample. It was not possible to obtain a random sample as there was no database of tourism managers in Australia. However, every endeavour was made to identify a sample as representative as possible. It is important to note some of the steps undertaken by the researcher to address some of the disadvantages of the sampling techniques used. Firstly, the researcher carefully perused the information provided to ensure the respondent was technically eligible to participate in the survey. Secondly, although it was technically possible for respondents to send multiple responses, care was taken while collating surveys at the geographical level to note identical surveys. Eight surveys were pulled from the thesis as they were deemed as dual responses. Thirdly, it is acknowledged that many managers in the tourism industry may be been missed in this sampling

process. These omissions could have included new or small operators not associated with TIC or those without an obvious web presence. This may have resulted in a response rate skewed to large organisations.

It is acknowledged that the sample population is incomplete and biased to large and more professional organisations. In addition respondents were more likely to come from senior management in organisations with a high on-line presence.

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) for a population of 75,000 a sample size of 382 is recommended. They also prescribe for a population of 1,000,000 a sample size of 384 is recommended where results have a margin of error of plus or minus 5% at the 95% level of confidence. According to the Tourism Satellite Accounts, tourism employment nationally is estimated at 536,600 employed persons. A sample size of 515 easily falls within the parameters in Krejcie and Morgan's theory for determining sample size from a given population. Although this discussion relates to random samples which are solid and unbiased, it suggests that in a discussion of representativeness and levels of confidence of the current study, at the national level, a total of 515 surveys could be considered an effective number to represent the tourism employment population. Further discussion relating to representativeness of this sample is provided below in Section 5.2.

5.2 Information on respondents

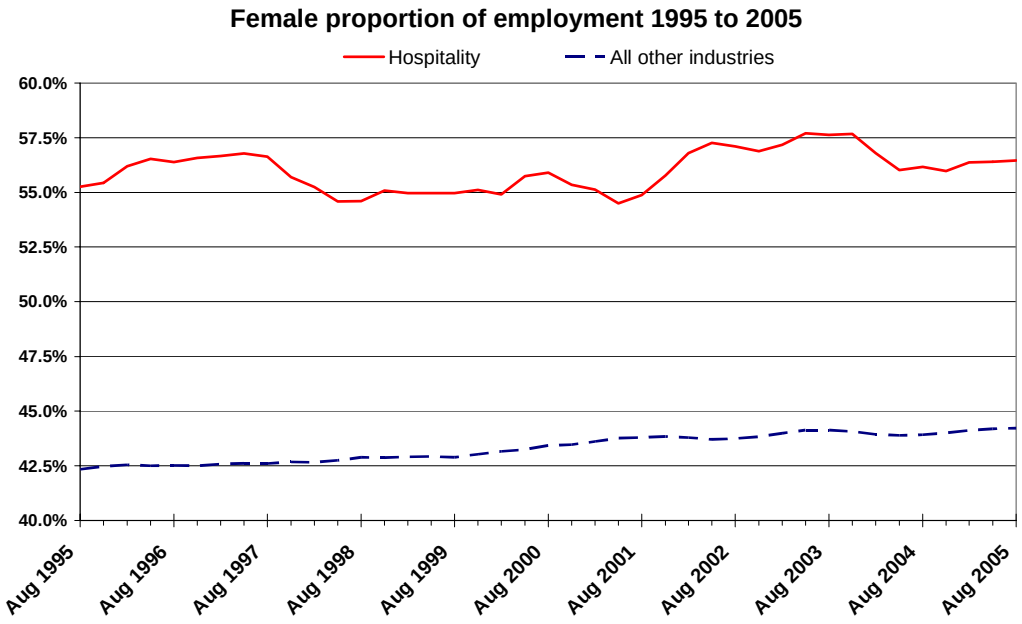
5.2.1 Demographic data

A summary of the demographic data of the respondents is provided in Table 5.5, Summary of Demographic data of respondents. This data includes information on the gender, age range, salary range, and level of education of the respondents.

5.2.2 Gender

Although at first glance, it would appear that females may be over represented in this sample with 70.2% responses from females and 29.8% responses from males, a closer examination suggests this over representation may not be as strong as it first appears and, in fact, may be in line with trends within the industry. Although exact numbers of females within tourism employment are unknown, hospitality figures provide an indication that females are over-represented in this industry and suggest this high proportion of responses from females is not surprising Figure 5.2 provides an indication of levels of female employment within the hospitality industry as compared to all other industries.

Figure 5.2 - Female proportion of employment within hospitality industry



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Quarterly Labour Force Survey, May 2004

Information from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006) on occupation by sex in tourism related or tourism subsets suggests the high response of females reflects industry trends. This Census information is provided below and indicates 37.58% of employees are male and 62.95% employees of female.

Table 5.5 - Occupation by gender, counts of persons for Australia (aged 15 years and over)

Occupation by gender, counts of persons for Australia					
	Males	**Females**	**Persons**	**Proportion of males**	**Proportion of females**
				%	%
Air transport	10324	636	10960	94.20%	5.80%
Caravan park managers	2009	2696	3705	54.22%	72.77%
Accommodation managers	1007	568	1575	63.94%	36.06%
Hospitality trainees	300	530	830	36.14%	63.86%
Hospitality workers	1659	2630	4289	38.68%	61.32%
Hotel and Motel managers	12293	8241	20534	59.87%	40.13%
Hotel Service supervisors	1701	2394	4095	41.54%	58.46%
Restaurant/catering managers	17079	21997	39076	43.71%	56.29%
travel and tourism agents	7217	17955	25172	28.67%	71.33%
Travel attendants	2561	5681	8242	31.07%	68.93%
Waiters	18377	61499	79826	23.02%	77.04%
TOTAL	**74527**	**124827**	**198304**	**37.58%**	**62.95%**

Source: 2001 Census of Population and Housing (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006)

In addition to tourism and hospitality employment statistics, it is useful to look at the trends within the tourism education sector. Table 5.6 below details the ratio of male and female students in tourism and tourism related courses in Australia between 2001 and 2004. This ratio of 30.4% male students and 69.6% female students is a further indication that the tourism sector is likely to be female dominated and that the response rate of 70.2% from females and 29.8% from males is relatively representative of the industry.

Table 5.6 -: All students in tourism field of education in Australia by gender, 2001-2004

	Domestic Students								
	Postgraduate			Undergraduate			Total		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
2001	18	21	39	400	1,135	1,535	418	1,156	1,574
2002	16	17	33	409	1,153	1,562	425	1,170	1,595
2003	23	47	70	390	1,070	1,460	413	1,117	1,530
2004	36	74	110	525	1,272	1,797	561	1,346	1,907
	Overseas Students								
	Postgraduate			Undergraduate			Total		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
2001	6	18	24	80	189	269	86	207	293
2002	9	21	30	110	213	323	119	234	353
2003	7	22	29	82	192	274	89	214	303
2004	27	43	70	122	236	358	149	279	428
	Total								
	Postgraduate			Undergraduate			Total		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
2001	24	39	63	480	1,324	1,804	504	1,363	1,867
2002	25	38	63	519	1,366	1,885	544	1,404	1,948
2003	30	69	99	472	1,262	1,734	502	1,331	1,833
2004	63	117	180	647	1,508	2,155	710	1,625	2,335
							30.4%	**69.6%**	

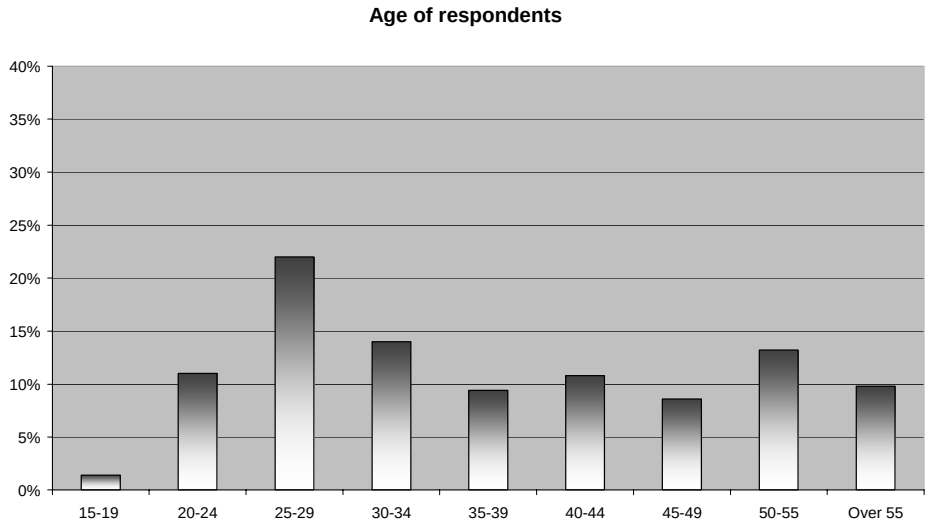
Source: Selected Higher Education Statistics (Department of Education, Science and Training) RFI No.: 06-185 - 10 May 2006

Other studies of demographic profile and occupational choice in tourism and hospitality have found 79% of respondents were female (Chen et al., 2000).

5.2.3 Age

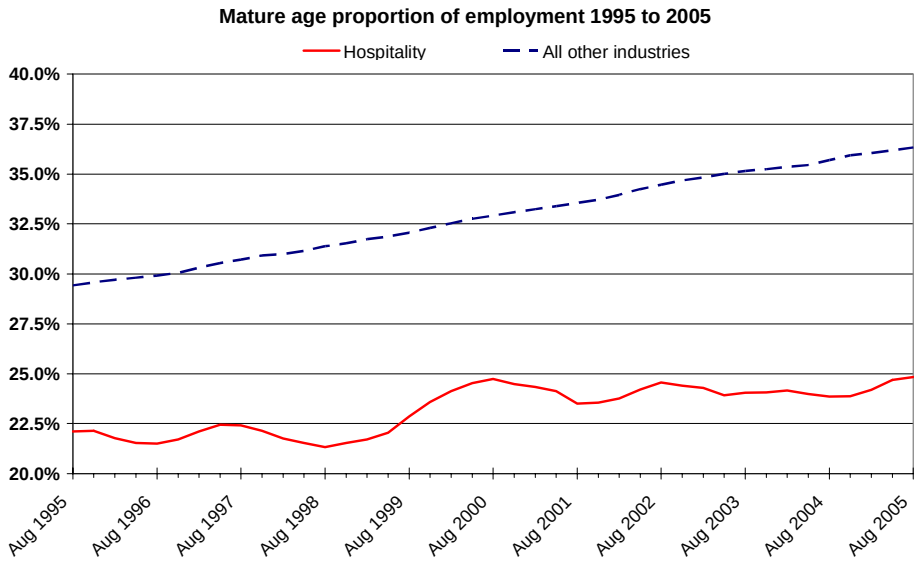
The most frequently occurring age range of the respondents was the 25-29 year age category which represented 22% of the surveys received. This was followed by the 30-34 year age range with 14% and those in the 50-55 year old category with 13.2%. Almost 10% or approximately 50 surveys were received from workers over the age of 55 who are likely to be in the final stages of their career. The composition of the respondents' age brackets is detailed in Figure 5.3 and Table 5.6 below.

Figure 5.3 - Age of respondents



The dearth of tourism employment data again makes it difficult to determine if the ages of respondents are representative of the breakdown of ages in the tourism population. However, again reference to hospitality data gives some basis on which to assess representativeness. In summarising the respondents' ages, the sample comprises 69% under 44 years and 31% over 44 years. The Australian Bureau of Statistics measures mature age employment in hospitality as those over the 44 year age group. This measure is provided in Figure 5.4 below.

Figure 5.4 - Mature age proportion of hospitality employment 1995-2005



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2005)

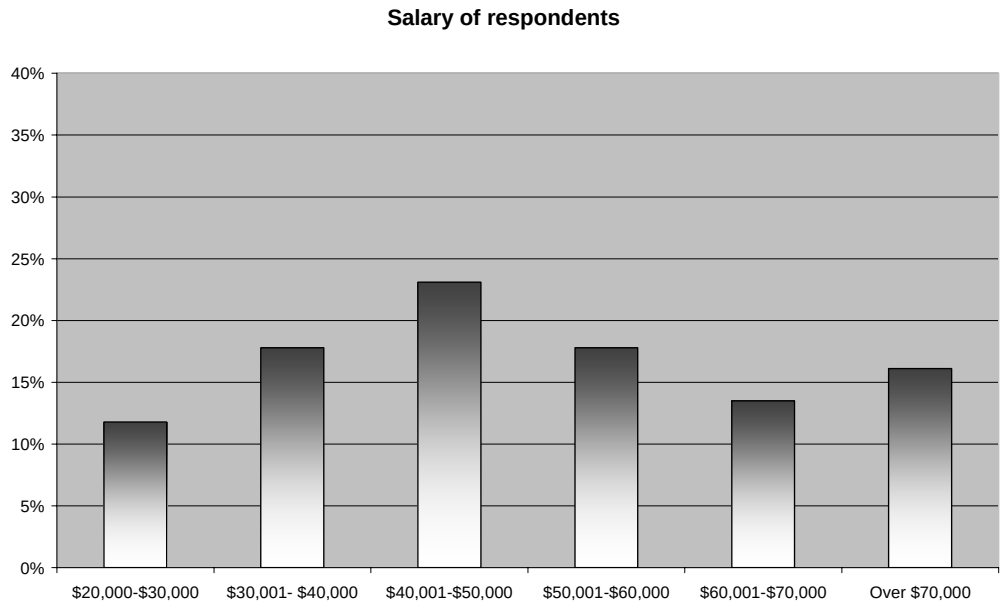
The point to note from Figure 5.3 is that hospitality has been a 'young' industry – the proportion of mature aged workers is considerably less than in the rest of the workforce. There has been some fluctuation in this proportion over the last ten years, and there has been an underlying trend of gradual increase of approximately 2.5% over the last ten years. In contrast, the mature age proportion of all other industries has been growing at a rate of approximately 7% over the same period. This indicates a dominance of younger workers within the hospitality/tourism industry and suggests the high rate of responses from the under 44 year age brackets is appropriate and could be considered representative. To further support this argument, the Department of Industry Tourism and Resources (2002, p.2 in Hall, 2003) revealed that 55% of employees in the three largest employment generating tourism sectors, were aged between 15 and 34 years.

Related information on this sample is provided in the section titled Industry Related Data (see Section 5.3) where information on respondents' years of experience in the workforce is provided. As this thesis aimed to collect information on the careers of the respondents, the number of years of experience of the respondents rather than age is likely to affect the depth and richness of the information provided.

5.2.4 Salary range

A relatively even spread of salary levels was reported by the respondents. Approximately one-quarter of the respondents (23.1%) fell into the $40,001-$50,000. This was followed equally by the $50,001-$60,000 (17.8%) and $30,001-$40,000 (17.8%) range. The salary brackets of respondents are illustrated in Figure 5.5 and detailed in Table 5.5.

Figure 5.5 - Salary of respondents



5.2.5 Highest level of education

There was equal representation of those with vocational or trade certificates (35.3%) and a bachelors degree (36.1%) as the highest level of qualification of the respondents. Interestingly, a post graduate qualification was held by almost one fifth of the respondents (18.7%). Of the almost 10% who indicated some other type of qualification most indicated an international qualification or high school/college certificate. The levels of education of the respondents are depicted in Figure 5.6 and Table 5.7 on Page 205.

It needs to be acknowledged that this group of respondents appears to be relatively highly educated and may not be representative of the entire tourism employment population, particularly considering Hall's (1998, p. 171) comments that "the reality is that the tourism industry is comparatively lowly skilled". However, the method of data collection may have skewed the responding population towards those who were more highly educated because firstly, the survey was sent out electronically requiring participants to be computer literate and, secondly, the focus of the survey was career development and this may have elicited responses from those with a career orientation. This limitation is acknowledged in Chapter 7 and is also discussed further in the areas of further research.

Figure 5.6 - Education of respondents

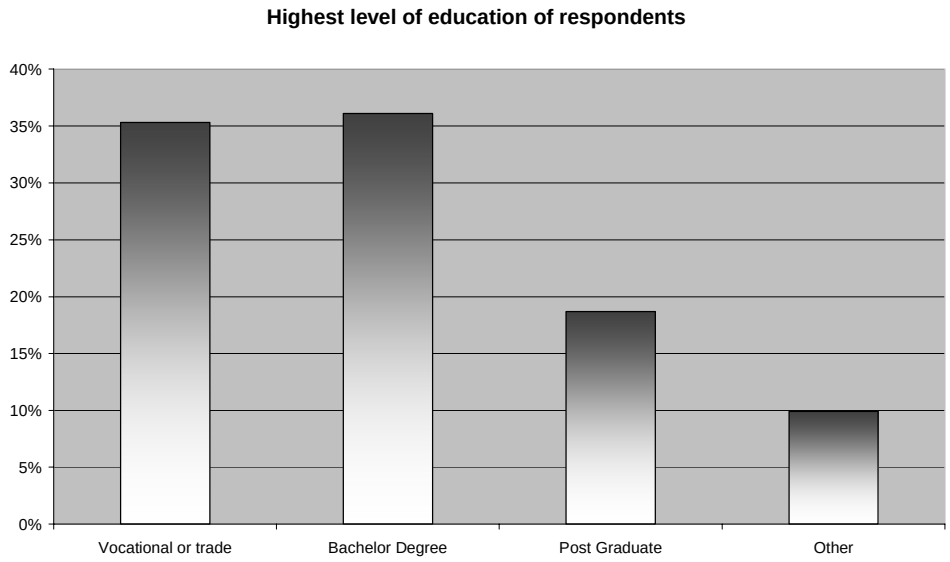


Table 5.7 - Summary of demographic data of respondents

Gender								
Female				**Male**				
70.2%				29.8%				
Age Range								
15-19	**20-24**	**25-29**	**30-34**	**35-39**	**40-44**	**45-49**	**50-55**	**Over 55**
1.4%	11.0%	22.0%	14.0 %	9.4%	10.8%	8.6%	13.2%	9.8%
Salary Range								
$20,000-$30,000	**$30,001-$40,000**	**$40,001-$50,000**	**$50,001-$60,000**	**$60,001-$70,000**	**Over $70,000**			
11.8%	17.8%	23.1%	17.8%	13.5%	16.1%			
Highest level of educational qualification								
Vocational or trade	**Bachelor Degree**	**Post Graduate**	**Other**					
35.3%	36.1%	18.7%	9.9%					

5.3 Industry related data

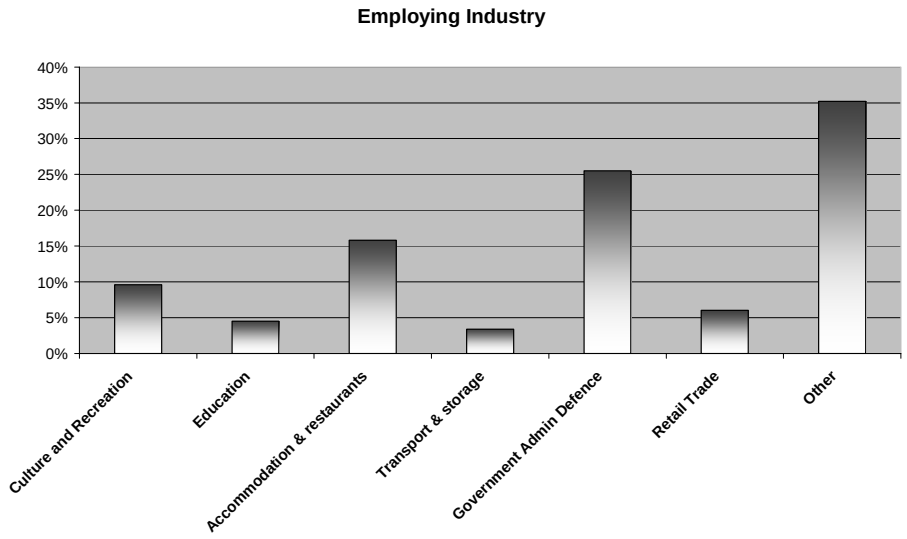
The purpose of this research thesis was to investigate the influences on careers in the tourism industry in Australia. It was, therefore, important to collect some information on the organisation and industry in which the respondents work, the type of position

and the employment status of the respondents. A summary of this industry related data is discussed below and includes employing industry, employing organisation, organisation size, type of job and employment status. The statistical break-down of this data is provided in Table 5.8.

5.3.1 Employing industry/organisation

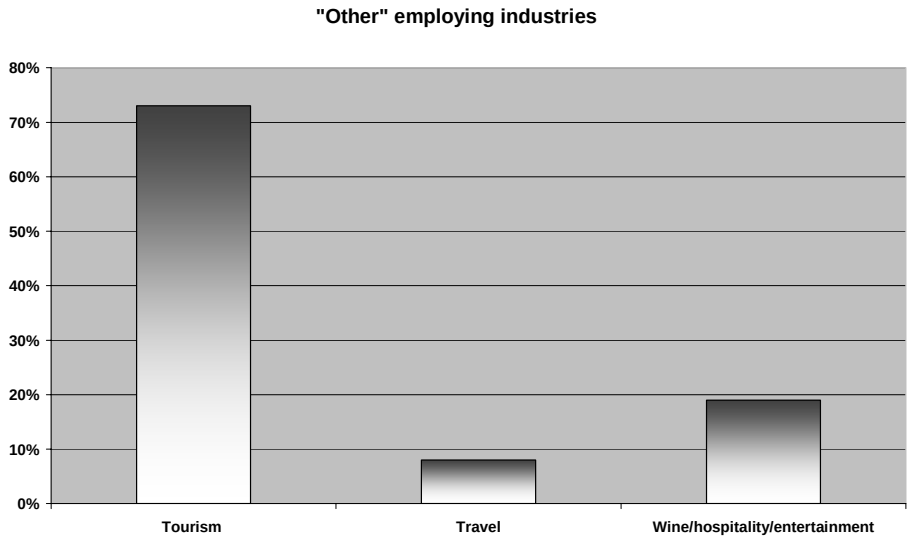
While the 'other' category was the most common indication of employment with 35.2% of respondents, this was followed by the government, administration or defence category with 25.5% of respondents, the accommodation, and the cafes and restaurants category with 15.8%. The remaining respondents were employed in cultural and recreational services (9.6%), retail trade (6%), education (4.5%) and transport and storage (3.4%). These employing industries are illustrated in Figure 5.7 and summarised in Table 5.7.

Figure 5.7 - Employment industry of respondents



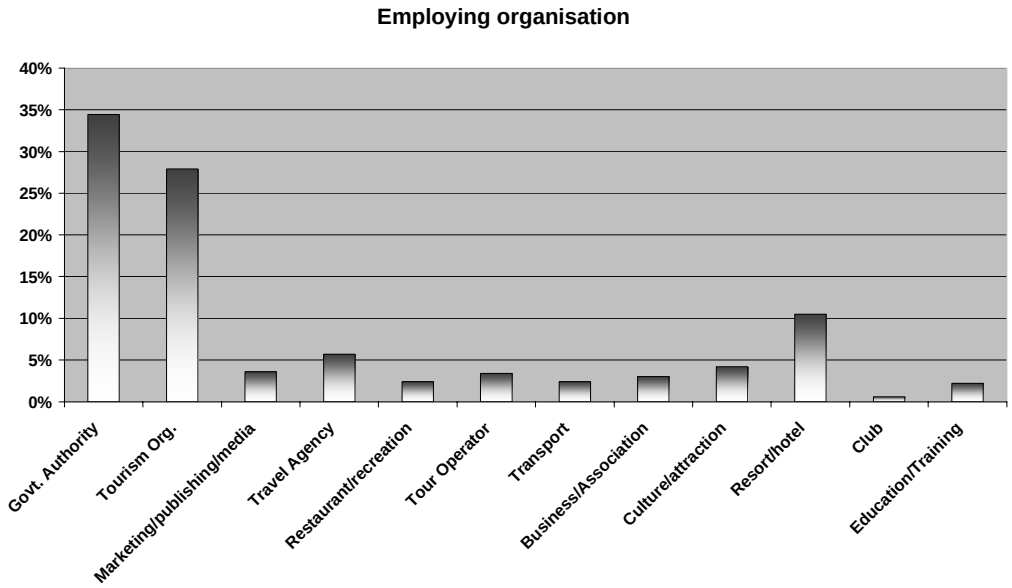
As mentioned, about one-third of the respondents (35.2%) indicated that they were not employed in any of the listed industry categories included in this survey and recorded their employment in the 'other' category. It was apparent that the list in the questionnaire, adapted from ABS data, expert tourism lists, and the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (explained in Chapter 4, Methodology) did not easily relate to respondents' perceptions of their employing industry. Of those who indicated employment in the 'other' category (35.2%), the majority of these respondents (73%) believed they worked in the tourism industry, others (8%) listed travel as their employing industry and the remaining respondents (19%) comprised a mix of the wine industry (particularly in South Australia), the hospitality industry, entertainment, publishing and wildlife industries. Figure 5.8 portrays the break-up of those respondents categorising their employment as 'other' than an industry listed in the questionnaire.

Figure 5.8 - Break-up of 'other' employing industries



Additional information on the areas of employment of the respondents revealed that the Government sector was the major type of organisation employing the respondents (34.4%) with tourism organisations (27.9%) and resorts/hotel accommodation (10.5%) also well represented. Further employment details are provided in Table 5.8 and are illustrated in Figure 5.9 below.

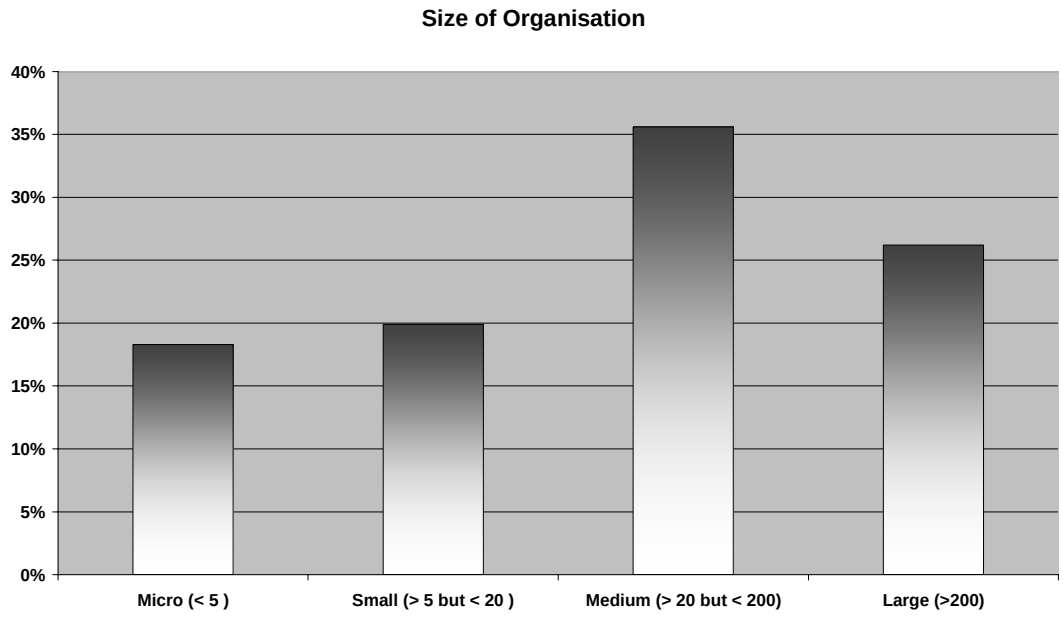
Figure 5.9 - Employment organisation of respondents



5.3.2 Size of organisation

Almost 60% of the respondents were employed in either a medium or large organisation. Medium (more than 20 but less than 200 people) sized organisation employed 35.6% of the respondents and this was followed by 26.2% employed in a large (more than 200 people) organisation. Micro (less than 5 people) and Small (more than 5 but less than 20) organisations were equally represented with 18.3% and 19.9% respectively. Again these divisions are illustrated in Figure 5.10 below and are included in the summary of employment information in Table 5.8.

Figure 5.10 - Size of employing organisation



5.3.3 Type of job

Approximately 20% of the respondents were employed at the CEO/Managing Director level. This was followed by the Manager/Supervisor category (16.5%), Sales and Marketing (15%) and tourism policy development (10%). The remaining 40% of respondents worked as travel and tour advisors, in visitor services, business development, event management, human resources, education/research and publications, or as owner operators or office employees. Some of the less well represented job titles included hospitality worker, Bed and Breakfast Operator, finance administrator, cellar door manager, park manager, and pilot.

The breakdown of the type of job held by respondents is provided in Table 5.8 below.

5.3.4 Employment status

The majority of the respondents indicated they were employed by others (78.5%) while less (16.7%) were self employed, few (2.8%) were contract workers and only 5 respondents (1%) indicated they were volunteers or fell into the 'other' category. The respondents who indicated 'other' employment status typically held more than one job.

5.3.5 Years of experience

A broad range of employment experience was represented by the respondents. The respondent with the most employment experience had been employed for 54 years while the least experienced respondent had only worked for six months.

Table 5.8 - Summary of employment data on respondents

Employing industry						
Cultural and Recreational services	*Education*	*Accommodation, Cafes and restaurants*	*Transport And storage*	*Government, Administration or Defence*	*Retail Trade*	*Other*
9.6%	***4.5%***	***15.8%***	***3.4%***	***25.5%***	***6%***	***35.2%***

Employing Organisation											
Govt. Authority	*Tourism Org.*	*Resort/ Hotel Accomm.*	*Travel Agency*	*Culture/ Museum/ Attraction*	*Marketing/ Publishing/ Media*	*Tour Operator*	*Business Association*	*Transport*	*Restaurant/ Recreation*	*Education/ Training*	*Clubs*
34.4%	***27.9%***	***10.5%%***	***5.7%***	***4.2%***	***3.6%***	***3.4%***	***3%***	***2.4%***	***2.4%***	***2.2%***	***0.6%***

Size of Organisation			
Micro ***(< 5 people)***	*Small* ***(> 5 but < 20 people)***	*Medium* ***(> 20 but < 200 people)***	*Large (>200)*
18.3%	***19.9%***	***35.6%***	***26.2%***

Job Titles												
CEO/ Managing Director	*Manager/ Supervisor*	*Sales/ Marketing Manager*	*Tourism/ Policy Development*	*Event Manager*	*Travel/ Tour Advisor*	*Owner/ Operator*	*Visitor Services*	*Office Employee*	*Education/ Research/ Publication*	*Human Resources*	*Business Development*	*Other*
20.1%	***16.5%***	***15%***	***10%***	***7.4%***	***7.2%***	***4%***	***4%***	***4%***	***3%***	***2.7%***	***2.7%***	***3.4%***

Employment Status				
Employed by others	*Self Employed*	*Contract Worker*	*Volunteer*	*Other*
78.5%	***16.7%***	***2.8%***	***1%***	***1%***

Years of experience			
Minimum	*Maximum*	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
0.5 years	***54 years***	***17.5 years***	***11.8 Years***

As careers were the focus of this thesis it is important to note that 80 percent of the respondents described their present job as “part of a career” while only 7.3% described it as “just another job”. Another 12.7% indicated that their present job was neither “part of a career” nor “just another job” but they perceived their present job to be among a list of options such as a ‘retirement occupation’, ‘a learning experience’, ‘a dream’, a ‘lifestyle change’, ‘semi-retirement’ or ‘fun’.

5.4 Summary of demographic and employment information

In summary, the profiles of the respondents indicate that the sample was mostly female, young adults, evenly distributed across a range of salaries and with either a trade certificate or bachelors degree. In addition, most of the sample was employed in the tourism industry, often within the government sector in a medium or large organisation. A high proportion was employed at the CEO/Managing Director/Supervisor level and considered their current job part of a career.

5.5 Career influences

The researcher asked respondents to outline what they perceive to be the major influences on their careers. This information was sought early in the information collection stage of the questionnaire. The aim was to collect qualitative, unprompted information. This information was sought at the outset to determine if the same aspects of the main model proposed in this thesis emerged unsolicited from the respondents.

Clear themes emerged from the 536 responses which the researches categorised as situational influences, motivational drivers and social influences. Situational influences were the most common influence representing approximately 65% of the responses provided. Motivational drivers were important in the career development of respondents with approximately 59% of responses. Social influences represented 18.1% of the responses. A summary of the themes, the frequency of responses and the percentage of respondents listing each influence is presented in Table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9 - Summary of unprompted influences on careers

Theme	Percentage
Situational influences	
Education	20.5% (78)
Mentors – co-workers or managers/Networking	15.2% (58)
Career/professional development opportunities	8.9% (34)
Industry opportunities – being in the right place at the right time	7.6% (29)
Mobility issues	7.3% (28)
Working in a good location	5.8% (22)
	65.4% (249)
Motivational drivers	
A passion for the industry/work-job satisfaction	24.2% (92)
Opportunity to Travel	14.4% (55)
The challenge/ambition	7.3% (28)
Financial rewards	6.3% (24)
Independence/flexibility/opportunity for own business	5.3% (20)
The need for variety and change	1.8% (7)
	59.3% (226)
Social influences	
Working with/meeting people	11.3% (43)
Partner/family responsibility	3.7% (14)
Lifestyle	3.1% (12)
	18.1% (69)
Other	1.8% (7)

It should be noted that respondents often mentioned more than one influence. As the researcher sought a qualitative, not a pre-determined response, no attempt was made

to rank these responses. Rather, each influence was listed and a frequency count was taken for each.

5.5.1 Situational influences

Situational aspects were influential on the careers of 65.4% of the respondents. The prime influences were education and mentorship which were listed by 20.5% and 15.2% of the respondents respectively. The impact of the other situational influences was substantially less with career/professional development opportunities listed by 8.9%, industry opportunities by 7.6%, and mobility issues were influential for 7.3% of respondents. The least influential of the situational aspects was the opportunity to work in a good location which was listed by 5.8% of respondents.

It is important to note that the list of influences currently under discussion in this section was completely unprompted and was generated from respondents reflecting on their careers.

A Education

Education was recorded as the second highest influence reported by respondents (20.5%) and followed “a passion for the industry” which is discussed later in this section under Motivational Drivers. Although the exact focus of qualifications was not data collected in this thesis, respondents frequently referred to their tertiary degree qualifications in the area of tourism, communication, journalism, media, business, language and hotel management studies.

75070562	My Degree - Impact is large as without it I wouldn't have had the opportunity to work in the firms that I have been fortunate to work with.
89949681	Attending the Australian Business Academy lead to my decision to further my study in this field and attend university. University Study in Tourism majoring in Office Management lead to the job I currently have.
90170586	My university degree and my lecturers - taught me a lot about the tourism industry and showed me that this is the area I wanted to be in
102273650	I originally had counted on a career in hospitality, but as part of a course I discovered tourism, and chose that as my vocation
103133157	My degree in Media…. Desire to work as a writer…. Interest in travel and combining that with writing
82098242	This encouraged me to move into a more executive position as I then had the confidence that I had lacked previous to that formal education.
102305929	I found it difficult to advance within a company and was unable to request a more deserving pay increase. As a result I went to uni and completed a multimedia degree to provide me with more options within the industry. After completing my degree I was able to secure a position that provided security and more incentives

Several of the respondents mentioned the importance of work experience incorporated into their studies as a key to obtaining their first position in the industry.

103136265	Work experience - conducting work experience while studying made me realise what the working world is like and gave me a clear understanding of various industries…
102279498	…Study - research project led to contact that assisted in getting current job.

Others suggested their formal education had been instrumental in achieving either their first position, became a driver in career choice, or assisted them climb the corporate ladder.

90189098	Getting a degree - allowed me to obtain my job
103877010	Family - they ran a tourism business which got me interested in tourism. Uni - found work through an opportunity at uni
85522658	Study led to identifying a need for a 7 day Visitor Centre and gave me the skills to establish and operate a private business contracted to the City Council
84020420	Original education - especially languages and geography - drove career choice.

One respondent pointed out that education alone was not sufficient to get into the industry and linked current affairs in the tourism industry with career progression.

102260404	Pilots strike in early 90's, just graduated tourism studies and there were no jobs, two years before I got a job in chosen field.

As education is a key component of the model proposed in this study as outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations, the respondents were asked for more details of this influence on their careers a little later in the survey. This additional information is detailed in Section 6.1 of Chapter 6.

B Mentors

As with education mentioned above, mentorship and informal and formal network relationships had been identified by the researcher as an influence on careers in the tourism industry and have been discussed in detail in Chapter 3 Theoretical Considerations. More details on the respondents' perception of mentorship as an influence on careers is provided in Section 6.3 of Chapter 6. However, at this point it was important to analyse the unprompted feedback received from respondents on the role of mentors and networking relationships on careers.

Mentorship was reported as influential on the careers of 15.2% of the respondents. This ranked third in the list of influences reported by respondents and followed "a passion for the industry/work" and "education".

Respondents strongly acknowledged mentorship from either direct managers or co-workers as a major influence on their careers generally and, more specifically, as instrumental in reaching their current position.

103322402	Co-workers/Managers have also had a major influence on my career in that I would not have envisioned myself in this position without their confidence and mentorship.
74940045	Great managers - When I first made the move from finance to project management, my manager encouraged me to make the move as he had faith in my abilities regardless of my lack of experience. I was the one who lacked confidence in making such a significant change so without his encouragement I would never have made the change which has led me to where I am now.
75422081	Some of my supervisors (particularly male supervisors) that have given me a chance when I was not really experienced enough for the positions at the time.

Others stressed how important mentorship is early in the career.

74808806	Support - a great mentor who has shaped my career (early in career).
90229685	Strong mentors- guidance and leadership have been critical aspects early in the career path.

Respondents stressed the broader definition of mentorship to include multiple relationships and networks. These relationships influenced the career development of respondents.

103143379	The people I have met in the tourism industry. I believe that through a variety of jobs and industry networks I have come to the position I am in today with Tourism Victoria.
83083490	…The ability to connect with people and create networks that both support and lead to new opportunities.
83902175	…Networking and relationship building (has allowed for great business development). People I work with (good mentoring/coaching and leadership).
75300045	... Tourism industry and university contacts - opportunities have arisen through talking with people. Opportunity and motivation to reach career goals.

C Career/professional development opportunities

Almost 10% of the respondents listed career or professional development opportunities offered by the industry as influential in their career development. These opportunities were reported within the industry as a whole and within individual organisations in the industry.

90189373	The opportunity to grow and develop in this industry is amazing and …the job has brilliant rewards…the opportunities that have arisen from this career choice are brilliant and I am pleased with my choice.
103267434	expansion of organisation (resulting in creation of new jobs) - responsible for the last 3 job opportunities - government policies regarding tourism -health of the economy

D Industry opportunities – being in the right place at the right time

Consistent with the findings of the pilot study, the respondents reported "luck" as an influence on their career development. This theme of 'opportunism' emerged in both choice of career and growth potential in the career. This influence was listed by 7.6% of the respondents.

11865424	Being in the right place at the right time - allowing for some wonderful opportunities.
74940045	Opportunities within my own workplace - I literally fell into event management as our organisation decided to run a major event and I put my hand up to say that I would give it a go even though I had never done it before.
10323186	In the early stages, luck was a aspect! I had no idea what I wanted to do and a job in a five star hotel was offered to me via a contact.
74815812	Nothing was really planned. I just wanted to be a writer of sorts, achieved a journalism degree and fell into tourism. Somehow I've become a marketing/design/promotion person with a media influence. Probably the tourism element appealed to me and I just channelled my efforts in that direction.
74914222	Luck- happened to walk past an airline office and was given a job Enthusiasm, hard work and honesty- these qualities ensure a forward progression in any career.

E Mobility issues

Mobility or career movement as an influence on careers in the tourism industry has been identified by the researcher and incorporated into the model outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical considerations. As discussed above in reference to ‘education’ and ‘mentoring’, the researcher will explore the influence of ‘mobility’ in Section 6.2 of Chapter 6.

Remaining mobile within the workforce was influential for approximately 8% of the respondents. Several mobility issues were raised by respondents and included mobility between industries, jobs, and locations. It should be noted that mobility refers to change of industry, job, or geographical location.

75936737	Following a 'dream' to work in tourism, after agriculture.
80672014	changing economic times, changing life style requirements, impatience with large organisations, all mean a constant review of what you do and where you do it. You change as needed and when needed. Staying put just because you know the desk is not a good option.
75292585	Personal development. Was never interested in a job in one place for life. I chose tourism as a career. So many options.
74808806	Opportunity to work in several areas of a large travel company - promotion through the ranks to management level … Mobility - early on in my career, the willingness to move to take opportunities and progress. Work ethic - willingness to do the hard yards
87930034	I move on (typically around the 2 year mark) if I don't feel the job satisfies on most levels.
74933279	The aspects have been the opportunities offered to me within the difference organisations I have worked for - promotions have seen me move from QLD to the ACT, with life-changing results.

F Working in a good location

It is not surprising in some cases to find that the location of a tourism position may influence the career development of respondents. However, this influence was lower than anticipated in the ranking with only 6% of respondents reporting location as an influence on their career.

90217669	…love of the ocean and nature...
99445705	... Prefer to live in the country …
87778996	Tourism oriented area, love the region, scenic terrain.

5.5.2 Summary of situational influences

Education was the most frequently reported situational influence. Formal educational qualifications had been a catalyst in attaining that first position in the industry and were certainly instrumental in achieving promotions. Mentorship was another influence which improved employment prospects in the industry. Mentorship was particularly important early in the career and single mentors such as direct managers or co-workers, as well as multiple mentoring relationships and networks contributed to career development. Respondents believe the industry offers many career and professional development opportunities and suggested that opportunistic career development strategies were effective.

Mobility between industries, jobs and locations was reportedly important for career development.

5.5.3 Motivational drivers

Motivational aspects were influential on the careers of 59.3% of the respondents. The prime influence came from a passion for the industry or the work, with 24.2% listing this driver. The impact of the other motivational drivers was substantially less with the opportunity to travel listed by 13.1% of respondents, the challenge of the job or ambition listed by 7.3%, financial rewards listed by 6.3%, and independence/flexibility and the opportunity for self employment was influential on 5.3% of respondents. The least influential of the motivational aspects was the need for variety and change which was listed by 1.8% of respondents.

A closer look at the comments of the respondents will provide an added dimension to each of these motivational forces.

A A passion for the industry or work/job satisfaction

A passion for the industry or type of work was an overriding influence on the careers of the respondents with almost a quarter of the respondents (24.2%). Interestingly, many of the respondents used the word “passion” to describe their feelings towards the industry with a search revealing 26 recurrences of “passion”.

90242086	Passion for an industry that makes people happy
89947545	Personal passion for visitor servicing and the tourism industry.
79321022	Personal interest in travel - I have followed my passion
89946068	Personal interest and passion in the choice of work
87786316	Passion for the work
74944368	The dynamic nature of the business was and still is very attractive. The opportunities that this industry offers with regard to travel, locations, food, people have all contributed to me staying with this industry.

Seven respondents described the industry as “fun” and this aspect had influenced their career in the industry.

100494241	Believe that Tourism is a dynamic, fun and service oriented industry.
81320927	Nature of the industry - service industry which is fun, fast paced….

Other respondents indicated their passion was not focussed specifically on the industry but rather on the type of work they were undertaking.

75289866	love being part of the growing tourism industry of Canberra and the initiatives this organisation has implemented and continues to add to this growth
103138137	Taking love of adventure based pursuits to employment and now into interest in policy development related to Nature Based Tourism.
75065916	Personal drive and job satisfaction. The need to achieve the highest standards of professionalism in any career I undertake…

B Opportunity to travel

The opportunity to travel influenced the careers of 13.1% of the respondents and the word “travel” recurred 69 times in the transcripts of this particular question. It is clear that many of the respondents have developed their career around their interest in travel and the frequency of this influence ranked 4th in the list of unprompted influences. This is not really a surprising finding for the tourism industry.

102298284	My love of travel has influenced my career and I am studying so that I can incorporate this love into a career…
74944368	The dynamic nature of the business was and still is very attractive. The opportunities that this industry offers with regard to travel, locations, food, people have all contributed to me staying with this industry.
79321022	Personal interest in travel - I have followed my passion
103188185	Love of travel and interest in the tourism industry is what got me involved in the industry.
90189373	My love of travel and the hospitality side of the industry seem to be the main drive of my choice of career.
89757685	A love of geography at school … travelled to almost every country and the United Nations in New York and Bangkok which inspired me to achieve.

Other respondents suggested a more personal development outcome from their work and travel in the tourism industry. These include an understanding of other countries, cultures and languages.

103136265	travelling overseas made me experience the tourism industry first hand and gave me an appreciation of different cultures and countries.
103868102	love of travel, foreign languages and cultures.
89925782	The opportunity to travel and work in different countries.

Travel was not always referred to in a positive light – one respondent suggested that recent world events had resulted in their fear of travel and that this negative aspect of

the tourism industry had influenced their career (90220232). Disadvantages of travel are further discussed in the analysis of mobility issues in the tourism industry that is provided in Section 6.2 in Chapter 6.

C The challenge/ambition

One of the less frequently reported motivational drivers on careers appears to be the challenge of the job and the ambition to achieve which was listed by 7.3% of respondents. "Challenge" appeared 11 times in responses to this question while "ambition" occurred three times.

103279810	Building on previous experience New challenges and responsibilities
90164254	Intangible and often volatile industry - having to be open minded and ready to act is always a challenge…
83737617	Achievement driven - seeking and participating in multidisciplinary learning opportunities.

D Financial rewards

Money or financial rewards was influential for only 17 (6.3%) of the respondents.

87934170	Money and job enjoyment.
87958523	Money - When you reach a successful level, then remuneration is good.

Not all respondents suggested that the salary or pay level is high or appropriate in the tourism industry. The following comments suggest that financial rewards are not competitive with other industries.

103970894	… because money was never the first priority this has rewarded me with the respect of my peers.
108026550	... Money - At one stage I was working hard to make money to support my family, now I am working smarter.
90170586	in Qantas Travel - the pay here is not great and I could get more outside but I stay due to the cheap travel. Interest - I love the airline industry and don't think I would ever leave it

E Independence/flexibility/opportunity for own business

A sense of independence and flexibility within the career was an influence for 5.3% of the respondents. The terms flexibility and independence were listed by 11 respondents and the opportunity to work in their own business was listed by 15 respondents. Six of the respondents listed flexibility/independence/autonomy as the motivation for setting up their own business.

75443159	Owning your own business allows a person to really take responsibility and try new things. Flexibility has been a major aspect in the decision to set up own business.
103337617	Independence - can get on and do the job.
81115249	self employment opportunity Redundancy from Bank at 43 years of age. Motivation to start own company.
74934128	Desire to be my own boss - have now had my own business for 11 years.

In addition, flexibility and independence appears to be relevant to those balancing lifestyle issues such as family or sporting commitments.

86020939	Work/life balance - being able to combine family and a career Flexibility of hours with a family - working in an industry that enables me to have the flexibility to attend school functions, etc.
74816306	interest - a job that changes and keeps offering new options to clients and myself flexibility - a job that can tailor to my hours.
98457097	Flexible working hours and additional unpaid leave (allowing me to compete in a professional sport and still maintain a proper career).

F The need for variety and change

A driver for a few respondents was the desire to work in an industry or job that provides variety and change. This influence was only listed by 1.8% of the respondents.

74816306	job that changes and keeps offering new options to clients and myself.
76271541	Ability to develop my skills and knowledge, area of interest to get into more specialised fields, the variety of areas that are available in environmental health.
90354405	I consider my career interesting and varied, and I am always learning something new. It also offers travel benefits.

5.5.4 Summary of motivational drivers

A passion for the industry and the type of work on offer within the tourism sector was the highest ranking unprompted influence reported by the respondents. It would appear that almost a quarter of the respondents were passionate about being part of the

tourism industry and enjoyed their role. Associated benefits of working in tourism included the opportunity to travel and learning about other cultures. Motivation to succeed and take up challenges underpins work in the industry along with opportunities for flexibility and independence.

Disagreement relating to the financial rewards offered by the industry suggests some areas are fairly rewarded while others lack financial incentives.

5.5.5 Social influences

Social influences were listed by 18.1% of the respondents. Of the three categories of influences, social influences were listed by fewer respondents than situational influences and motivational drivers. These social influences are discussed below.

A Working with/meeting people

Of the social influences on the careers of the respondents, working with people or the opportunity to meet people influenced the career of 11.3% of respondents and was ranked 5th in the list of unprompted influences.

89913488	Meeting different people… Like to work with people internationally. As I speak a couple of language I liked to use them in my career.
81185686	…love the industry - great people both staff and clients - luck and hard work - being in the right place at the right time …
102363182	love the interaction with customers, never boring.

The tourism industry is well known as a people industry and this was endorsed through the responses. ‘People’ recurred 64 times in the responses to this question.

B Partner/family responsibility

Family responsibility influenced the career of 3.7% of the respondents. This figure is relatively low and is surprising since females represent 70% of the respondents. The demands of a young family dominated the responses in relation to this influence and the constraint of a partner's career was also a common theme throughout.

82096761	Family and the demands of family have limited my ability to commit to the industry as required by senior and regional management hence my move to training.
83570710	Having children - inability to work shift work after they were born.
75079907	… Partner - has a job here and his industry is not an easy one to get a well paid job in – restricts my potential to relocate to take advantage of opportunities
83958469	husbands career path – prevents relocation throughout the country.

C Lifestyle

Lifestyle was the least popular influence registered by respondents. Only 3.1% of the respondents were influenced by lifestyle choices in their career development.

87953878	Quality of Life.
89030893	lifestyle choice - living in rural area.
75301700	… Lifestyle: choosing to live in the best environment in the world, Tasmania.

Not all respondents used ‘lifestyle’ in tourism in a positive manner. Some respondents reflected on the long hours and demands of the tourism industry.

82096761	I still … yearn for the industry but not the lifestyle.

5.5.6 Summary of social influences

Tourism is well known as a people industry and this is borne out by the comments above. Both co-workers and clients provided an incentive for many working in the industry and were often influential on both the choice of career and on the decision to stay in the industry.

However, family commitments often impacted on career development due to the high levels of mobility associated with careers in tourism and the unsocial working hours often required. The need to remain mobile often impacts on the careers of partners.

Although this discussion of the individual themes is useful, it is important to note that in some instances links between these stand alone influences provides an added dimension to understanding these careers. The existence of one influence may precipitate the impact of another. Several of these links are explored below.

5.5.7 Links between influences

A Job satisfaction and mobility

It is not surprising that some of the respondents linked job satisfaction with mobility. If one is not happy in their work, the propensity to move to another job, organisation, industry or location increases.

87930034	Job Satisfaction this is the big one. I move on (typically around the 2 year mark) if I don't feel the job satisfies on most levels.

B Mobility and industry opportunities

Respondents felt that if their circumstances enabled them to remain mobile, then they were able to take advantage of career opportunities arising in the industry, or organisation.

74808806	Mobility - early on in my career, the willingness to move to take opportunities and progress.
74933279	The aspects have been the opportunities offered to me within the difference organisations I have worked for - promotions have seen me move from QLD to the ACT, with life-changing results.

C Mobility and partner/family responsibilities

Not surprisingly, respondents who reported family or partner responsibilities often raised the issue of mobility. It is difficult to remain mobile in these cases.

74914222	Family - career interrupted by children and this also limits the moves available to me as I [can] not relocate.

D Passion for the industry and travel

Travelling experiences can engender a passion for the tourism industry.

103136265	Travelling overseas - made me experience the tourism industry first hand and gave me an appreciation of different cultures and countries. It basically provided me with a passion for travel and the industry.
103188185	Love of travel and interest in the tourism industry is what got me involved in the industry. I lived overseas and worked in tourism and was able to see a variety within the industry.

5.6 Conclusion

The aim of this Chapter was to analyse information relating to respondent perceptions of the influences on their careers. The major objective of the analysis of this information was to determine if any other influences than those outlined in the researcher's Model of Career Development in the Tourism Industry, came to light. The findings suggest that the primary driver for careers in tourism appears to be a passion for the industry. Other influences were primarily situational and included education, mentorship, career and professional development opportunities and mobility issues.

Chapter 6 presents the findings relating to the variables underpinning this model. The analysis in the following Chapter relates to the influences of education, mobility, and mentorship on careers in the tourism industry.

Chapter 6

Model Testing

Chapters 5 detailed the characteristics of the sample and an analysis of the influences which respondents believe have impacted on their careers. This information was collected to determine if other influences on careers, apart from those hypothesised, emerged. The current Chapter tests the model as outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations. This analysis pertains to the respondents' perceptions of the influence of education (Section 6.1), mobility (Section 6.2), and mentoring (Section 6.3) on their careers. Career development strategies implemented by respondents and their role in career progression are then analysed in Section 6.4. The final part of the chapter, Section 6.5, details a reflection by respondents on their careers.

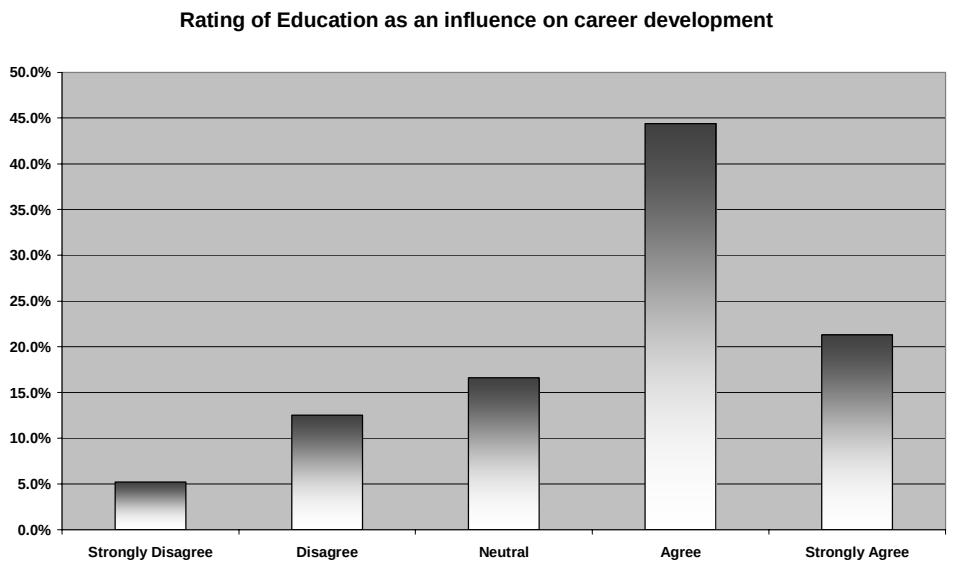
Throughout this chapter, the researcher will firstly present the quantitative data and then follow this with qualitative findings.

6.1 The influence of education on career development

6.1.1 Rating of education as an influence on careers

Educational qualifications were a major influence on the careers of the respondents as evidenced in Figure 6.1 below. Over 65% either strongly agreed (21.3%) or agreed (44.4%) that their educational qualifications had influenced their career. Another 16.6% were unsure if education had impacted on their career and 17.7% either strongly disagreed (5.2%) or disagreed (12.5%) that education had influenced their career.

Figure 6.1 - Rating of education as an influence on career development



Some correlations between information collected on the respondents and their rating of education as an influence on careers were interesting to note. Several Chi-square tests were conducted to see if variables such as age, level of education, gender, salary and size of organisation had any correlation with the rating of education as an influence. As outlined in Chapter 4, Methodology, for ordinal data, linear-by-linear association Chi square tests were conducted. The categories ‘Strongly agree’ and ‘Agree’ were amalgamated and also ‘Strongly disagree’ and ‘Disagree’ for the following discussion. This enabled the researcher to more easily identify trends and patterns.

The correlation between the level of education of the respondents and the rating each gave to the influence of education on their career development is provided in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 - Correlation between respondents' level of education and rating of education

Highest level of education	Education has helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree/strongly agree	
Vocational or trade	39 25.0%	36 23.1%	81 51.9%	**156** **100.0%**
Bachelor Degree	12 7.9%	16 10.6%	123 81.5%	**151** **100.0%**
Post Graduate	6 6.9%	9 10.3%	72 82.8%	**87** **100.0%**
Other	21 50.0%	11 26.2%	10 23.8%	**42** **100.0%**
Total	**78** **17.9%**	**72** **16.5%**	**286** **65.6%**	**436** **100.0%**

The trends identified in this relationship are, perhaps, as one would expect. These figures suggest that those respondents with a university education, either Bachelor Degree or Post Graduate tended to perceive education as very influential on their career development. Those with a vocational qualification were less sure of the role of education on their careers and were more likely than those with a university degree to disagree with the statement. Those respondents with 'other' (generally high school) qualifications mostly disagreed that education was influential on their career. The results of a Chi Square test put the p-value at .000 or less than 0.05 indicating the significant relationship between the respondents' level of education and their perception of the importance of education on career development.

To gain a further understanding of the influence of education on career development, a correlation was conducted between the age of the respondents, their salary level, and the size of their organisation and their ranking of education as an influence on their careers. These relationships are discussed below.

Table 6.2 - Correlation between respondents' age and rating of education

Age	Education helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	**Neutral**	**Agree/strongly agree**	
15-19	0 0.0%	1 16.7%	5 83.3%	**6** **100.0%**
20-24	5 10.9%	9 19.6%	32 69.6%	**46** **100.0%**
25-29	7 7.9%	15 16.9%	67 75.3%	**89** **100.0%**
30-34	11 18.0%	11 18.0%	39 63.9%	**61** **100.0%**
35-39	9 20.5%	5 11.4%	30 68.2%	**44** **100.0%**
40-44	12 26.7%	4 8.9%	29 64.4%	**45** **100.0%**
45-49	7 18.4%	9 23.7%	22 57.9%	**38** **100.0%**
50-55	18 30.5%	9 15.3%	32 54.2%	**59** **100.0%**
Over 55	7 14.9%	10 21.3%	30 63.8%	**47** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**76** **17.5%**	**73** **16.8%**	**286** **65.7%**	**435** **100.0%**

Patterns above suggest that the percentage of respondents who tended to disagree that education had influenced their careers increases with age. It follows also that the percentage of respondents who agree with the statement, decreases with age. In addition, the percentage of younger age group respondents tended to increase as the scale moved from Disagree/strongly disagree to neutral to Agree/strongly agree. The

older age groups tended to be more bi-polar and tended towards each end of the scale and be less neutral. This difference was significant. A linear-by-linear association Chi-square value = 8.703 with p=0.003.

Table 6.3 - Correlation between respondents' organisation size and rating of education

Size of organisation	Education helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	**Neutral**	**Agree/strongly agree**	
Micro (< 5)	24 29.3%	10 12.2%	48 58.5%	**82** **100.0%**
Small (5 < 20)	13 14.9%	20 23.0%	54 62.1%	**87** **100.0%**
Medium (20 < 200)	28 17.9%	29 18.6%	99 63.5%	**156** **100.0%**
Large (> 200)	13 11.3%	14 12.2%	88 76.5%	**115** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**78** **17.7%**	**73** **16.6%**	**289** **65.7%**	**440** **100.0%**

Respondents in micro-sized organisations tended to be relatively bi-polar in their perception of the value of education on their careers. In addition, this group did not appear to value education as strongly as those in larger organisations. The percentage of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that education had helped their career development increased with the size of the organisation. No clear patterns emerged relating to size of organisation and the level of disagreement to the role of education in career development.

Again, this correlation is significant with a linear-by-linear association Chi-square value of 9.050 and p value equal to 0.002. Some may argue that the size of organisation is not a purely ordinal scale and for those a Chi-square test also indicates this relationship is significant with p=0.008.

Table 6.4 - Correlation between respondents' salary and rating of education

Salary	Education helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree/strongly agree	
$20,000-$30,000	12 25.0%	9 18.8%	27 56.3%	48 100.0%
$30,001-$40,000	15 21.4%	13 18.6%	42 60.0%	70 100.0%
$40,001-50,000	17 17.2%	12 12.1%	70 70.7%	99 100.0%
$50,001-60,000	16 20.5%	8 10.3%	54 69.2%	78 100.0%
$60,001-70,000	9 15.0%	14 23.3%	37 61.7%	60 100.0%
Over $70,000	9 12.3%	15 20.5%	49 67.1%	73 100.0%
TOTAL	78 18.2%	71 16.6%	279 65.2%	428 100.0%

The correlations above indicate a slight tendency for respondents in higher salary brackets to agree that education had influenced their career. However, this is not a

strong pattern and it would appear that there is little relationship between the salary levels of respondents and their rating of education. In all salary brackets, respondents tended to either agree or strongly agree that education had influenced their career.

A variety of responses were provided on the ways in which educational qualifications (or lack of) had either helped or hindered career development.

6.1.2 Impact of education on career development

In response to seeking information on how educational qualifications had influenced the careers of the respondents, several themes emerged and were categorised. These categories and themes are listed, and ranked according to their frequency, in Table 6.5 Impact of education on career development. Each theme is then discussed below.

Table 6.5 - Impact of education on career development

Theme	Percentage
Qualifications helped progress my career as they	
Provided entry into industry or were a requirement for position	20.8%
Provided competitive advantage or opportunities to advance	19.4%
Prepared me for the industry with industry specific skills and knowledge	18.1%
Prepared me for the industry with generic skills/critical thinking/self-esteem	17.2%
	66.4%
Lack of qualifications hindered my career as	
I was not competitive within the workforce	3.3%
As I was generally not able to progress without qualifications	1.9%
I was required to constantly qualify/requalify/retrain	0.6%
	5.6%
Formal qualifications have not helped or hindered my career	
I would have been employed in my present position with or without qualifications	15.8%
For new recruits in the industry qualifications are essential	2.8%
	18.6%
Other	6.7%
A mix of themes	2.7%
Total	**100%**

It should be noted that although all respondents fell into one of the major categories outlined in bold in Table 6.5 above, the individual theme statistics exceed the category total as some respondents listed more than one theme under each category. This is demonstrated by respondent 76142204 who suggested "*My associate diploma in marketing and the results I achieved helped me to get a marketing assistant position in the cultural/tourism sector. This qualification has also given me the theoretical basis for doing my job"*. This response comfortably fits into the theme of "Provided entry into industry" and also fits the theme of "Prepared me for the industry with industry specific skills and knowledge".

A closer look at each of the categories provides some insight into how the respondents believe that their educational qualifications have influenced their career development.

A Qualifications helped progress career

Over 66% of respondents reported educational qualifications had helped to progress their career. This assistance fell into four major themes:

Educational qualifications:

1. Facilitated entry into industry or were a requirement for position
2. Provided a competitive advantage or opportunities to advance
3. Prepared me for the industry with industry specific skills and knowledge
4. Prepared me for the industry with generic skills/critical thinking/self-esteem

Approximately 40% of respondents believe their educational qualifications have influenced their career development by facilitating entry into the industry or by providing them with a competitive advantage within the industry.

B Entry into industry

Educational qualifications clearly facilitated entry into the tourism industry with many respondents specifically highlighting the role of qualifications in attaining that first job in the industry. Interestingly, 15 respondents used the term “opened doors”.

74946253	My qualifications allowed me to gain employment at an entry level…. They have also helped in my day to day job, giving me at least a fair idea of what needed doing.
89754557	Secured me a job in a competitive market. Allowed me to work in a job that was broader and more challenging.
103156056	I would never have got my first job without tertiary qualifications as I was recruited from university.
103337617	Initial qual helped me get started and post grad quals (2) have enabled me to focus on specific area that ideally suits and interests me.
86434671	The Hotel School diploma was the key that opened the door to interviews with top HR executives of a global hotel company…
89749841	Being tertiary qualified as an .accountant... opened doors into management that would not have opened without the degree. Post graduate study in Tourism has also helped but not as much, as it came along after two decades of experience as a Tourism Manager.

In addition to this "opening doors" theme, respondents were clear about the competitive advantage qualifications provide.

C Competitive advantage and opportunities for employment/advancement

Almost 20% (19.4) of respondents felt they had a competitive advantage in the industry because of their educational qualifications.

90281336	Having a Masters put me ahead of those who only had undergraduate degrees.
74944368	It provided me with the detailed aspects of the industry and gave me confidence to move relatively quickly within the industry. It gave me an advantage over those who did not necessarily have the educational qualifications.
103231865	I went 'back to school' after 5 years in the work force as I had not completed my BA after school. I realised I would not climb any higher up the ladder without relevant degree qualifications. I studied 6 years part time while working to complete a BBus, double major Marketing and International Business. I have no doubt that this was a major aspect in helping my career.
86035320	Helped - Qualifications enabled me to... gain diverse and interesting work, gave me a career path.

In addition to facilitating entry into the industry and providing a competitive advantage, respondents (35%) believed that education prepared them for the industry by equipping them with skills and knowledge either directly related to the industry (18.1%) or in a more generic form (17.2%).

D Industry specific skills and knowledge

Many of the respondents were specific in articulating the type of industry specific skills and knowledge which had impacted on their career.

74950068	Quals are in economics (public finance); transport planning; and tourism. All have provided analytical skills. Economics knowledge has underpinned trip costing and pricing; transport planning has helped me predict changes and opportunities; tourism certificate has provided an insight into the practices/culture of the tourism industry.
79321022	I majored in languages and psychology, both useful in dealing with international clients.
90170586	The initial Bachelor was great giving me an understanding of the tourism industry and giving me the skills to get into my jobs. The accounting units etc I have used in every day work but other areas are more of general knowledge now and I don't really call on them very much. I have a masters which quick frankly I haven't used since I completed it.

E Generic skills/critical thinking/self-esteem

Some respondents believe that education was a valuable source of the more generalisable skills such as critical thinking and interpersonal skills.

75285243	Provided me with the opportunity to think, analyse, solve problems, questions rationale and thinking
75422081	Education has helped immensely. ... My university education (BA Hons, MA and Publishing and advertising qualifications) have been useful - the last two vocational; the BA and MA have given me the ability to write better and to research subjects; as well as confidence that I have an intellectual capacity.
75443159	In terms of my educational qualifications, they helped in the very early years of establishing myself in the urban planning field. Having a Masters' Degree per say has not helped my career, however it has helped my life experience and allowed me to draw on ideas, methods and approaches.
99051717	I guess a general knowledge of laws, regulations, ability to meet deadlines, report writing skills - just general stuff - nothing specific.

Others believed that education had equipped them with a sense of self and a level of confidence that assisted their career development.

74946043	Has helped my confidence in public speaking -Being organised …
94342515	mostly useful for my own self esteem.
89936476	Communication skills have been easily applied to all aspects of career.
85836038	Completing my degree in teaching has assisted me to use my own initiative, enter a new field or job with the confidence that I have the skills to adapt and deal effectively with the unknown…

It should also be noted that some respondents were not totally convinced that all their education had been influential on their careers. One respondent (90170586) added that … "I have a masters which quite frankly I haven't used since I completed it." Others commented that some aspects of their education had been useful while other study disciplines were not so helpful in career development.

102285074	Having a piece of paper that says I have a degree helped towards being successfully employed, but the actual content of the degree hasn't so far been of much use.

Some respondents even commented on aspects of their education that were not as comprehensive as they could have been.

74932050	The qualifications opened job opportunities and introduced me to circle of professionals with similar interests. The quals didn't provide me with much practical skills however for fulfilling my roles.
89753036	Whilst university gave me a broad understanding of the industry … my studies did not have a practical or grass roots focus.
89405776	… Hindrance: lack of specific industry knowledge such as Marketing became a find out by accident…

Responses also ranged from being quite general in their discussion of their education while others listed specific aspects of their education that had been influential to their career.

74816306	computer skills, reservation system skills, geography, customer service skills
89753036	…. Particularly in issues such as project management, strategic planning, policy, community consultation, inter-relationship with tourism and economic development...

Respondents also raised their concern that educational qualifications alone are not enough to ensure career development and that industry experience is essential. Fifty four respondents referred to the combination of education and experience in their discussion of education as an influence on career development.

89744359	I believe my educational qualifications have enhanced my existing practical experience in the tourism industry. Educational qualifications have helped me to become more professional and credible.
74815812	They give you an entree and thereafter experience gradually becomes the more important aspect.

Interestingly, another popular concept raised in the education discussion was the importance of networking and mentorship.

90208059	… I had the ability to undertake further study but had to go to work. Mentoring earlier on and more business knowledge would have helped along with lots of money to enable me to study and expand my knowledge of the Tourism industry and later to expand my business.
103131480	ability to understand new concepts, Industry Contacts, Ability to be strategic.
76440689	Knowledge, Skills, understanding, networks Experience, competencies
86026737	They [educational qualifications] have given me a broad knowledge of the business environment that would not have been possible if I had not participated. My studies have also given me confidence and knowledge to engage in discussions and forums related to my industry. They have also allowed me to network with like minded people.
87920242	Has helped my career - through building professional networks and through an improved capacity to apply relevant principles to my role/tasks.

F Lack of qualifications hinder career development

Although the majority of respondents (66%) provided evidence of educational qualifications assisting career development, only 5.6% overtly testified that their lack

of qualifications had hindered their career development. This is no surprise finding as approximately 90% of respondents (see table 5.4 in Chapter 5) had either a vocational/trade certification, a bachelors degree or post graduate qualification. It is useful, however, to look briefly at how respondents' careers have been hindered by their lack of formal qualifications. Primary concerns relating to the lack of formal educational qualifications suggest that respondents were generally not able to progress (1.9%), were not competitive (3.3%) or experienced issues regarding keeping their qualifications up-to-date, or a lacked recognition of their qualification (0.6%).

86035320	Hindered – Re-qualification (the paper chase) is time consuming and costly…
89940133	My educational qualifications are not recognised here in Australia, so it does hinder my career.
82096761	I was stuck in Middle management for 10 years because I did not have a degree or diploma.

One respondent (103322402) suggested that educational qualifications assist career development by providing a focus. *"Having not studied to gain a specific qualification I probably lacked direction. Maybe if I had chosen something specific to concentrate on I may have had clearer goals and gone further by now"*.

G Formal qualifications neither help nor hinder the career

Approximately one fifth (18.6%) of the respondents reported no link between education and career development. Approximately 15% (15.8%) of respondents believed they would be in their current position regardless of any formal education.

103444427	education in 1955-1963 did not help my career in tourism or marketing.
74914222	My degree has not helped me at all. I am constantly undertaking study specific to my company and to my job, through my workplace and this has helped guide me through my career.
75065916	I do not believe it has affected me in any way, apart from the fact I may have been able to be paid a higher salary. All of my positions that I have held … I have been approached for the job. I have never applied for any position, apart from my first job when I left school.

The remaining 2.8% added that although education had not been a primary driver of their own careers, they believed that in the current employment environment formal education is now valued and even expected in the industry.

75908731	Not applicable at this stage of my career, but if I was starting out again I believe qualifications would be essential.
89950032	I was really doing it before qualifications became a desired option
84020420	My lack of qualifications was not a problem at the time I left school, but would be considered a problem today…
80778154	Sound business knowledge is a must these days. Historically, skills and basic industry knowledge has been sufficient.

Of the 6.7% of respondents whose responses were recorded as “other” and fell outside the areas of discussion above, most were unsure of the influence of education on their degree. Part of this uncertainty was due to a concern that their qualifications were not well received in the industry -

89968435	Tourism degree made it a little difficult to gain access to the Dip.Ed Lack of understanding in industry regarding what tourism graduates are trained to do.

or that an aspect of their education such as an internship was more influential than the education itself:

87425810	I was in my final year at University when I completed an internship with my current employer. After the first week of my eight week internship I was offered full time employment.

Or, that personal characteristics had been more influential than formal education.

89755297	My enthusiasm and professionalism has always held me in good stead.

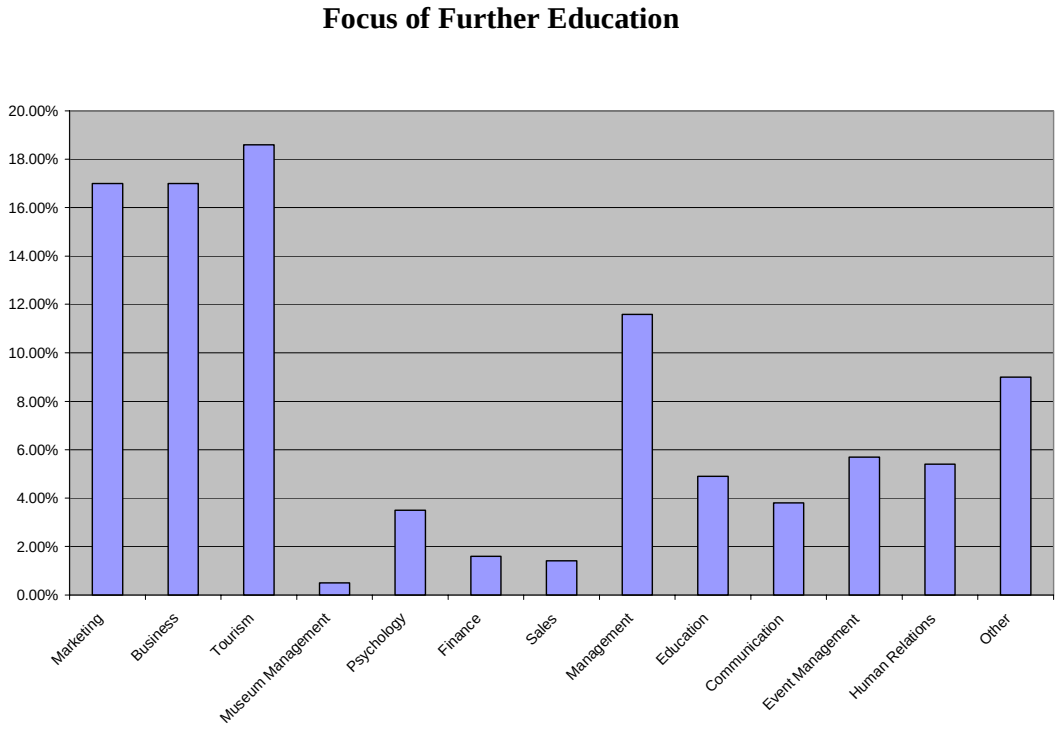
The final 2.7% of the respondents felt education had both helped and hindered career development.

89949776	Helped me in moving up in my position but hindered the completion as its taken me a lot longer to finish my degree because of my work hours.
88707891	The lack of a degree has hampered my career on at least three occasions. The qualifications I do have helped my career both as a surveyor and airport manager.

H Upgrading or undertaking educational qualifications

The respondents were almost equally divided on whether they intended to undertake further formal education with 55.2% with serious intentions to undertake further education and 44.8% with no intention. As mentioned previously in this thesis, the research did not plan to undertake a skills audit or investigate curriculum design of tourism courses; however, it was interesting to note the foci of study respondents intended to undertake. These study disciplines are summarised below in Figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6.2 - Focus of further study



The respondents presented five major issues underpinning the decision to undertake or upgrade educational qualifications. These are summarised in Table 6.6 below.

Table 6.6 - Aspects preventing further education

Theme	Percentage
Time	48.7%
Money	33.3%
Other	14%
Motivation	13.7%
None	13.4%
Family commitments	11.7%
Age	2.6%

No aspects affected the decision to upgrade or undertake educational qualifications for only 47 (or 13.4%) of respondents. The remaining 86.6% reported one or more of the aspects listed in Table 6.6 as preventing them from undertaking further education. Surprisingly, over a (55.2%) of the respondents still reported an intention to undertake further education.

Time is clearly the aspect preventing almost half (48.7%) of the respondents from undertaking further education. This is closely followed by money which prevented one third (33.3%), then motivation (13.7%), and family commitments (11.7%).

74808806	…Time - have always had a busy job, requiring many hours over 7 days
74946253	Work hours- Recently had to drop out of a course I had started due to work commitments and long hours. In the past shift work also hindered enrolling in courses as shifts would change from week to week or were incompatible with class hours.

Many of the respondents reported more than one aspect preventing them from taking up further education. The most common mixture was time AND money with 67 respondents reporting this combination.

74933036	Time - working full time. Money - hard to save for fees.
76142204	Time and cost. Not enough time to study currently. Concerned about the costs of university study at masters/phd level.

Some of the "other" aspects preventing the respondents from furthering their education included living in a location without access to higher education institutions or training facilities -

118042649	Geographical Isolation - lack of facilities within 200 kms, only recently got Internet access to OTEN.
89765243	Living in rural locations where courses of significance not readily available - only by correspondence.

A lack of support from their employer:

94422026	Cost/lack of support from current employer (he didn't even know what an MBA was!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!)

A lack of confidence in education providers/lack of information about courses/lack of flexibility in courses:

101903175	access to information was not easy and the course lacked flexibility. The range of subject on choice was not too relevant to what I wanted…
89578930	Courses not flexible enough to have a full time or part time job. eg tourism courses are full time only and not offered in the evening.

A lack of self-confidence:

89940197	My lack of confidence as I have not got a qualification.

And one respondent suggested that their age prevented then undertaking further study.

6.1.3 Impact of on the job training on career development

In contrast to the 65% of respondents who reported formal education as influential on their career development, over 80% of respondents either agreed (39.3%) or strongly agreed (41.6%) that on-the-job training has helped career development. Only approximately 5% strongly disagreed (3.2%) or disagreed (2.7%) that on-the-job training has helped career development. Another13.2% were unsure of the influence of this type of training.

When asked the type of on-the-job training that had influenced their career, 4% of respondents reported never having had any such training and another 6.4% reported any type of training at all is likely to assist career development. Specific types of on-the-job training that have influenced the careers of the respondents are included in Table 6.7 below.

Table 6.7 - Types of on-the-job training

Theme	Percentage
Short courses on job specific skills	56.6%
Industry conferences or seminars	38.3%
Help from mentors	13.9%
Short courses on personal development	9.1%
Any type of training at all	6.4%
Internal organisational training/workshops	5.6%
Never had any on-the-job training	4%

In summary, approximately 65% of respondents valued short courses either addressing job specific skills (56.6%) or assisting their own personal development (9.1%). Another 5.6% valued internal organisation training or workshops and 38.3% suggested that industry conferences and seminars as useful.

In addition to these findings it was interesting to note that respondents mentioned the value of mentorship in relation to on-the-job training (13.9%).

80778154	On the job training must be specific and in a mentoring fashion. Sending employees to conferences etc may be valuable for networking but not specifically for skilling and competency development.
74816595	Mentoring and coaching through superiors and external consultants has been of great benefit. Regular seminars in workplace relations have developed my knowledge of a previously unfamiliar topic.
75300045	conferences, short training courses, learning from my mentor…

6.2 Summary of education as an influence

Education is clearly an important influence on the careers of the respondents. A clear correlation was established between the level of education of the respondents and how important they perceive education to be in their careers. The majority of respondents reported formal educational qualifications as assisting their career progress by providing them with the necessary skills and knowledge, and/or providing an entry into the industry, and/or giving them a competitive advantage within the industry.

Primary concerns relating to the lack of qualifications suggest that without formal qualifications, respondents were not competitive and were unable to progress past a certain level within their organisation.

Approximately half of the respondents intended to undertake formal education to assist their career development and listed tourism, marketing, business, and management as the focus of this further education. However, time and/or money were major constraints in their intention to upgrade their qualifications.

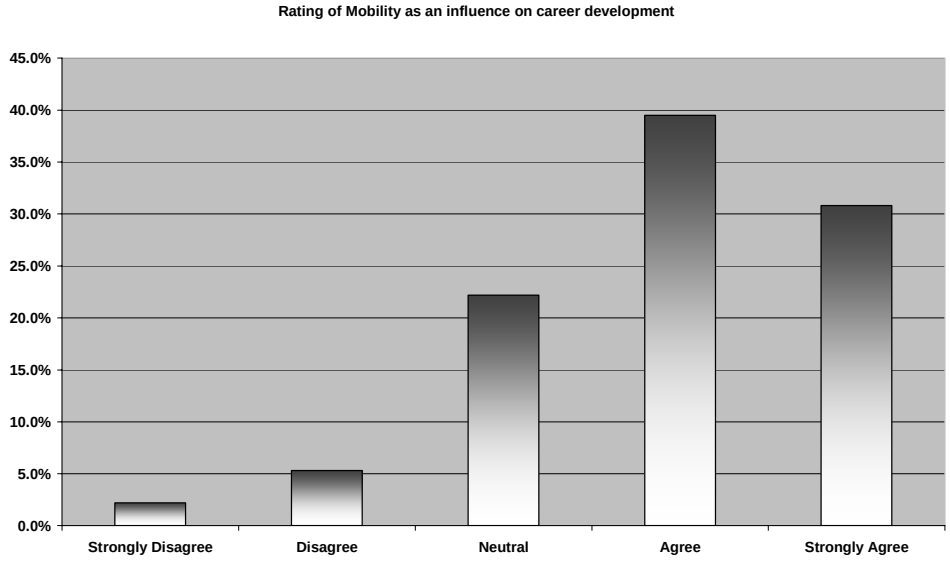
In a further discussion of education as an influence on career development, most respondents reported on-the-job training, particularly in the area of short courses or industry conferences, as a vital ingredient in career development.

6.3 The influence of mobility on career development

6.3.1 Rating of mobility as an influence on career development

The next variable to be tested from the model discussed in Chapter 3 Theoretical Considerations is the influence of mobility or career moves. These career moves were discussed as geographical moves, industry moves, organisational moves or job moves. Over 70% of respondents reported career moves had helped career development with (30.8%) strongly agreeing with the statement and another (39.5%) agreeing. Almost a quarter of respondents (22.2%) were unsure if career moves had helped their career development while less than 10% either disagreed (5.3%) or strongly disagreed (2.2%) that mobility issues had influenced their career development. The strength of mobility as an influence is depicted in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3 - Rating of mobility as an influence on career development



Again, as with 'education' discussed above, the research explored some correlations between information collected on the respondents and their rating of career moves as an influence on careers. Several Chi-square tests were conducted to see if variables such as age, level of education, gender, salary and size of organisation had any correlation with the rating of education as an influence.

Table 6.8 - Correlation between respondents' level of education and rating of mobility

Highest level of education	Career moves helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree/strongly agree	
Vocational or trade	14 9.7%	34 23.6%	96 66.7%	**144** **100.0%**
Bachelor Degree	7 5.0%	30 21.3%	104 73.8%	**141** **100.0%**
Post Graduate	5 6.0%	13 15.5%	66 78.6%	**84** **100.0%**
Other	3 7.3%	14 34.1%	24 58.5%	**41** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**29** **7.1%**	**91** **22.2%**	**290** **70.7%**	**410** **100.0%**

In exploring any relationship between the respondents' level of education and their rating of career moves as an influence on career development, the researcher found the results followed a similar pattern. At all levels of education percentages increased with movement from disagree/strongly disagree to neutral and through to agree/strongly agree. No significant patterns emerged in the relationship between the level of education of the respondents and how important they perceive their career moves to be. Across all categories, career moves were deemed important to career development. The Chi-square test with a p value of 0.157 suggests the relationship between the variables is not significant.

Table 6.9 - Correlation between respondents' age and rating of mobility

Age	Career moves helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	**Neutral**	**Agree/strongly agree**	
15-19	1 25.0%	2 50.0%	1 25.0%	**4** **100.0%**
20-24	3 6.8%	16 36.4%	25 56.8%	**44** **100.0%**
25-29	7 8.3%	13 15.5%	64 76.2%	**84** **100.0%**
30-34	4 7.0%	13 22.8%	40 70.2%	**57** **100.0%**
35-39	0 0.0%	7 17.1%	34 82.9%	**41** **100.0%**
40-44	6 14.3%	6 14.3%	30 71.4%	**42** **100.0%**
45-49	1 2.9%	11 32.4%	22 64.7%	**34** **100.0%**
50-55	6 10.5%	13 22.8%	38 66.7%	**57** **100.0%**
Over 55	3 6.7%	9 20.0%	33 73.3%	**45** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**31** **7.6%**	**90** **22.1%**	**287** **70.3%**	**408** **100.0%**

Few patterns could be identified in the relationship between age and the importance of career moves on career development. However, a general tendency of percentages to increase along the continuum of disagree to agree was apparent. A Chi-square test indicates the relationship is clearly not significant with a linear-by-linear association value of 0.069 and a p value of 0.805.

Table 6.10 - Correlation between respondents' organisation size and rating of mobility

Size of organisation	Career moves helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	**neutral**	**agree/strongly agree**	
Micro (< 5)	6 7.7%	26 33.3%	46 59.0%	**78** **100.0%**
Small (> 5 < 20)	5 6.3%	18 22.5%	57 71.3%	**80** **100.0%**
Medium (> 20 < 200)	12 8.3%	30 20.8%	102 70.8%	**144** **100.0%**
Large (> 200)	8 7.2%	17 15.3%	86 77.5%	**111** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**31** **7.5%**	**91** **22.0%**	**291** **70.5%**	**413** **100.0%**

Again, no clear correlation was found between the size of the organisation and the rating of mobility issues or career moves as an influence on career development. Percentages increased along the continuum from disagree to agree across all categories of organisational size. The Linear-by-linear association value is 1.817 with p=0.179. A Chi-square test also indicates the relationship is not significant with p=0.150.

Table 6.11 - Correlation between respondents' salary and rating of mobility

Salary	Career moves helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	**Neutral**	**Agree/strongly agree**	
$20,000-$30,000	9 20.9%	13 30.2%	21 48.8%	**43** **100.0%**
$30,001-$40,000	4 6.3%	24 37.5%	36 56.3%	**64** **100.0%**
$40,001-50,000	8 8.7%	19 20.7%	65 70.7%	**92** **100.0%**
$50,001-60,000	3 4.0%	12 16.0%	60 80.0%	**75** **100.0%**
$60,001-70,000	5 8.5%	11 18.6%	43 72.9%	**59** **100.0%**
Over $70,000	1 1.4%	8 11.6%	60 87.0%	**69** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**30** **7.5%**	**87** **21.6%**	**285** **70.9%**	**402** **100.0%**

From the figures provided in Table 6.11 above, the percentage of respondents who agree that career moves have helped career development increased as respondent salaries increased. A tendency for percentages to decrease as salaries increased was evident in the neutral scale. This relationship is clearly significant with a linear-by-linear association of 20.461 and p=0.000.

The number of career moves undertaken by the respondents was widely distributed. Some discussion on the number and type of career moves follows.

6.3.2 Number and type of career moves

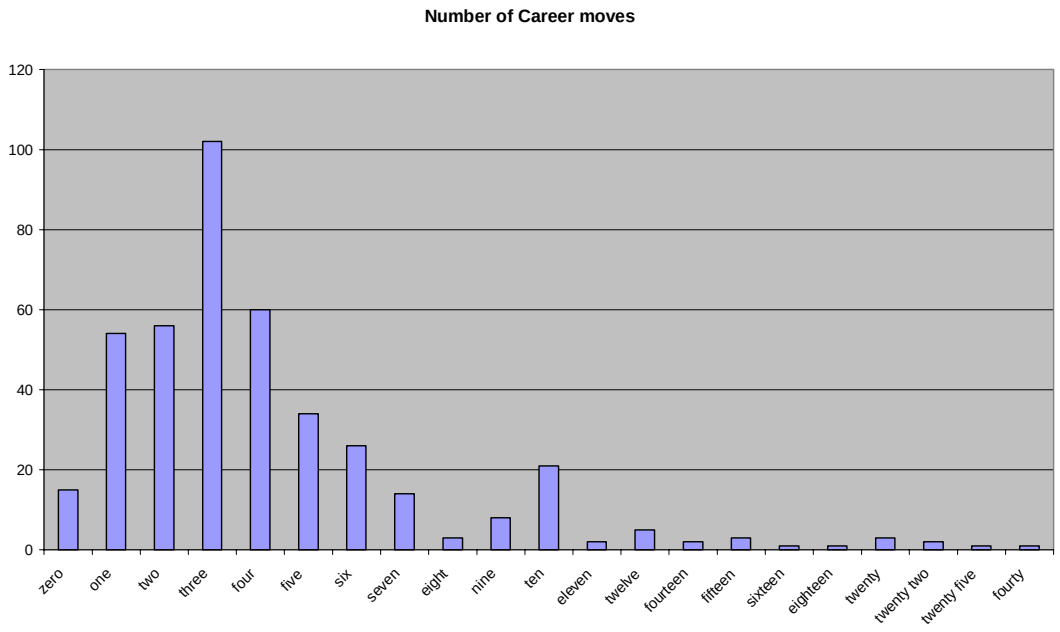
As indicated in Table 6.12 below, the number of career moves undertaken by the respondents ranged from 0 to 40 and the frequency ranged from 0 to 102. One to four career moves is the norm for this survey population. The mode for three career moves (102) suggests this is the most common number of career moves for this sample.

Table 6.12 - Total number of career moves made by the respondents

Total Career moves	Frequency	Percentage
0	15	3.6%
1	54	13.0%
2	56	13.5%
3	102	24.6%
4	60	14.5%
5	34	8.2%
6	26	6.3%
7	14	3.4%
8	3	0.7%
9	8	1.9%
10	21	5.1%
11	2	0.5%
12	5	1.2%
14	2	0.5%
15	3	0.7%
16	1	0.2%
18	1	0.2%
20	3	0.7%
22	2	0.5%
25	1	0.2%
40	1	0.2%

The trends relating to career moves are more easily depicted graphically as in Figure 6.4 below.

Figure 6.4 - Number of career moves made by respondents



Further exploration of the type of career moves made by respondents reveals that geographical relocation ranged from zero moves by 27 respondents to 20 moves by only one respondent. Industry moves ranged from zero moves for 21 respondents to 15 moves by just one respondent. Organisational moves ranged from zero moves by 8 respondents to 40 moves for just one respondent. Finally, job moves ranged from zero moves by 4 respondents to 25 moves by 2 respondents. These moves are summarised in Table 6.13 below.

Table 6.13 - Types of career move made by respondents

Geographical moves	Frequency	Industry moves	Frequency	Organisation moves	Frequency	Job moves	Frequency
0	27	0	21	0	8	0	4
1	111	1	95	1	71	1	74
2	42	2	38	2	41	2	55
3	28	3	36	3	32	3	38
4	15	4	15	4	17	4	25
5	9	5	7	5	18	5	15
6	4	7	1	6	19	6	10
7	2	8	1	7	5	7	8
8	1	15	1	8	3	8	9
9	1			9	2	9	5
10	3			10	6	10	8
11	1			12	1	11	1
12	1			13	1	12	2
20	1			15	1	16	1
				20	1	22	1
				40	1	25	2

6.3.3 Ways in which career moves have helped or hindered career development

When posed with the question of how mobility issues or career moves have influenced their career, respondents identified several links. These are listed in Table 6.14 below.

Table 6.14 - Career moves affecting career development

Theme	Percentage
Career moves have influenced my career by:	
Providing diversification/skill development/increased responsibility	30.7%
Providing upward movement in career/enhanced career experience	22.3%
Impacting on family commitments	13.6%
Impacting on partner's employment	11.3%
Contributing to personal development	10%
Providing a lifestyle change	9.7%
Unsettling career development	2.6%
Having no impact on career development at all	1.3%
Other	14.6%

Clearly over 50% of the respondents believe being mobile or undertaking career moves either geographically, within industries, within organisations or through new positions has enhanced their career development.

A Upward movement in career/enhanced career experience

This career enhancement took the form of providing upward movement or promotion or has provided the opportunity to get experience for 22.3% of the respondents.

75908731	My career moves assisted me to move up the corporate ladder as each new position was a step up in position

B Diversification/skill development/increased responsibility

The second way mobility issues have enhanced career development is through enabling diversification or skill development, or increased job responsibility. Over a quarter of the respondents (30.7%) reported undertaking career moves to take advantage of these opportunities.

74815926	Each position change has helped my career and further developed my skills.

C Impact on personal lives

Career moves have reportedly impacted either positively or negatively on the personal lives of some of the respondents (45%). Apart from being unsettling to the career (2.6%), respondents reported implications of career moves on a partner's careers (11.3%) and the impact on the whole family (13.6%) as one of the difficult aspects.

86073355	My partners employment meant moving to another location which hindered opportunities in the tourism industry, thus decreasing confidence and placing a large strain on relationship
74914222	Family commitments have definitely been the biggest aspect in preventing further career moves’
102298763	I moved around a couple of times within a short period of time and so it was difficult to settle in a job.

In a more positive light 10% suggested career moves contribute to personal development (10%) or act as an opportunity to change lifestyles (9.7%).

D Contributing to personal development

For 10% of the respondents, undertaking career moves has contributed to their own personal development.

74815812	It's always good to have change…Moving to a new position reinvigorates you…
74933036	…geographical change as helped me to mature and see how other nationalities work.
117478189	Helped - created interest and helped sustain me.

In addition, mobility was identified as an enabling aspect for taking advantage of opportunities offered by the industry.

103188185	Both career moves have been my own choice at a particular stage in my life … primarily to being in the right place at the right time.
89749841	All have led to an improvement in my position but were more opportunistic…

Only 1.3% of respondents felt that mobility issues had no impact on their career development.

6.3.4 Mobility linked to other influences

Mobility issues were linked to other influences of career development. For example, respondents reported a link between mobility and education:

75292585	Career moves have helped. Each career move has been a 'building block' to the next job. Education has assisted the transition.
89923727	Change of job due to attainment of qualification.
74816712	Lack of formal education - as stated previously I only recently completed a Masters degree. Now that I have the degree I will be seeking employment elsewhere.
74946253	The lack of training has made it hard to take full advantage.

Respondents also linked mobility to mentoring relationships

89753016	Have been fortunate in having a strong network of people who have either recommended me for a number of positions.
90235458	Promoting from within and having bosses that share knowledge and foster development/improvement is the biggest impact.
89575711	I started in Hobart, went to Hamilton Island for 2 years, back to Hobart, then to Perisher Blue, then to Strahan, then to East Coast Tasmania. All varied jobs, but focussed on tourism. I learnt a lot from many mentors…

94422026	I think it is more a search for a mentor which has been elusive to date.

6.3.5 Aspects preventing career moves

When asked about issues that have prevented taking advantage of career moves, respondents reported similar themes to those affecting undertaking further education. These are summarised in Table 6.15 below.

Table 6.15 - Aspects preventing career moves

Theme	Percentage
None	28.5%
Family commitments/partner	24.1%
Unwilling to relocate	12.9%
Motivation	10.4%
Other	9.2%
Money	8%
Self confidence	7.6%
Opportunity	6%
Education	5.6%
Lack of management support	4.8%

A No aspects preventing career moves

Over one quarter (28.5%) of respondents believe there were no aspects preventing them from undertaking career moves.

80778154	Nil Have taken advantage of each opportunity.
74933279	nil - I have been willing to do what it takes so far.

B Family commitments/partner

Family commitment was reported as a aspect preventing respondents from undertaking career moves for 24.1% of respondents.

75908731	Having a young family prevented me from moving interstate and therefore not securing the really bigger jobs.
83130494	… partner's employment is higher paid and therefore dictates our residential location.

C Unwilling to relocate

For 12.9% of respondents their unwillingness to change geographical location means they often chose not to take advantage of opportunities presented by industry and therefore forged their career within their regional location.

118042649	Like living in the snowy mountains and working in a ski resort.
89772390	Not wanting to live in a capital city means that there is much less opportunity for employment. Hard in regional areas to progress further and receive promotion. If you do not want to move from there, there is generally no further career opportunity.
89921254	A possible opportunity overseas was dismissed due to my unwillingness to live in that country.

D Motivation

Approximately 10% of respondents had not made career moves due to a lack of motivation.

103322402	Motivation - I'm sure if I really wonted to climb the corporate ladder and become a 'career woman' I could but I'm just not driven.
90242086	Being complacent in my role.

E Self confidence

Some respondents (7.6%) reported a lack of self confidence has prevented them from undertaking some career moves.

104080561	I decline certain moves because I was not confident nor interested in the move.
83916511	lack of self-belief; not sure that I could do the job …

F Opportunity

Limited opportunities for career moves were reported by 6% of the respondents.

74816306	Not many places to move up in the Travel Industry.
74932050	lack of opportunities in preferred living location
89939932	Opportunity: I haven't been offered any except this one so far.

G Lack of support

A lack of management supported was reported by 4.8% of respondents as a reason for not undertaking career moves.

99111156	Boss prevented movement within the organisation even though offered another job.
83998277	The biggest single aspect is having a CEO who doesn't appreciate what your potential is and won't allow you to do your job.
99091233	My current organisation saying there may be something for me in the future but never delivering.

H Other

Some of the other reasons for respondents not taking advantage of career moves include health issues, access to facilities for a disabled child or elderly parents.

6.4 Summary of mobility as an influence

Career moves had influenced the career development of almost three quarters of the respondents. The frequency of these career moves was diverse. Only 15 respondents had not made any career moves while at the other end of the spectrum, one respondent reported 40 changes of job, organisation, industry or geographical location. One to four career moves was the norm for this sample population.

Most of the respondents have made at least one geographical move to help develop their career and six respondents reported moving geographical location more than 10 times. Again, the majority of the respondents had changed their industry more than once with many respondents reporting two, three, or four industry moves.

Respondents suggested career moves had helped their career development by providing diversification, developing their skills and increasing their levels of

responsibility. Respondents also reported upward career movement as a result of enhanced career experiences generated by career moves.

Analysis of mobility issues revealed links with education and mentoring. Further education, or formal training was often reported as a catalyst to job or industry changes. Similarly, mentoring relationships facilitated career moves through information sharing and networking.

It should be noted that mobility issues were not always reported in a positive light. Career moves were reportedly unsettling to the career, and often impacted on partners' careers or affected family members.

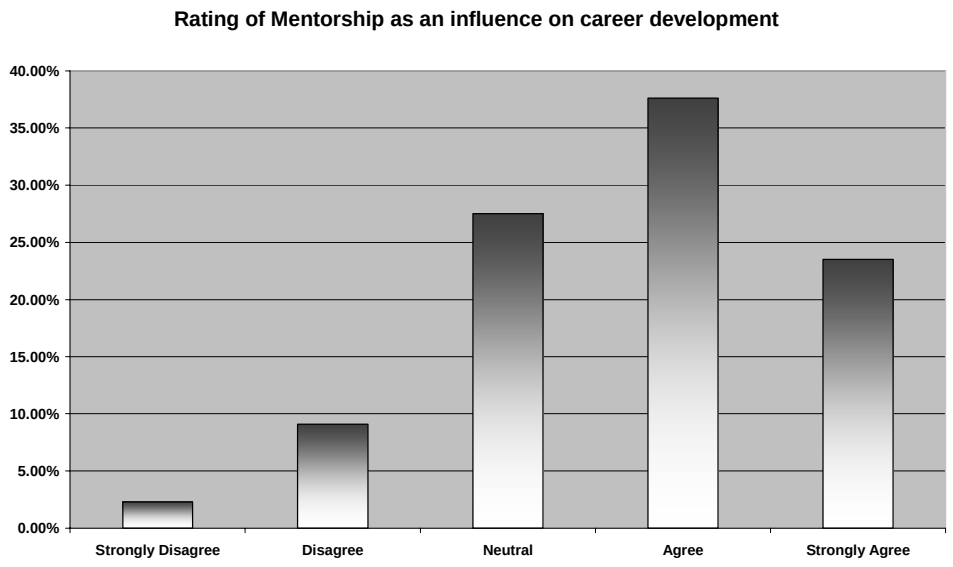
Although career moves were reported as highly influential in career development, family commitments often prevented respondents from taking advantage of opportunities. Others reported career development problems and missed opportunities due to an unwillingness to relocate.

6.5 The influence of mentorship on career development

6.5.1 Rating of mentorship as an influence on career development

The influence of mentors and mentoring relationships on career development was also tested. This influence was strongly supported with over 60% either agreeing (37.6%) or strongly agreeing (23.5%) that mentoring had helped their career development. Some respondents (27.5%) were unsure of this influence and just over 11% either disagreed (9.1%) or strongly disagreed (2.3%) that mentoring was influential on their careers. The strength of mentorship as an influence is evident in Figure 6.5 below.

Figure 6.5 - Rating of mentorship as an influence on career development



Again, as with ‘education’ and ‘mobility’ discussed above, the research explored some correlations between information collected on the respondents and their rating of mentoring as an influence on careers. Several Chi-square tests were conducted to see if variables such as age, level of education, gender, salary and size of organisation had any correlation with the rating of mentorship as an influence.

Table 6.16 - Correlation between respondents' level of education and rating of mentorship

Highest level of education	Mentorship has helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree/strongly agree	
Vocational or trade	14 10.3%	41 30.1%	81 59.6%	**136** **100.0%**
Bachelor Degree	17 12.4%	34 24.8%	86 62.8%	**137** **100.0%**
Post Graduate	10 12.3%	22 27.2%	49 60.5%	**81** **100.0%**
Other	4 10.8%	10 27.0%	23 62.2%	**37** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**45** **11.5%**	**107** **27.4%**	**239** **61.1%**	**391** **100.0%**

Little difference was evident in the way in which respondents with the various levels of education either disagreed, were neutral to, or agreed with the statement suggesting mentorship had influenced their career development. The greatest difference in all ratings was between those with a vocational/trade qualification and those with a bachelor degree: for the disagree/strongly disagree rating this difference was 2.1%, for the neutral rating this difference was 5.3% and for the agree/strongly agree rating a 3.2% variance resulted. These differences are extremely small and indicate no relationship between the level of education of respondents and their perception of

mentorship as an influence on career development. The Chi-square tests reveals a p value of 0.980, also suggesting the relationship is not significant.

Table 6.17 - Correlation between respondents' age and rating of mentorship

Age	Mentorship has helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	**Neutral**	**Agree/strongly agree**	
15-19	0 0.0%	2 40.0%	3 60.0%	**5** **100.0%**
20-24	2 4.7%	14 32.6%	27 62.8%	**43** **100.0%**
25-29	9 11.7%	17 22.1%	51 66.2%	**77** **100.0%**
30-34	6 11.1%	18 33.3%	30 55.6%	**54** **100.0%**
35-39	3 7.7%	13 33.3%	23 59.0%	**39** **100.0%**
40-44	8 19.5%	6 14.6%	27 65.9%	**41** **100.0%**
45-49	6 18.8%	8 25.0%	18 56.3%	**32** **100.0%**
50-55	5 9.1%	17 30.9%	33 60.0%	**55** **100.0%**
Over 55	6 14.0%	13 30.2%	24 55.8%	**43** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**45** **11.6%**	**108** **27.8%**	**236** **60.7%**	**389** **100.0%**

The relationship between the respondents' age and their rating of mentorship as an influence on career development was relatively insignificant. There were small variances within each of the categories and the linear-by-linear association was 1.608 with p=0.212 suggesting the relationship is not significant.

Table 6.18 - Correlation between respondents' organisation size and rating of mentorship

Size of organisation	Mentorship has helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree/strongly agree	
Micro (< 5)	9 12.3%	17 23.3%	47 64.4%	**73** **100.0%**
Small (5 < 20)	9 11.8%	18 23.7%	49 64.5%	**76** **100.0%**
Medium (20 < 200)	14 9.9%	49 34.5%	79 55.6%	**142** **100.0%**
Large (> 200)	13 12.6%	25 24.3%	65 63.1%	**103** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**45** **11.4%**	**109** **27.7%**	**240** **60.9%**	**394** **100.0%**

The relationship between the respondents' organisation size and their rating of mentorship as an influence on career development is insignificant. No particular trends or patterns emerged from the various organisational sizes and both the linear-by-linear association (0.55, p=0.827) and the chi-square test (p=0.514) indicate the relationship is not significant.

Table 6.19 - Correlation between respondents' salary and rating of mentorship

Salary	Mentorship has helped your career development			Total
	Disagree/strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree/strongly agree	
$20,000-$30,000	6 14.6%	9 22.0%	26 63.4%	**41** **100.0%**
$30,001-$40,000	13 20.0%	14 21.5%	38 58.5%	**65** **100.0%**
$40,001-50,000	13 15.3%	25 29.4%	47 55.3%	**85** **100.0%**
$50,001-60,000	6 8.6%	21 30.0%	43 61.4%	**70** **100.0%**
$60,001-70,000	2 3.6%	19 33.9%	35 62.5%	**56** **100.0%**
Over $70,000	4 6.1%	13 19.7%	49 74.2%	**66** **100.0%**
TOTAL	**44** **11.5%**	**101** **26.4%**	**238** **62.1%**	**383** **100.0%**

There was a moderate tendency for the percentage of respondents who agreed that mentorship has influenced career development to increase as salaries increase. The linear-by-linear association of 7.919 with p= 0.005 suggests the relationship is significant.

It was important to explore the type of mentoring relationships experienced by the respondents and to learn the ways in which mentoring can impact on career development.

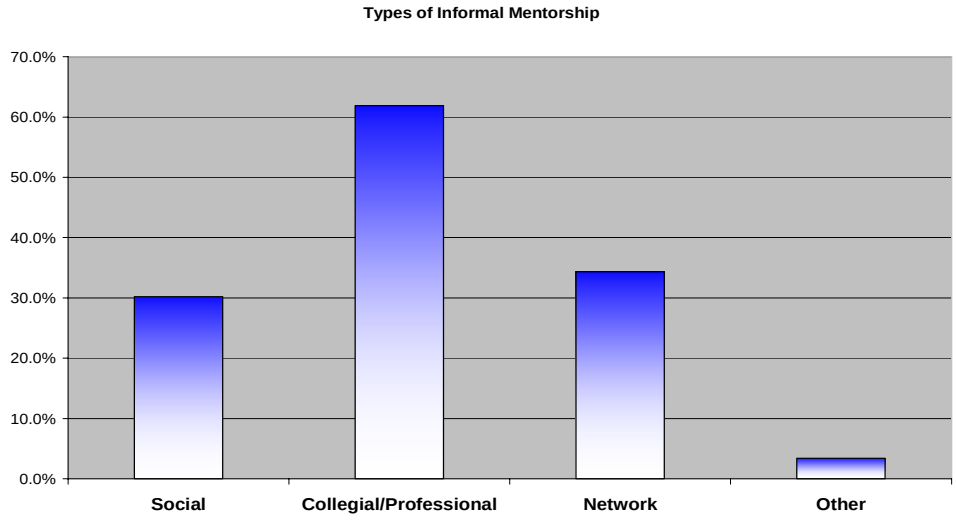
6.5.2 Structured/Formal mentoring programs

Only 25.1% of respondents had experienced a formal mentoring program during their career. Of these 73.3% had experienced this mentoring program through their organisation and the remaining 26.7% had entered mentoring programs through their industry.

6.5.3 Informal/voluntary mentorship programs

A greater proportion of respondents had experienced an informal or more voluntary mentoring program with 265 or 51.5% or respondents indicating experience in this type of program. The respondents reported experiencing this informal mentorship through a social environment (30.2%), through a more collegial/professional environment (61.9%), through networking (34.3%) or through some other forum (3.4%) as indicated in Figure 6.6 below.

Figure 6.6 - Informal mentorship experienced by respondents



Of the respondents who reported "other" types of mentorship experiences, the majority reported their family while others indicated club participation such as

Rotary. It should again be noticed that some respondents indicated experiencing more than one type of mentorship.

6.5.4 Mentorship assists careers

The above mentoring programs have assisted the respondents in their career development in many ways. The themes that emerged from the respondents' feedback are outlined in Table 6.20 and are discussed below.

Table 6.20 - Career development assistance provided by mentoring

Theme	Percentage
Mentoring provided	
An information sharing/learning environment	29.6%
Encouragement – increased my self confidence	26.4%
A sounding board/advice	22.7%
Access to opportunities, networks and other career development tools	20.8%
A role model – helped shape my behaviour	13.4%
Other	14.4%

A Information sharing

The mentorship role of information sharing was valued by almost 30% of those respondents who had experienced mentoring. This information sharing environment was seen as a learning experience and was appreciated by mentees for the knowledge of -

organisational culture:

103131480	Learning about ways to deal with new situations appreciating other perspectives Respecting others views

specific on-the-job skills:

126559070	Assisted in developing management skills Leadership Integrity Fairness
89030893	Mentoring helped in the area of bookkeeping and business planning
102310096	Learning communication and negotiating skills both in a social and business sense has enhanced … my dealings with work colleagues and clients.

industry:

102303716	Helped in a big way…. professional experience of 30 years in a relevant business that they have been happy to share has been invaluable.
89936211	Learning from experienced and professional people
77633097	Passing on industry information and understanding is essential.

and learning in a safe and nurturing environment.

94324679	It is fantastic to have a mentor at work… the 2 mentors that I have had allowed me to learn and grow in a safe environment...without being berated or humiliated for not knowing straight up.
89945731	…it would definitely have provided a safe forum to voice doubts, worries anxieties …

B Encouragement

Respondents also reported a level of encouragement and the development of their own self confidence as an outcome of mentoring.

89757685	As a young person, senior people in the Department recognised my ability and provided mentoring that built my confidence
89945731	Assisted in building confidence, provided an outside perspective on my skills and hence confidence on a broader application.

The encouragement of mentors often assisted respondents to try new initiatives and often to get out of their "comfort zone".

102305452	Mentoring has helped me to gain confidence and push myself in things that I normally wouldn't have done.
82096761	I have had a number of mentors all of which have encouraged me to go beyond what I thought were my limitations with much success.
83902213	It gave me the confidence to speak up at community forums. This lead to me being invited to more forums and onto more committees.
100230997	Confidence to work alone and make informed decisions.

Often this encouragement and support was more social and assisted in job satisfaction and enjoyment.

90238638	Developed friendships, loyalty to the organisation and co-workers, worked through issues and problems, provided support.
86092982	My mentors (2 in particular) have inspired … introduced me to a greater enjoyment of my chosen career in travel and tourism.

Other types of encouragement from mentors appear to take the form of positive reinforcement of job performance.

86073355	Provide valuable feedback, constructive criticism and enforces areas you are working well in.

C A sounding board

Over 20% of the mentored respondents valued the opportunity to use mentors as a sounding board and for seeking advice.

74940045	Provided me with a sounding board and advice where needed. It also encouraged and motivated me to further myself both in terms of myself as a person and my career.
90240827	Objective advice and guidance from someone I respect in terms of career progression and ability to undertake a role. Techniques to manage difficult situations (eg staff relations and managing upwards)
132656091	Never hindered - helped to have someone looking at my business from the outside, offering advise and support
100494241	This person was an excellent sounding board for me with some personality clashes I had and was always available to assist and support me in my early days in this position.
101901388	When dealing with new projects - mentors have provided ideas on how they or others have tackled similar tasks in the past…
82098242	Having someone to voice concerns to, or bounce ideas off has been good. Just having someone who understands what you are trying to achieve is comforting.
89947925	Having a mentor enabled me to discuss proposals before implementation at the work level. Mentoring also assisted me in decision making and conflict resolution matters involving staff.

D Access to opportunities

Through mentoring, respondents reported clear links to promotions -

103163155	2 promotions can be attributed to a person within the organisation mentoring me

to opportunities to develop high order skills leading to promotion:

8975329	Provided great promotional opportunities. Gained exposure to higher order duties/processes/strategic thinking

to learning opportunities:

89889603	Mentoring offers learning opportunities that cannot be gained in educational institutions….

and also to a supportive environment.

87958808	Mentoring help my career. Particularly through networking, developing a group of people to work through problems on a social level.

E A role model

Over 13% (13.4%) of respondents looked upon their mentors as role models and clearly tried to shape their own behaviour on their mentors.

103322402	Mentoring has helped me shape my thinking/behaviour/reactions etc to what I see as ideal. … I find it useful to look outside myself to see what I can change about myself …

115721187	Following actions and behaviour of mentors and select best strong and useful points attitude and actions

In addition to providing a role model for some of the respondents, these mentors were able to inspire and create a passion for both the industry and a job.

89754557	Ignited my passion for the industry and kept my interest up…
89755297	Mentoring was sensation. I was motivated, couldn't wait to work with this person and felt inspired to achieve…

Apart from the themes discussed above, some comments are worthy of note. Not all respondents perceived mentoring in a positive light:

86707833	Formal mentoring programs are by and large a dismal failure and a waste of time in my experience as a consultant to industry and government - particularly so in government
89889603	Mentoring offers learning opportunities that cannot be gained in educational institutions. However it also may lead to bad habits being passed down the line.

Other comments suggest that although some respondents may not have experienced mentoring throughout their career, they felt strongly about mentoring their own staff.

90208059	As a Mentor myself now, I recognise the value of mentorship. In fact it is crucial for singles and those operating small businesses without corporate and financial support. I now impart so much guidance, knowledge and professionalism etc through my experiences which my mentorees gobble up!!
86041321	I have not personally had a mentor but mentoring my clients has enabled them to succeed in their business ventures.

89899375	It provides both guidance and the confidence to move independently. I feel I have been a good mentor to others both through the uni student networks and now with my own staff

There were some comments in favour of a more informal mentoring scheme -

108026550	I did not like having a mentor imposed upon me. I prefer to talk to people that I have great respect for.
74946253	… I think a mentor has to evolve. In most cases in mentoring programs a mentor is designated to you when you commence employment or through management. That person may not be the right mentor for you…

while there were others who thought a formal program worked well.

89950032	… I wish I had of entered into another formal arrangement, as the regularity of meetings does help keep you on the track, interested and motivated.

Finally, there was much agreement that the type of person involved as a mentor impacts on the success of the mentor-mentee relationship.

87958808	Mentoring helped my career [but]...When mentoring turns to nepotism, the barriers appear. Mentoring only works when honest motives are in play, and the mentor sincerely wants to pass on experience.
102251441	Having the right people as mentors, not everyone has the ability to embrace a mentoring position. Placing the wrong people together can have a negative affect

Interestingly, some respondents felt mentoring would not work in their industry due to the competitive nature of their business.

76448819	Mentoring does not exist in the hospitality industry, as mentors are competitors, and restaurateurs sometimes fail to feel that they have commonality with other small businesses.
75908616	perception that my peers are competition
89405776	Fear by others of loosing there market share needed to be someone retired from the industry

6.5.5 Aspects preventing respondents from taking full advantage of mentoring programs

Again respondents were asked to list the aspects that have impacted on their willingness/ability to take advantage of mentoring programs.

Table 6.21 - Aspects preventing mentorship

Theme	Percentage
No opportunity/no mentors available	44.8%
Nothing has prevented me taking advantage of mentoring	23%
Time	15.8%
Internal issues	9.1%
Other	9.1%
Negative perception of mentoring/lack of trust	6.7%

A No opportunity

No opportunity to partake in mentorship programs was reportedly the major issue preventing respondents from experiencing mentorship. Respondents reported either no mentorship programs on offer:

74815926	I have never been offered a formal mentoring program.
89753036	I have not heard of any mentoring programs available in my region or field
89772390	No real professional mentoring programs offered in this industry, that I am aware of.
90235458	Don't know of formal mentoring programs and how to access them
89925883	No structured mentoring policies are in place in my position of employment

B No mentors available in the organisation or industry

89899375	…Good mentors are hard to come by
102305929	… there are no other qualified persons within the …I feel it may impact on me keeping up to date…

C Taken full advantage of mentoring

Clearly, many of the respondents who have experienced mentoring feel they have embraced the process and taken full advantage of the programs on offer. Almost a quarter of the respondents (23%) reported that there were no issues preventing them from taking full advantage of mentoring programs.

100277361	None, you just have to ask

D *Time*

Over 15% of respondents felt mentorship was time consuming and reported a lack of time as a major reason for not being involved in such programs.

74816595	Time spent mentoring and follow up exercises was sometimes limited by the need to get on with the job. …
75289866	The constant heavy work loads of our organisation make having a formal mentoring program quite difficult.
89936476	Time - difficult to get day-to-day work done so difficult to commit time to mentoring.

E Internal issues (self)

Either a lack of self confidence or an unwillingness to disclose weaknesses prevented some respondents from engaging in mentorship.

102285074	Wanting to appear confident and competent…
102305452	Not having the confidence to sit with people I don't really know very well…
102518032	I don't want to get to close! I like to keep my distance to some degree with work colleagues …

For others, high levels of self confidence rendered mentoring less useful.

87440290	I am confident in my own abilities and pretty self-sufficient. I am happy to make my own decisions and have never really seen any real benefit in following the directions of others.
86184630	…Own personal attitude

F Negative perception of mentoring

Naturally, those respondents who did not perceive mentoring as a useful and beneficial process did not take advantage of such programs. This reinforces some of the comments made above in relation to assuring quality and training of mentors.

87786316	Lack of respect for mentor - felt she was extremely unprofessional and I didn't get anything out of it.
74946253	Lack of confidence for manager- A mentor has to be someone you respect and admire and strive to be like…
90218468	quality of mentor

G Other

Some of the additional reasons for respondents not taking full advantage of mentoring programs include a lack of resources -

90242086	Lack of funds from company
102303716	Cost has prevented me from taking part in any structured mentoring program.

or geographical isolation:

86092982	Geography has usually been my obstacle - have lived at a great distance from my mentor.

or a lack of management support.

83998277	No support from the CEO
99450447	It seems that the older management are not keen to share information in case younger employees overshadow them.

6.5.6 Potential benefits of mentoring

To complete the subject of mentoring, the researcher asked those respondents who had not experienced mentoring if they thought they would have benefited from such programs. This was answered by 115 respondents. The ways by which these respondents believe they would have benefit from mentorship are listed Table 6.22 below.

Table 6.22 - Possible benefits of mentorship

Theme	Percentage
Would you have benefited from mentorship?	
Yes, encouragement and opportunities	31.3%
Not sure	26.1%
Yes, assistance with decision-making/learning	24.4%
Yes, providing appropriate mentorship	8.7%
No, no need for mentor	5.2%
Other	3.5%
No, negative perception of mentorship	2.6%

A Encouragement and opportunities

The majority of the respondents who felt they would benefit from mentorship believe the process would provide some encouragement for career development and expose them to opportunities within the industry.

81118031	Yes I would benefit as it would encourage and provide me with potential new ways of working day to day.
89949776	Yes, just to keep you updated with your position and what's happening in the industry in general.
90191387	I would CERTAINLY have benefited, as this industry is all about who you know and good referrals...

B Decision-making/learning

The next most commonly reported potential benefit of mentorship is in the form of guidance with decision-making.

100670965	Could have made better management choices
89949719	Yes - someone to bounce ideas off, provide some advice on which career path would suit me best

Others thought mentorship would assist in the learning process

76142204	Yes. I think mentoring is particularly useful for the development of management skills
75070562	Yes- enable feedback on your strengths and weaknesses. A mentor would also enable you to be guided in your specific Job role
83903024	I think mentoring is gaining in importance - the more so as graduates enter the workforce with little practical understanding of the workplace.

C Correct mentor

Some respondents believe they would have benefited from mentoring only if the appropriate mentorship was provided.

103152413	Perhaps. Depends on your ability to find an appropriate mentor.
86019090	I feel that I would certainly benefit from a mentoring program with the right mentor 'fit'

D Unsure of benefits of mentorship

Approximately one quarter of the respondents who had not experienced mentoring previously were unsure of the benefits of such relationships.

74815926	I am not sure that I would feel comfortable discussing my career via a 'formal' channel.
75297298	Unsure if a mentor program would have helped but have considered recently whether or not this would have been or still could be an advantage.
103188185	I'm not sure. I am so used to learning on the job that I'm not sure if I would benefit from mentoring...

E No benefits of mentorship

Less than 10% of the respondents answering this question did not believe they would benefit from mentorship. Most of these reported they were achieving their career goals and saw no need for mentoring -

103444427	I have achieved the highest sales and growth every year for the past 6years in Australia …by my own personal motivation and positive attitude.

or perceived the mentoring process negatively.

80672014	I am rather impatient with well meaning people!

F Other

Some of the other comments in relation to whether respondents believe they would have benefited from mentorship include the concern about legal responsibility -

75443159	I am aware … that persons have sued mentors if their businesses go bust!!!!!

and the issue of over-dependency of those being mentored.

86434671	… The risk is that some people see a mentor as a person who removes obstacles and on whose coat tails a career can be developed which obviously can be very counter productive.

6.6 Summary of mentorship as an influence

Mentoring was clearly influential to the career development of the respondents. Approximately one quarter of the respondents had experienced some type of formal mentoring program and over half of the respondents had developed informal mentoring relationships. For those who had reported an involvement in mentorship, over 30% found information sharing from mentors invaluable in their career development. Respondents also reported the value of encouragement, having a 'sounding board', access to opportunities and role modelling as mentoring functions influential in career development. Many respondents also reported taking on a

mentoring role themselves as they felt this type of relationship was highly beneficial to their organisational members.

Other issues that emerged from the analysis of mentorship as an influence on career development related to the success of artificially structured mentorship programs. Some respondents believe not all organisational members have the necessary skills and knowledge to effectively mentor other members of the organisation. Many respondents believe the naturally emerging informal relationship and informal mentorship systems are more effective than the more artificial organisationally designed formal systems.

While a large proportion of the respondents embraced mentoring programs, time to participate in such programs was reportedly an issue for many. A lack of self confidence, an unwillingness to disclose weaknesses or a negative perception/previous experience also prevented many from embracing the mentorship concept.

6.7 A comparison of the influences of education, mobility, and mentorship

Although the researcher did not aim to compare the relative importance of each of these influences, it is important both theoretically and pragmatically to explore the weight respondents perceive each to bear on their career. Rather than a three pronged approach to this comparison, the researcher conducted two-pair testing to ascertain correlations between the ratings and enable patterns and trends to be identified. These correlations are discussed below. Table 6.23 provides a comparison of respondent ratings of the influence of education and the influence of mobility on their careers.

Table 6.23 - Correlation between the ratings of education and mobility

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Education	**22**	**53**	**69**	**179**	**89**
Mobility	**9**	**22**	**92**	**162**	**127**

Respondents were more likely to either 'Strongly Disagree' or 'Disagree' that education had helped their career development than they did for mobility and they had a slight tendency to 'Agree' or 'Strongly Agree' that mobility had influenced their career than they education. A greater tendency was evident for respondents to be 'Neutral' on mobility as an influence than for education. A significant correlation was found in testing the marginal homogeneity of the figures in Table 6.23 with P=0.000.

To add evidence to the correlation between the rating of mobility and mentorship, a mean score for each was calculated based on their rating of each influence on a 1-5 scale with Strongly Disagree representing 1 through to Strongly Agree representing 5. The mean rating for mobility was 3.91 while the mean rating for education was 3.63. Respondents felt mobility issues were slightly more influential on their careers than education but it should be noted that this difference was minimal.

Table 6.24 provides the comparison in ratings by respondents of mobility and mentorship as helpful to their career development.

Table 6.24 - Correlation between the ratings of mobility and mentorship

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Mobility	9	21	86	153	120
Mentorship	9	34	107	147	92

Respondents tended to lean towards 'Agree' and 'Strongly Agree' in their rating of mobility, while tending to be more neutral in their rating of mentorship. Several more respondents tended to 'Disagree' that mentorship had been influential on their career than they felt about mobility.

A significant correlation was found in testing the marginal homogeneity of the figures in Table 6.24 with P=0.000. To add further evidence to the correlation between the rating of mobility and mentorship, a mean score for each was calculated. The mean rating for mobility was 3.91 while the mean rating for mentorship was 3.72. Respondents felt mobility issues were slightly more influential on their careers than mentorship but it should be noted that this difference was minimal.

In Table 6.25 the relative ratings of mentorship and education as helpful to career development mentorship are provided.

Table 6.25 - Correlation between the ratings of mentorship and education

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Mentorship	9	36	109	149	92
Education	22	49	64	174	86

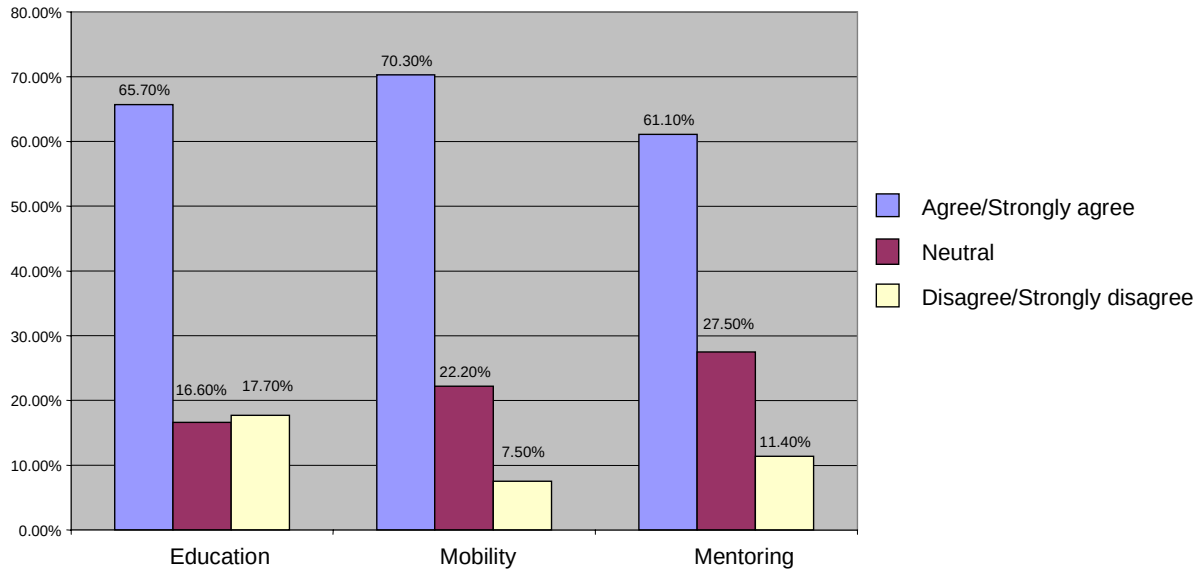
Respondents tended to be unsure or neutral about the influence of mentorship on their careers while leaning towards a more bi-polar perspective relating to the influence of education. A greater tendency was evident for respondents to rate either 'Strongly Disagree' or 'Disagree' that education had helped their career than they rated for mentorship. In contrast only a slightly higher rating in the 'Agree' or 'Strongly Agree' region was evident for respondents' rating of mentorship over education.

Unlike the correlations between mentorship and career moves, and career moves and education, no significant correlation was found in testing the marginal homogeneity of the figures in Table 6.25. The value of P=0.660 suggests there is no correlation between the ratings of education and mentorship. Again a mean score for each was calculated. The mean rating for mentorship was 3.70 while the mean rating for education was 3.64. Respondents felt mentorship was slightly more influential on their careers than education but it should be noted that this difference was minimal.

The trends discussed above are illustrated in Figure 6.7 below. Education, mobility, and mentoring are obviously clearly important influences on the careers of the respondents. The relationship between career development and mobility and career development and mentoring, was strongly acknowledged by the majority of respondents and approximately one quarter was neutral to the relationship and even

less disagreed about the link. However, the relationship between career development and education tended to produce a slightly different pattern. In this relationship there was a propensity to either agree or disagree with the influence of education on career development.

Figure 6.7 - A comparison of influence of education, mobility and mentoring on career development



6.8 Career development strategies

Respondents reported their careers developing through various methods as detailed in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26 - Career development strategies

A mix of both strategies – some planning some opportunistic	54.7%
Opportunistic – taking advantage of opportunities offered by industry	38.2%
Planning – carefully planning career moves	4.3%
Other	2.8%

Interestingly, although respondents provided information included in Table 6.26 above, when asked if they had a career development strategy only 31% of respondents reported in the positive. The remaining 69% suggested they were not following a particular strategy in relation to their career development.

6.8.1 Changes in Career Development Strategies

When respondents were asked to reflect on whether and in what ways their career development strategies had changed throughout their career, the following themes emerged.

Table 6.27 - Reasons for changing career development strategies

Theme	Percentage
Changes in career development strategies	
Yes – my goals/priorities have changed	28.9%
Yes – Changed to opportunistic	24.4%
Yes – Personal circumstances have changed	23%
No – not changed	12.6%
Yes – changed as industry is changing	9.6%
Other	7.4%

The majority of respondents (85.9%) have changed their career development strategy throughout their working life with just over ten percent (12.6%) adhering to their original career development strategy. The reason for changing the strategy varied. These reasons are discussed below:

A Goals/priorities

For almost 30% (28.9%) of respondents their career development strategy has changed due to their changing goals and priorities.

75908616	Yes, now I have reached my goal career I have looked at developing other goals
86037973	yes, was working as a manager for someone else, now due to family/personal circumstances it is building a business for ourselves.

B Changed due to opportunities

As industry presented opportunities to some respondents, they (24.4%) reported changing their career strategy to be more flexible to take advantage of these new opportunities.

8117921	After initially planning to work in retail travel sales I received a job offer for inbound tourism which wasn't meant to happen for 10 years.
102245803	Yes - due to opportunities that arose along the way.

C Personal circumstances have changed

For some respondents (23%) internal issues affected their career development strategies. Subsequent changes to these strategies were due to either changing personal goals and priorities -

75087928	I initially thought I wanted to work in managerial positions within hotels, I have now decided that I would like to move into marketing and event management.
117477764	Changed greatly as experience changed and wanted to move in new direction

or changes in personal circumstances.

94678137	My basic career development strategy is to find stimulating, challenging roles that now meet my family needs
102256007	Changed- wanting to be closer to family, wanting less stress

D Industry has changed

Other respondents (9.6%) reported a need to change their career strategy in response to changes within the industry.

86130879	Yes - due to changes in the global tourism market.
103444427	yes the industry is changing all the time in marketing ie world wide internet and technology.

E *No change*

For only 12.6% of respondents, career development strategies have remained constant.

75301700	It hasn't changed. Stick with one industry / location and be the best at it…

Some interesting points raised by the respondents and recorded in the 'other' theme included changing strategies as a result of redundancy, health problems or injuries, an unwillingness to relocate, and concerns relating to gender bias.

6.8.2 Impact of Career Development Strategy on career

The career development strategies adopted by the respondents impacted on their careers in a variety of ways. The themes to emerge from this reflection are discussed below:

- A clear career development strategy has assisted my career
- A clear career development strategy has had unexpected consequences
- A clear career development strategy needs to remain flexible, allow taking up opportunities as they arise
- A lack of a clear career development strategy has hindered my career
- A lack of a clear career development strategy has not hindered my career.
- A clear career development strategy has neither helped nor hindered my career

A A clear career development strategy has assisted my career

Many commented that their strategy had helped their career by providing direction and motivation.

90167550	My career development strategies have helped my career through realising the skills and experience I will need in my goal career, and doing my best/taking opportunities that can get me that experience.
86073355	Helped by giving a clear perspective on what you want. By setting goals you have something to aim for.
89930548	My career development to date has allowed me to grow and expand into new roles within the same industry - something I welcome and require to maintain focused and passionate about my job.
89940879	Strategies are good in that they have given me and a goal to focus on and work towards…
94394321	Strategies are vitally important to retain focus, but also to analyse opportunities as they arrive - to determine if things will help you get where you want to go and to drop off the things that won't.
103267434	…they have provided my career with some direction and enabled me to make my current job (at every stage in my career) work towards the achievement of the next career stage (ie: professional development opportunities, networking).

Interestingly, for some respondents their chosen career development strategy resulted in undertaking further education.

106791412	My career development strategies have helped my career by undertaking tourism studies to ensure I would have the appropriate qualifications for my position.
83175067	Getting a degree was a strategy which was successful, as was being available and willing to do difficult jobs in a variety of locations…
86035320	You never know what else is out there unless you conduct some research. Making career development strategies/goals keep you abreast with current trends/consumer needs/desires government initiatives and regulation. This enables you requalify, up-skill to take advantage of these trends.

Again, following this positive vein, some of the respondents believe they have achieved their career goals by following their chosen career development strategy.

B A clear career development strategy has had unexpected consequences

Some respondents reported that they had a clear career development strategy but have still been discontent with the direction of their career.

89772390	Reached my ultimate goal/ position very early on... left me very unsure of where I wanted to go next, and what I wanted to next achieve. Still experiencing these problems.
89899375	I started out with a strategy to retrain and find employment in the new career but the career ladder is pretty short in my current organisation and I have been at the top for most of my time at this organisation. It will only be through more study and a relocation that my career will continue to climb
89945731	The strategies have been hindered by management styles at times which have restricted access to opportunities.

C A clear career development strategy needs to remain flexible

90235458	It would probably help in giving a broad goal but things can change pretty quickly so would need to be very flexible. And I don't like the American style hype when it comes to career and self promotion!
103953613	I'm not strategic when it comes to career development if I was I should have left Tourism Victoria by now after 7 years! My moves are focussed on when I get to a position of exhausting growing/learning opportunities or when I sense that there is no room to move. At Tourism Vic I haven't reached that level yet however I am aware that it is not wise to become a dinosaur in a particular role.

87930034	Through changing and adapting to the variables (location, businesses, down or up-turns in market) I made the most of opportunities. There is no point in being rigid about sticking to a 'Career path' they simply don't work in the real world. ….
89708556	My strategy is to go with the flow, and grab opportunity when it presents itself. So far, so good.

D A lack of a clear career development strategy has hindered my career

In a less positive light, some respondents believed their failure to adopt a career development strategy had hindered their career.

103322402	My lack of strategies has probably held me back however it's more likely to be my lack of motivation that has lead to the lack of strategies.
117478189	Hindered. No strategy has meant staying in same company longer than expected.
90229685	Fail to plan, plan to fail! Everyone should have goals and strive hard for what they want to achieve!

E A clear career development strategy has neither helped nor hindered my career

Some respondents believe their career development strategy has neither helped nor hindered their career.

85836038	Career development strategies have not had a great influence on my career either way, due to the inability to follow my career path at the exclusion of all else earlier, and later is now towards the end of my career.
86019090	Has not helped nor hindered. Up until my current role and employment I had never truly been satisfied with the industry I was employed in.

F Mentoring and career development strategies

Mentoring and networking influences were raised by some respondents who linked these relationships to their career development strategies.

90189373	Networking has played a huge role in my career development strategies and has helped due to my confident nature. Through this I am able to achieve my set goals with confidence as I have the support of a great team behind me.
83737617	Others always knew where and what I wanted to be doing in the long term and were often instrumental in providing advice and opportunities to support this plan.

6.9 Summary of career development strategies implemented by respondents

Over half of the respondents had used a combination of strategies in developing their careers. These respondents at times carefully planned their careers while at other times had reportedly taken advantage of industry opportunities as they arose. Surprisingly, almost 40% of the respondents had relied solely on a more opportunistic approach to career development. Awaiting opportunities to arise or relying on 'being in the right spot at the right time' was the strategy embraced by these respondents.

While a high proportion of the respondents relied on industry providing opportunities for career development, an equally surprising finding was the fact that only approximately 4% of respondents reported carefully planning their career moves.

The majority of respondents have changed their career development strategy at times due to changing goals and priorities, as opportunities arose, as their personal circumstances changed and as the industry has changed and evolved. Interestingly,

respondents believed that while placing control of and responsibility for, career development in the hands of the industry, was in itself a strategy.

Approximately 12% of the respondents reported adhering to their original career development strategy without change.

Actually having a career development strategy was reportedly important for the respondents as they felt that a strategy provided direction and motivation and guided decision-making in relation to education and training. At the same time, a theme emerged from the results suggesting career development strategies need to remain flexible to take account of both changing personal circumstances and changes within the industry.

6.10 A reflection

Finally, respondents were asked to reflect on the information they have provided throughout the data collection process and consider any additional issues which have impacted on their careers. Only 82 of the 515 respondents provided additional information. Of these 82 respondents, 77.9% reiterated the importance of the issues discussed above, while 28.1% outlined further issues worthy of consideration in the understanding of careers in the tourism industry.

6.10.1 Reiterated issues impacting on careers in tourism

The use of industry opportunities (28%) as a strategy for career development was one of the issues that were emphasised in this reflection. Mentorship was also raised again in this section by 20.7% followed by a passion for the industry (13.4%).

Working with people (8.5%) and education (7.3%) were both raised as important career development influences.

6.10.2 Additional issues impacting on careers in tourism

Several respondents (15.9%) felt that it was important to have the right personality for the work required in the tourism industry. Gender inequity was another issue raised in this reflection and was reported by 3.7% or just 4 respondents. The percentage of respondents raising gender issues is small and as this theme falls outside the aims and objectives of this research thesis, no further analysis is provided in this thesis. However, further discussion of gender and careers in tourism is provided in the 'Implications for further research' section in Chapter 7, Discussions and Conclusions.

6.11 Conclusion

The above results have provided valuable feedback on the model developed in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations. The results suggest the three variables of education, mobility and motivation are important influences for the participants in this particular study.

Throughout this chapter, the researcher has reflected on the richness and strength of the data provided by the respondents. It is clear that the respondents have valued the opportunity to reflect on, to discuss, and to think about their careers. The information has raised issues which should be of value to practitioners, theorists and educationalists and has highlighted areas for further research. A discussion of these findings and areas of further research is provided in Chapter 7, Discussion and Conclusions.

Chapter 7

Discussion and Conclusions

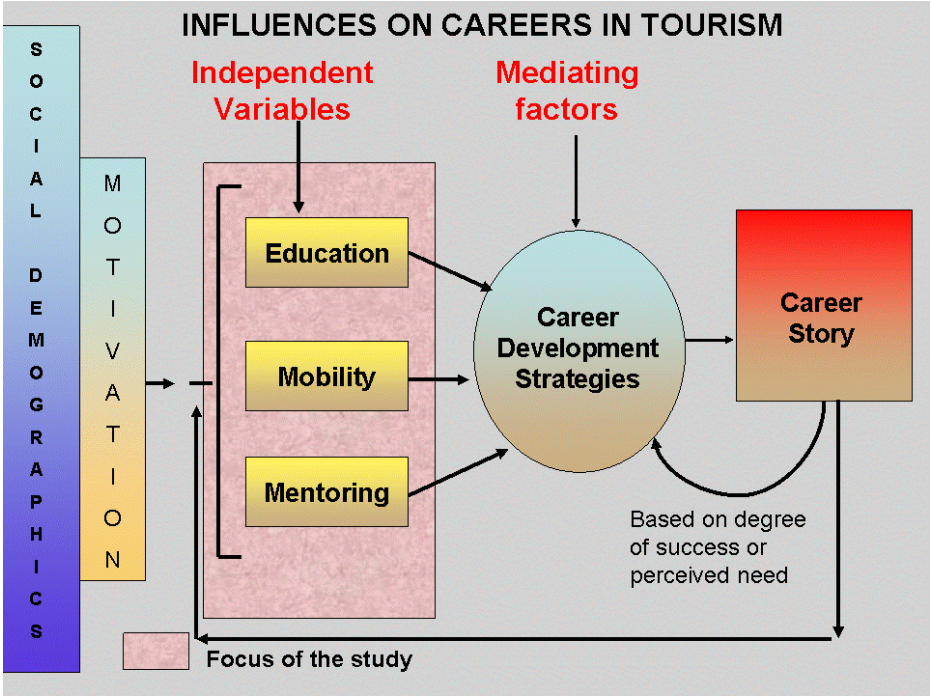
Chapters 5 and 6 report results from the empirical research conducted in this thesis. This final chapter will draw on this analysis to address the research questions posed in Chapter 1, Introduction. These findings will then be reviewed in relation to the career development model outlined in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations. This model is reproduced in Figure 7.1 highlighting the variables under consideration. Although the focus of this research was on these highlighted variables, some discussion of findings relating to other aspects of the model will be provided to ensure a holistic approach to its evaluation.

From this previous work, the researcher identified six major variables that impact on careers in tourism. These six variables underpin the model presented in Figure 7.1 with three variables selected as the focus of the current thesis. The six variables identified include social demographics, motivation, education, mobility, mentorship and strategies for career development. To reaffirm the six variables as worthy of inclusion in a model of career development, the researcher provided an opportunity for thesis respondents to 'tell their own story' of influences on their career development. The aim was to establish if influences other than those hypothesised should be included in the model. These stories are discussed in Section 7.1 below.

The researcher will then logically work through the model providing a logical analysis and evaluation of each element of the model. In Section 7.2 the researcher discusses the impact of social demographics and motivation on the career development of those involved in this study. Education as an influence on career development is discussed

in Section 7.3 and mobility and mentoring are then examined in Sections 7.4 and 7.5 respectively. The researcher has devoted Section 7.6 to a discussion of career development strategies evident in the study and will explain how these strategies in turn may affect the role of education, mobility and mentoring. A refined working model of career development in the tourism industry in Australia based on the findings of this study is then presented in Section 7.7. This Chapter will conclude in Section 7.8 with reflection on both the theoretical and practical implications of this study and emerging areas worthy of further research.

Figure 7.1 - Original model of influences on careers in tourism



The specific research problem tackled in this thesis was to investigate the major influences on career development in the Australian tourism industry. To address this problem the following research objectives were designed.

To investigate the impact of the following contextual influences on tourism careers:

- Educational qualifications;
- Mobility;
- Mentoring (both formal and informal);
- Opportunity and careful planning in career development; and
- Social demographic aspects.

To achieve these objectives the following research questions were addressed:

What is the relationship between career development and

- Education;
- Mobility;
- Mentoring;
- Opportunity vs careful planning;
- Social demographics; and
- motivation

for tourism related areas.

Careers have been the focus of much attention in the literature. Several of the theories relating to careers have been discussed in Chapter 2 and these theories have been linked to the tourism industry where possible. Interdisciplinary scholarly work on careers was merged with previous work on careers in tourism and hospitality and results of the pilot study to provide a platform for the current research thesis. Although this resulted in a level of understanding of careers in the tourism industry, several gaps in knowledge have emerged. Some of these are discussed below.

It is clear that tourism is an emerging profession and there is little empirical evidence on which to model career development. The role of education in advancing tourism careers has received attention from tourism scholars but the focus has been primarily on curriculum design rather than the level of education underpinning careers, the role of formal versus more vocational education in career development and the need for a life-long learning culture within the industry. Similarly, mobility issues have been addressed to some extent within the tourism literature but most of this work concerns hotel management, where mobility is common. However, whether tourism careers were also characterised by such high levels of mobility is not yet clear. Research has revealed a clear link between mentorship and professional development (see Kram, 1985; Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Whitely et al., 1991; Ragins et al., 2000; Higgins, 2001; Allen and Finkelstein, 2003), but few studies explore the role of mentoring within an industry such as tourism. Principally, the gap in literature appears to reflect a dearth of specific research within Australia linking all three influences. There is also little in the literature that provides a guide for those who wish to develop careers in tourism. The current research attempts to address this gap.

What follows is a discussion of how this thesis has addressed some of these gaps in knowledge. Each of the influences will be discussed separately and then a general discussion of the interrelationship between the three will follows. This will lead to a revision of the model proposed in Chapter 3.

7.1 Career stories – what additional influences emerged

7.1.1 Situational variables

Unprompted stories of the influences on individual careers suggest that situational variables such as education, mentors, career/professional development opportunities, industry opportunities, mobility issues and a good working location affect career development.

Clearly the respondents believe that education influences career development in the tourism industry. As suggested by respondents, winning the first job in the industry and climbing the corporate ladder often depended on a formal educational qualification. This link between education and career development is not unique to the tourism industry and has been well established in the literature (see Mallon and Walton, 2005; Baruch and Leeming, 2001; Judge et al., 1995). Career choice was also linked to education particularly for those whose courses involved work experience or internships. The link between education and career development is acknowledged and education is embedded as an influence in the model of career development in the tourism industry.

These unprompted stories also revealed mentorship as an important influence on career development. Many respondents accredited their current job as an outcome of mentoring relations either from direct managers or co-workers reflecting the suggestion that mentorship assists an individual to move up the organisation's hierarchy (Ragins, 1997; Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Whitely et al., 1991). Interestingly, the results suggest that mentorship is particularly important in early career stages.

The use of the term ‘mentoring’ by respondents to embrace both dyadic and multiple relationships adds to our understanding of definitional issues as outlined in Section 2.8.1 of Chapter 2, Literature Review. Whilst there is no agreement on the technical definition, some believing that mentorship does not encompass developmental networking relationships (see Van Emmerik, 2004), but the perception of those involved in the current study is that the term is transferable to all relationships offering career support and guidance. The relationship between mentorship on career development has previously been established in scholarly works (see Ayres, 2006b) and is incorporated as a variable in the model of career development in tourism.

Other situational variables reported by the respondents as influential on their career include career/professional development opportunities (opportunities to develop new skills, gain experience) and industry opportunities (job offers – being in the right place at the right time). This exposure to industry opportunities is also acknowledged in the model and falls within the variable of career development strategies.

The need to remain mobile was highlighted as an influence in the results that suggest this mobility is important not only geographically but within jobs, organisations and industries: “…Mobility – early in my career, the willingness to move to take opportunities and progress” (74808806). Mobility, as with education and mentorship, is the third influence under focus in the research within the model of career development in tourism.

The results of this research did not uncover any additional major influences on career development in the Australian tourism industry so no additions to the model were necessary.

7.1.2 Motivational drivers

Motivational drivers were highly rated within the list of influences revealed in the career stories of the respondents in this particular study. The most popular motivational influence was a passion for the industry and job satisfaction. As mentioned previously, these non-monetary influences have been supported by various studies (eg Adams, 2001) and need to be acknowledged in this study. Another motivator identified included the opportunity to travel. This is not a surprise finding as tourism by definition is associated with travel.

Undertaking a working role offering a challenge motivates many involved in the current study and as suggested by Lau and Shaffer (1999), careers offer individuals the opportunity to fulfil their need for achievement. For others, financial compensation is a motivational influence and the flexibility associated with work within the tourism industry also attracts and motivates workers. All these motivators are acknowledged and grouped within the variable 'Motivation' and incorporated into the model of career development in tourism.

7.1.3 Social influences

Results suggest that the social side of work is influential in the tourism industry. Working with and meeting people was important for over 10% of those involved in

this study and needs to be recognised as a 'selling point' for attracting careerists into the industry. This influence is important for addressing recruitment and retention policies in the industry and the researcher argues that this influence generally falls under a 'motivation' to enter the tourism industry and as such is already a variable within the model of career development.

It would appear that the model as developed in Chapter 3, Theoretical Considerations embraces the influences as listed by respondents in the current study and no additional influences were revealed. A discussion of the model now follows.

7.2 Social demographics and motivation as in influence on career in tourism

7.2.1 Social demographics

As mentioned previously, earlier research has established a link between the social demographics influencing career choice and motivation to pursue career development. These linkages include studies on race and culture (see Ross, 2004; Grimes, 2001; Fish, 1999) age (see Armstrong-Stassen, 2005; Wise and Millward, 2005; Taylor and Walker, 1997; Yearta and Warr, 1995) and minority groups (Littrell and Nkomo, 2005; Bradley et al., 2004; Hurley and Giannantonio, 1999; Hite, 1996). In addition, a popular focus for scholars is in the field of career development and advancement of managerial and professional women (see Mavin, 2001; Davidson and Burke, 1994; Fagenson, 1993, Burke and McKeen, 1994a, Burke and McKeen 1994b; Sekaran and Leong, 1992), male and female comparative management studies (see Granqvist and Persson, 2005; Ackah and Heaton, 2004; Burke, 1997; Ohlott et al., 1994) and more recently differences in career motivations and transitions between men and women

(Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005). Career development seems to have close links with social demographic aspects.

Respondents in the current study comprised approximately 70% females and approximately three quarters were under 50 years of age. Interestingly, over 50% were earning over $50,000 per year and only 10% under $30,000 per year. Approximately 70% held either a bachelor degree or vocational or trade certificate and almost 20% held a post-graduate qualification. Over 20% of the respondents held titles of CEO or managing director with another 20% as managers, supervisors or owner/operators. There is some suggestion in these figures that the respondents were relatively successful in their chosen careers. In addition, over 80% reported themselves as careerists.

This study may contradict previous literature suggesting that women encounter barriers to career development. Only a small number of respondents (3.7%) reported that gender affected their careers. Whilst the study did not focus specifically on gender analysis, this finding is worth noting and may suggest the need for dedicated gender studies in the field of tourism. It is not suggested at this stage that women wishing to develop careers in tourism do not encounter similar career development concerns than women within other industries.

This study found that relatively young women in tourism appear to be successful. Throughout their career stories, age was not reported as impacting on career development by respondents. However, again care needs to be taken not to generalise that age is not a barrier to, or an advantage in careers in tourism. Other social

demographic information such as race and culture cannot receive attention as they also fall outside the scope of this particular thesis. It is concluded that ample evidence exists to establish social demographics as an influence on career development in any discipline and therefore should be included in the model of career development in the tourism industry discussed in this thesis.

7.2.2 Motivation

Motivational drivers were influential on the careers of over half of the respondents (59.3%) and, in fact, a *passion for the industry* was the number one influence articulated in the career stories. Comments such as "Personal interest and passion in the choice of work" (89946068) and "The dynamic nature of the business was and still is very attractive" (74944368) and the use of "fun" as a descriptive in career stories suggests that "a motivation" for working in tourism drives many of these professionals. The opportunity for flexibility and independence motivates many of the respondents and has resulted in many moving to their own business. As tourism is dominated by large number of small to medium sized enterprises (Thomas, 2000), this is perhaps an expected finding. The opportunity to travel is also a highly motivational driver for those working in the industry along with challenges presented by the work and personal ambition. These findings align with the suggestion that employees are motivated by strong non-monetary aspects which affect work and career satisfaction (Yarnall, 1998) and enjoyment of the job (Adams, 2001).

It is clear that individuals in this study are motivated by different aspects and to different levels. Levinson et al (1978) suggested that while some individuals are motivated by economic needs and satisfaction, for others the career may provide

social status or even represent an individual's 'life dream'. Some career stories adopted this term: "Following a dream to work in tourism (75936737); I am motivated by my dream" (97552369)

Only a small number of respondents (6.3%) listed financial rewards as a motivator and, some anecdotal evidence suggested that the industry does not pay particularly well: "In Qantas travel – the pay here is not great and I could get more outside but ……I love the airline industry and don't think I would ever leave it" (90170586). However, as this information was elicited through unprompted career stories, and as only approximately 20% of respondents received less than $40,000, there is no evidence to suggest careers in the tourism industry are adequately paid and that financial rewards are not motivators for the respondents. Motivational aspects appear complex and usually intrinsic. Motivation influences the careers of those in the tourism industry and should form part of the model under discussion.

7.3 Education as an influence on careers in tourism

The positive relationship between education and career development is widely accepted (Baruch, 2003) and it was not surprising to find this link reinforced in the current study. It appears that the role of education is increasing in value and that for those wanting to advance in the industry, formal qualifications are required in many employment situations (Hurley-Hanson et al., 2005). The results of this particular study suggest that post-graduate qualifications are increasingly important in today's workplace. This finding is contrary to suggestions that tourism is a low skill industry (Hall, 1998). It should be noted that Hall's 1998 comments on the skill level of the tourism industry may have arisen from the confusion often associated with any

discussion of employment in the industry and relates to the lack of distinction between tourism and hospitality positions. In addition, the status of tourism as an employing industry has been influenced by the entry of an increasing number of graduates from tertiary tourism courses. It also needs to be acknowledged that the response to the current research was likely skewed towards the more highly educated as discussed in the limitations section of this chapter.

In the current study nearly all of the respondents (90%) held a qualification of some sort with the majority divided equally between a vocational or trade certificate and a bachelor's degree. It was surprising to find that almost 20% of respondents had a post graduate qualification suggesting this sample of tourism employees were highly qualified.

It should be noted that the focus for this study was on the level of education as it relates to career development rather than the specific title of the qualification. The results provide little information to contribute to the debate of curriculum design except to add that some evidence suggests that in addition to the technical skills and knowledge required by the industry, more focus needs to be placed on the more generalisable management training as suggested by some of those involved in this curriculum debate (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004; Gustin, 2001; Smith and Cooper, 2000; Ryan, 1995a; Ryan, 1995b; Cooper et al., 1994; Tait et al., 1993). *"…the opportunity to think, analyse, solve problems, question, rationale and thinking"* (75285243). In addition, the current study suggests that those who want to advance in the industry need education in the disciplines of marketing, business and tourism and

to a lesser extent management. These are the discipline areas identified in the study as areas of proposed further education.

Although the discourse on educational curricula for tourism courses is extensive (Littlejohn and Watson, 2004; Beeton and Graetz, 2001; Jennings, 2000; Mohsin and Christie, 2000; Buckley, 1990; Bondar 1990; Baum et al., 1997; Rudall et al., 1995), scant information is available linking educational qualifications and career development within the tourism industry (see Petrova and Mason, 2004 for a notable exception). Comments that formal qualifications "open doors" and "provide entry into the industry" suggest that the role of education is similar in tourism to that of other industries and provides employees with a "competitive edge" (Mallon and Walton, 2005). "Secured me a job in a competitive market" (89754557); "My qualifications allowed me to gain employment at an entry level" (74946253).

It should be pointed out that some evidence from this study reinforces Petrova and Mason's (2004) research that found that the tourism industry was not convinced of the benefits of tourism degrees and employing tourism graduates. Career stories in the current project revealed that there is a "lack of understanding in the industry regarding what tourism graduates are trained to do" (89968435).

Obtaining a formal qualification, although providing a 'ticket' to career aspirations (Mallon and Walton, 2005), appears not to be the end of the learning process. Over half of those involved in the current study seriously intended to undertake further education. They felt that a need for life-long learning was is necessary for those embarking on a career in tourism. In addition, the need for continuous learning and

upgrading of qualifications was reinforced by the fact that approximately half of the respondents intended to update or upgrade their educational qualifications. Industry leaders need to be aware that this intention was frequently challenged by both time and financial constraints.

As expected, those respondents with a university education, either a bachelor degree or post-graduate qualification rated education as very influential on their career development. Further, a significant relationship exists in the current study between the level of education of the respondents and their ranking of education as an influence. This is consistent with previous studies in which those who were qualified were more supportive of the role of formal qualifications than those who were unqualified (Harper et al., 2005).

A significant relationship was also evident between age and rating of education as an influence. The level of disagreement that education is influential on career development increased with age. One explanation for this may be that as employees grow older, their experience is more relevant to career development than their formal education. It may be that later in the career, the importance of on-the-job training increases and is a vehicle through which respondents may acquire and maintain the necessary skills for increasing employability (Harris et al., 2001; Billet, 2002). Or it may be there is a qualifications creep; it is generally acknowledged that recent generations need higher qualifications to succeed in their respective careers.

The value of education is significantly associated with the size of the employing organisation. For those employed in large organisations, the value of education is

rated highly while for those in micro-sized organisations, there was a tendency to be less sure of the value of formal qualifications. This may be due to the level of competition within large corporations where the 'competitive edge' aspect of a formal qualification is more evident.

On-the-job training also was rated highly in the current study appearing to fill this need for on-going learning. This type of training appears to be a key to upskilling and maintaining employability (Korpi and Mertens, 2004; Billet, 2002) and remaining competitive within the industry. The value of attendance at industry seminars and conferences suggests that it is vital to keep abreast of industry trends and best practices if endeavouring to establish a career in tourism. Formal education, although clearly important for career development, needs to be supplemented by such on-the-job training and informal education.

In summary, the following quotation sums up the role of education and the need for a life long learning culture aptly:

> All experience has an effect on your life and who you are. Your upbringing, your life values, your study, your friends, your choice of career, your choice of partner, your family life, your interests, the choices you make, the events that happen outside your control - highs and lows that come completely out of the blue and those situations that you may contrive. The secret is to learn from all this experience and continue to learn throughout your career whether its lessons from life or from formal study or both. (89943696)

Finding a strong link between education and career development is not surprising. As mentioned, this link is in line with previous research into careers and suggests the tourism industry recognises the value of highly educated employees. Although evidence suggests that the profile of tourism specific courses needs to be addressed

within the industry, education plays a vital role in the career development of tourism employees and as such warrants inclusion in the model of influences on career development in this industry.

7.4 Mobility as an influence on careers in tourism

Remaining mobile is important for those employed in the tourism industry. This was an expected result and reinforces the notion that movement between jobs, between organisations, within industries and geographically provides advantages and increases the opportunity for career development (Korpi and Mertens, 2004). This study endorses the previous work of many researchers (Riley et al., 2002; Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000; Ladkin and Laws, 2000; Barron, 1997), where mobility was found to be positively linked to career development and was characteristic of employment in both the hospitality and tourism industry.

No significant relationship was found between career moves or mobility as an influence on career development and the level of education of those in the study. At all levels of education, mobility was perceived to be an important influence on careers. Similarly, little association was found between the age of the respondents and the value they placed on mobility and on the size of the organisation in which the respondents were employed and the value they placed on career movement. However, a signicant relationship was found between the salary levels of respondents and the rating of mobility as an influence on career development. The rating of mobility as an influence on career development increased as the level of salary increased. This is perhaps an expected finding as mobility was seen to help career development in tourism by providing opportunities for upward movement: “my career

moves assisted me to move up the corporate ladder as each new position was a step up in position" (75908731). One would expect less positions offering higher level salaries and therefore require the applicant to change industry, location or organisation.

As outlined in Chapter 6, Results – Model Testing, the number of career moves undertaken by respondents does not appear to align with their rating of mobility as an influence. As illustrated in Figure 6.4, one to four moves was the norm for this survey population and appears to indicate little movement. However, as indicated in Table 5.4 (Chapter 5), one third of the respondents (30%) aged between 20-30 and this may have influenced the findings. In addition, it is reasonable to assume that this age group may undertake, in the future, further moves to progress their career. There is some evidence in the literature to suggest that the young are more likely to undertake career moves than those in the older age brackets (Van der Heijden, 2003; Chelli and Rosti, 2000). This assumption is supported by findings that one person reported making 40 career moves and others reported similarly high numbers with one more reporting 25 moves, two more reporting 22 moves and three reporting 20 career moves. The findings from the current study, do suggest that respondents rate mobility, in theory, as influential on career development.

Previous research uncovered some of the personal aspects that influence an individual's mobility including age, gender, family situation and level of training (Mitchell et al., 2001). The results of the current study particularly reinforce the link between family situations and career moves with almost 25% suggesting family commitments and partners' employment impacting on their willingness or ability to

make career moves: "*family commitments have definitely been the biggest aspect in preventing further career moves"* (7914222). It is important to note that females represented over two thirds of the respondents (70.2%) of this particular study and as there appears to be no general agreement in the literature on the effect of family-related aspects on women's career mobility with some evidence to suggesting a positive connection (see Granqvist and Persson, 2005) and others suggesting organisational aspects and personal aspirations provided the motivation to leave corporate firms. It is, therefore, important not to generalise these findings.

In summary, mobility issues were found to be influential on an individual's career development and this finding is supported by the literature on the new career construct generally and in the tourism literature. It is clear that mobility is an influence on career development in tourism and should be a component of the model.

7.5 Mentoring as an influence on careers in tourism

The aim of this research study was to assess the influence mentorship may have on career development in the tourism industry. Therefore, no attempt was made to assess the type of mentoring programs that are available in the workplace nor the evaluate the workings of these mentoring relationships. However, the thesis aimed to link the existence of mentorship to successful career development and to comment on the employees' perception of the types of effective mentorship relationships.

The results suggest mentoring is influential on career development. Although the researcher expected the value of mentoring relationships to be high, the emphasis placed on this influence was extraordinarily high. In this particular study, mentorship

was provided less through structured and formal programs than more informal or voluntary types of mentorship as for many in the tourism industry, as within other disciplines (Kram, 1985; Levinson et al., 1978) structured mentoring programs are often unavailable.

Most of the informal mentorship was provided from colleagues or fellow professionals. Little agreement was uncovered on whether the formal or informal mentorship experiences are more effective than the other and this aligns with previous research on structured and informal mentorship (see Chao et al., 1992; Seibert, 1999; Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997). Interestingly, the outcomes of mentorship from both the structured and informal programs were positive with very few indications of negative mentoring experiences. However, these negative experiences suggest that care needs to be taken in selecting mentoring personnel (Simon and Eby, 2003): *Lack of confidence in manager – a mentor has to be someone you respect and admire and strive to be like* (749946253). An unexpected negative finding of mentoring experiences related to the competitive nature of the tourism industry. As mentioned previously, tourism primarily comprises small to medium organisations and the competitive nature of the business is highlighted by comments similar to *mentoring does not exist in the industry, as mentors are competitors* (76448819) and *perception that my peers are competition* (75908616).

Before continuing this discussion on mentorship, it is important to note that results from this study add to the definitional debate on mentorship (see 2.8.1 in Chapter 2). In the literature, mentoring concepts are often interpreted as substitutes. Networking is seen as a viable substitute for mentoring (Forrett and Dougherty, 2001) and this

overlap in concepts is evident in the current study: *Mentoring helped my career – particularly through networking, developing a group of people to work through problems with* (87958808), *my mentoring experience is via networks - both professional and social* (74815926). However, although the researcher has embraced the substitute philosophy (Molloy, 2005), it should be noted that many researchers argue against the idea that the terms are interchangeable (Kram and Isabella, 1985; Van Emmerik, 2004).

Information sharing appears to be the leading benefit of mentorship*: Passing on industry information and understanding is essential* (77633097). This was followed by encouragement: *As a young person, senior people in the Department recognised my ability and provided mentoring that built my confidence* (89757685); and using mentors as a sounding board: *Having someone to voice concerns to, or bounce ideas off has been good* (82098242). While mentorship was rated highly as an influence on career development, the career stories revealed mentorship as a vital component of respondents' overall professional development.

No significant relationship was found between level of education and the rating of mentorship as influential on career development nor was there a significant relationship relating to age. Similarly, no patterns or trends emerged from a comparison of organisation size and mentorship. However, a significant relationship was identified between salary levels and the rating of mentorship as an influence. As salary levels increase, so too does the value of mentorship.

Respondents reported a lack of structured mentoring programs on offer in the industry. This dearth of structured programs was the prime reason preventing this group of tourism workers from taking advantage of mentorship. Time was also considered a issue for utilising mentorship along with either a lack of self confidence or an unwillingness to disclose weaknesses.

It would appear that in a new and rapidly growing industry such as tourism, employees actively seek out and value feedback from others either within the organisation and industry or outside. In addition, the role of these mentoring relationships is diverse and changeable. Apart from career advice relating to decisions on mobility issues and increased education and training, mentees use these relationships for role modelling or shaping behaviour, for testing ideas, for learning about the environment in which they work and for increasing their self confidence.

7.6 The combined influence of education, mobility and mentoring

It would appear from the results of the current study that although education, mobility and mentoring were identified as key influences on careers in the tourism industry, they are not independent variables but rather are interrelated and closely linked. Education was clearly a key to remaining mobile and increasing the number and type of career changes an individual may undertake. Mitchell et al., (2001) also found that the level of training influenced an individual's propensity to make career moves. This finding aligns with the general literature of the new career construct in which employees need to remain highly skilled in order to become more employable (Mallon and Walton, 2005). In reverse, mobility often provided a means of increasing

knowledge and skills by providing diversity of experience, increased responsibility and access to further education and training.

Education was also linked to mentoring. A mentor is able to encourage and guide an individual on the decision to undertake further education and training: *The decision to take up study at a mature age was the result of mentoring* (*90227368)* Individuals from this study clearly use their mentoring relationships as a sounding board and often this related to areas of weakness or the need of further development.

Mentoring and mobility are closely related**.** Individuals seeking to cross the boundaries of multiple firms should be more successful if they develop large and diverse networks (Sullivan, 1999). In the new economy a strong "network of relationships with colleagues, friends, and other associates who provide information that aids in the worker's development of career opportunities" (Sullivan, 1999 p 468) contributes to mobility and leads to more rewards and higher career satisfaction.

Mentorship provides opportunities for networking and often information sharing. Access to employment opportunities and proactive job searches is clearly provides advantages to those aiming to develop their careers within the tourism industry: "*Informal mentoring from managers has been the single greatest influence affecting careers. Both from having bosses that take you to companies that they move to or just bosses who encourage personal and professional growth" (*90235458), "*Various colleagues and managers throughout my career have given me advice and support. They have helped me make important career moves in different ways. Some have*

pushed me and made me take positions I would not ordinarily take, where others have merely helped me make a decision on a particular career move" (*74946253).*

It is likely that making career moves increases an individual's opportunity to develop multiple mentoring relationships to expand networking and information sharing prospects.

The results of this particular study suggest that mentorship and networking relationships, although not as highly rated as both education and mobility issues appear to be a more pervasive influence as mentorship often guides the decision-making of individuals in relation to both education and mobility. The instrumental support of mentoring relations increases exposure and visibility (Higgins, 2001) and facilitates or highlights opportunities for career moves: "*mentoring networks gave me the break necessary to switch career" (*83903024). This type of support also provides opportunities for increasing skills and knowledge through furthering education and training by providing coaching (Allen and Finkelstein, 2003) and providing challenging assignments (Higgins, 2001): "*[mentoring] assisted in developing management sills, leadership, integrity and fairness"* (126559070).

Mentorship through psychosocial or emotional support guides decision making through functions of counselling and confirmation. Acting as a 'sounding board' and offering encouragement and self-confidence (Higgins, 2001) facilitates decision-making in terms of career moves: "*objective advice and guidance from someone I respect in terms of career progression"* (90240827) and undertaking education:

"*[mentorship] assisted in building confidence, provided an outside perspective on my skills and hence confidence to undertake further education" (*89945731).

7.7 Career development strategies

Combining careful planning with opportunism was an expected strategy in developing careers in the tourism industry and is in line with the findings in the pilot study by the researcher (Ayres, 2006b). However, the role of opportunistic career development as a stand-alone strategy was surprising. Although Arthur et al (1999) suggest that the ability to seize opportunities appears to make a difference in career development, this study raises concerns relating to tourism employees awareness of career paths and career directions as many reported relying on opportunities to arise, or 'being in the right spot at the right time' as the only method of career development. .

Evidence suggesting tourism careers may lack direction and clearly identifiable paths has serious implications for both theory and practice. The development of education and training policies and manpower planning is difficult if careerists are not planning ahead and preparing themselves for careers in the various sectors of tourism.

In the *current* study, a tendency to change career development strategies if goals and priorities change or if opportunities arise was common: *"After initially planning to work in retail travel sales I received a job offer for inbound tourism which wasn't meant to happen for 10 years so I changed from planning my career moves to a strategy of taking opportunities as they arise"* (81179216).

As suggested in the model, as career stories evolved, there was a tendency for respondents to revisit or utilise one or more of the influences of education, mobility and mentorship: *After 10 years in the industry, my career was not taking me in the direction I had hoped, so I decided to retrain and undertook a degree in tourism* (103277434); *after missing out on my dream job, I decided to seek advice from my supervisor on how to get the necessary experience to land this job in the future* (86025320).

7.8 Model revised

Based on the results summarised above, the researcher revisited the model of career development in the tourism industry. The original model is depicted below followed by a summary and justification of the amendments. A redeveloped model is then presented.

7.8.1 Amendments to model of influences on careers in tourism

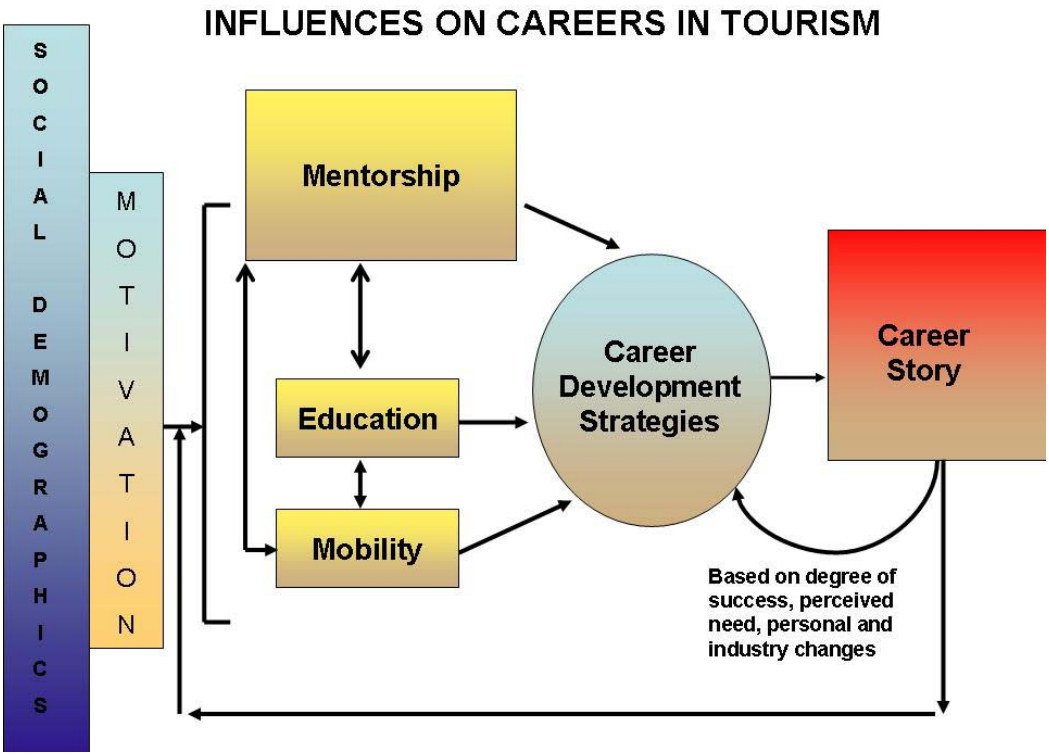
Based on the discussion above, several amendments to the above model were made. The results of this research suggest the components of social demographics and motivation remain within the model framework. Justification for this is included above in Section 7.2.1 and 7.2.2. Similarly, the three influences of education, mobility and mentoring are valid components of this model of career development in the tourism industry. However, it was decided that due to the pervasive role of mentorship (see Figure 7.2), this variable should serve as an overarching component in the model. Mentorship appears to be playing an increasingly important role within the current career environment. The value of information sharing and networking opportunities is highlighted in the current study and reinforces the value of

mentorship in career development. Individuals reported the need to be proactive in the search for new and diverse opportunities and mentors were instrumental in guiding the career moves of many in this thesis. In addition, mentors were used as sounding boards and assisted in the decision-making process for those unsure of the wisdom of undertaking career moves as opportunities arise. Finally, mentors and mentoring relationships clearly supported the transition so frequently required in today's mobile workforce.

Two-way arrows were added to the model to indicate the interrelationship between the variables of mentorship, education and mobility (see Figure 7.2). Career development strategies are clearly adjusted by careerists as circumstances, goals and priorities change and this in turn may lead to revisiting the three influences of mentorship, education, and mobility.

The amended model is depicted in Figure 7.2 below.

Figure 7.2 - Reworked model of careers



7.9 Limitations of the study

7.9.1 Validity

The current thesis collected both qualitative and quantitative information on the research issue to use the strengths of each to overcome the deficiencies of the other. The use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques aims to achieve an even higher degree of validity (Sarantakos, 2005) by overcoming the weaknesses of single-method research.

All possible steps were taken to ensure that the questionnaire was designed to maximise the validity of this research. This was done by piloting the questionnaire on the local tourism industry and amending the questions as suggested. The

questionnaire was also tested on several members of the general public and again amendments were carried out as appropriate. The researcher was confident that the terminology used within the questionnaire was clear and comprehensible to a wide audience.

7.9.2 Reliability

In the current thesis, it is not suggested that if the study was repeated the same results would be achieved as the methods employed were not highly standardised, there was little control of the environment in which the research was conducted and the relationship between the researcher and the researched was again not controlled. However, every attempt was made to ensure that the questionnaire design, the methodology and the analysis of the data would accurately reflect the perceptions of the participants of this study at this particular time.

The survey instrument was amended several times in response to feedback from various sectors of the industry, was built on previous research and a literature review. As outlined later in this chapter under areas for future research, it is acknowledged that it would be useful to replicate this study on a sector of the tourism industry with a known population to better determine if the sample of respondents in the current study is representative of the tourism workforce.

7.9.3 Generalisability

The aim of this particular study was not to present any particular theory that could be readily transferred across disciplines or to generalise on the findings of and draw conclusions that would apply in a generic sense. Given the dearth of research on the

topic, the aim was to explore influences on careers in the tourism industry to better inform both practitioners and those involved in theory construction. As discussed under *Reliability* and *Validity* there is a need for similar research to be conducted within the industry if any level of generalisability is to be achieved.

However, the present study provides an indication of influences on careers in the tourism industry and could be used for the basis of further research. Although it is not possible to generalise the findings from this study, due to limitations in both the sampling techniques and the results, the information collected is of value to various stakeholders in the industry.

It is important to acknowledge some of the limitations to the responding population. Firstly, it is acknowledged that the ACT was particularly over represented. Secondly, there was a disproportionate number of female to male respondents. Thirdly, respondents appear to have education levels above what may have been expected. These limitations have been addressed in this thesis and further research may determine if these limitations have skewed the results.

7.10 Contribution of the present study to the theory of tourism careers

The type of qualitative research that has been undertaken in the current research thesis has built on the knowledge of careers in the tourism industry, and further developed trend theories that may be tested and validated by further research (Sarantakos, 2005). The thesis has endorsed, reinforced and further developed existing knowledge of careers within the tourism industry (see particularly the work of Riley et al., 2002;

Ladkin and Riley, 1996; Riley and Ladkin 1994; ; Ladkin and Laws, 2000; Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000 and Ruddy, 1990; Ruddy, 1989).

This study contributes to several areas of research. The major contribution of this thesis is the identification of the three main components of the model. The first component is education. The contribution to theory lies in how and why education influences career development in tourism. In addition to adding to our understanding of formal education and career development (Marhuenda et al, 2004), this research advances our understanding of the role of on-the-job training in career development and the perceived value of such training by those endeavouring to keep abreast of industry best practice, and advancing technology. The 'knowing-how' career competencies (Arthur et al, 1999) appear to be ever changing and this reinforces the need for a life-long learning philosophy (Mallon and Walton, 2005) for those embarking on careers in tourism. This thesis reinforces our understanding of the new career construct in which, rather than aim for employment longevity within the one organisation, maintaining 'employability' is a more realistic objective. The new construct suggests that organisations provide workers with a job where they can learn and practice new skills in exchange for the worker's knowledge and expert performance (Truty, 2003). The onus, therefore, is on the workers to maintain and upgrade this level of knowledge and expert performance if they are to remain employable.

Education is strongly linked to an individual's career development, yet opportunities to undertake formal education are clearly related to an individual's ability to pay, motivation to achieve, relationship support and more.

The second component of the model identified in this thesis relates to the levels of mobility in career development. Careerists in today's employment arena are faced with continual change and adjustment. The concept of a life-long career within the one organisation appears to have disappeared. The need to change job, organisation, industry and geographical location is clearly demonstrated within the current research thesis. This requires individuals to stay flexible (Marhuenda et al, 2004), consistently scan the environment for opportunities and carefully consider the value of career opportunities as they arise.

The current study reinforces previous knowledge of high levels of mobility within the tourism industry (Riley et al, 2002; Ladkin and Riley, 1996; Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000). This study suggests these levels of mobility enhance career development by providing upward movement and opportunities for broadening career capital and work experience. However, often family commitments and a disinclination to change geographical locations can impede careerists in tourism undertaking career moves that may enhance their professional development.

The third component of the model is mentorship. Mentorship has received much attention in the literature and this study reinforces the positive association between mentorship and career development. This thesis suggests that structured mentoring programs are not available to many in the tourism industry and mentorship in the form of informal and networking relationships is the common source of mentoring assistance. These multiple mentoring relationships offer alternatives to the formal

mentoring relationship that is often unavailable to many individuals in organisations (Kram, 1985; Levinson et al., 1978).

Information sharing, offering encouragement, and providing a sounding board for ideas and problem solving were the major benefits derived from the mentoring experience reported in this study. These findings provide a useful framework for those organisations aiming to either establish structured mentoring programs or encourage the development of less formal programs. Mentorship training could also embrace the outcomes of successful mentoring experiences.

This thesis also adds to the debate on definitional issues relating to mentorship (Baugh and Scandura, 1999; Higgins, 2000; Higgins and Kram, 2001; Thomas and Higgins, 1996; Kram, 1985). Findings from this thesis suggest that employees in the tourism industry relate to the broader definition of mentorship that goes beyond the senior/junior dyadic relationship to embrace the entire spectrum of supporting relationships that contribute to career development.

In addition to identifying the three main components of the model of career development in the tourism industry, the thesis adds to our understanding of motivation and career development. It should be noted that this study does not focus on the link between social demographics and career development, or motivation and career development, as prior research has already established this relationship (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Knutson and Schmidgall, 1999; Ibarra, 1995; Kirchmeyer, 1998; Kanter, 1977; Judge et al., 1995; Jenkins, 1994, 1989; Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990; Littig, 1979; Chusmir, 1985; Ragins and Sundstrom, 1989; Alfred,

2001; Ng et al., 2005 and others). The current thesis however, adds to our understanding of the link between social demographics and motivation to career development in the tourism industry.

Knowing why we work is a reflection of personal values, interests, motivation and work-family issues (Parker, 2002). This study strongly suggests that many employees in the tourism industry are motivated by their 'passion' (one of Schein's, 1978, career anchors) for the industry and for the opportunity to develop new skills and learning (Nabi, 2001). These finding reinforce the idea that career theory should focus not only on the objective aspects of the career but also the subjective dimension as this presents a more holistic approach to understanding of career development in tourism.

The final contribution to theory relates to broadening the understanding of career development strategies employed by those within the tourism industry. This thesis suggests that employees perceive career development strategies provide a focus, motivation and direction. Although a more opportunistic approach to career development appears the norm, evidence exists suggesting workers change their strategy to take account of changing personal goals and priorities, and to embrace changes to the industry.

7.11 Implications for practice.

7.11.1 Significance of the findings to the field of tourism

Pragmatic goals of social research are to find solutions to social problems (Sarantokas, 1998). This study addressed the concern for career studies in the field of tourism. As discussed in the Chapter 1, Introduction, the current thesis aims to

investigate the major influences on career development in the Australian tourism industry and to develop a model of such influences. The findings from this study have implications for professional development and career advice and for human resource planning. The thesis also provides information on the role of education, mobility and mentorship in career development.

Career motivation guides a wide range of career related decisions and behaviours such as searching for and accepting a job, staying with an organisation, revising career plans, seeking training and new job experiences and setting and trying to accomplish career goals (London, 1983). Understanding motivations for undertaking a career in tourism can assist in the recruitment and retention of tourism managers. Barth (1993) suggests that understanding staff motivations assists organisations to understand why quality staff choose to leave the organisation and facilitates organisations in targeting career management systems more effectively. More constructive discussions with employees who might be dissatisfied may ultimately lead to increasing job satisfaction.

An awareness that ‘a passion for the industry’ and ‘a love of travel’ drives many embarking on a career has implications for all involved in the industry. Careers in tourism may not always be glamorous and involve high levels of travel. Such perceptions may be unrealistic of many jobs within the industry and suggests that professionals and educationalists should endeavour to address the perception that tourism is a ‘fun’ industry and provide more realistic expectations of employment within the sector.

The industry needs to support the life-long learning philosophy identified as necessary to enduring careers in the tourism industry. The value of educational qualifications is highlighted in this study yet time and money were identified as major aspects preventing the respondents from undertaking further formal education. The industry needs to recognise this need and introduce assistance programs that encourage and foster this learning philosophy. In addition, the industry and the learning institutions need to work closely to ensure curriculum design is recognised and of value to both the individuals and the employing agencies.

Informal education and training clearly plays a vital role in upskilling the tourism workforce, yet research has revealed that only 28% of tourism industry firms had a training plan in 1999 and only 19% had a training budget (Jameson, 2000). The industry needs to recognise the importance of on-the-job training and the value of feedback in learning environments.

Mobility between jobs, organisations, industries and geographical locations is important for careers in tourism. The industry, however, needs to be mindful that career moves impact of family relations and the motivation to embrace change. Implementing supportive programs and training could facilitate this type of transition.

Mentorship was instrumental in assisting employees adjust to change. In addition, mentorship supports career movement through information sharing and encouragement. It would appear that structured mentorship programs are scarce within the tourism industry and this may need to be addressed by organisations.

However, it should be acknowledge that informal mentorship and networking is an effective way of achieving the benefits of such programs.

The knowledge that a high proportion of workers in the tourism industry may develop their careers by relying on industry to provide opportunities for movement is important for organisations. This suggests that unlike much of the hype of the new career construct, organisations may still need to be involved in career management and career planning for organisational members. In managing such career activities, organisations need to realise that the old notion of organisational commitment and loyalty may no longer be valid and applicable but should adopt a more supportive role prioritising their investment in their people.

The findings from this study that education and mobility are important influences on individual careers suggest that tourism careers may not be dissimilar to careers in other industries and may align to the new career constructs discussed earlier in this thesis. This earlier discussion suggested that education (see Judge et al., 1995; Baruch and Leeming, 2001; Baruch, 2003; Hurley-Hanson et al., 2005) and mobility (see Authur and Rousseau, 1996; Weick, 1996; Arthur et al., 1999; Poehnell and Amundson, 2002) play major roles in career development. The current study also highlighted the role of mentoring in the development of careers in Australian tourism. Again, this finding is in line with interdisciplinary career studies (see Baugh and Scandura, 1999; Higgins, 2000; Higgins and Kram, 2001; Thomas and Higgins, 1996; Kram 1985).

In addition to the points made above, this study adds to the overall professionalisation of the tourism industry. The foundation of any profession is the requisite education and training that leads to entry level of practice (Vignoles et al., 2004). This study has highlighted issues relating to tourism education and its recognition by industry. If industry accepts the challenge of working with educationalists and practitioners, and increases recruitment of tourism graduates, the industry will increasingly be accepted as a recognised profession. A culture of mentorship and information sharing may foster a collegial and unified industry workforce, through which an ethical code of practice may further evolve; another progression towards professionalising the industry.

7.11.2 Individual

The concept of a career is much broader than the exclusively work-related definitions of career which have dominated management theory and practice for at least the last few decades (Adamson et al., 1998). Individuals need to view careers as embedded in their lives along with other roles and responsibilities within society. To facilitate this recognition of the more subjective aspects of the career, people in tourism can adopt elements of career development based on the results of this thesis. Employees need to take control of their own career development and understanding the influences on careers in tourism will assist this need to serve as one's own free agent.

The recognition that each individual is motivated by different drivers suggests the need for individuals to search for and understand their own motivations. This will assist in identifying positive educational experiences and assist decision-making in

relation to career moves. Understanding motivations may also increase job satisfaction and other intrinsic rewards.

Individuals also need to acknowledge that social demographics such as age, race, gender, culture and others play a significant role in career development. This study indicates that the tourism field may employ large numbers of females and gender issues and their impact on career development need to be addressed.

Education and career development in tourism are related. This is important for those embarking on a career in tourism or planning to undertake such a career. The value of a formal educational qualification and even a post-graduate qualification cannot be underestimated as it not only facilitates entry into the industry but provides careerists with a competitive edge in the employment market.

Individuals need to acknowledge that career moves are an important step in fostering a career in tourism. These career moves facilitate upward movement in the industry and provide the opportunity for increasing skills and knowledge and gaining experience in sectors of the industry.

Embracing the notion of mentorship is clearly advantageous for those working in the industry. This mentorship may take the form of a supervisor-subordinate relationship as evident in many structured programs within organisations or may be less formal and encompass networking and other developmental relationships. The current study suggests while structured mentoring programs tended to be beneficial, networking relationships appear to offer unique developmental opportunities that should not be

overlooked or underestimated. These developmental relationships provide a forum for mutual exchange in which an individual can achieve expert feedback without a feeling of inequality that is frequently absent from traditional mentoring relationships. These developmental relationships may address the concerns of some relating to disclosing weaknesses and sharing information on the self. While acknowledging the negative mentorship outcomes, this study recognises the value of relationships that facilitate the sharing of information, provide encouragement, act as a sounding board and role model and expose the worker to opportunities.

7.12 Areas for further research

This thesis resulted in a model of influences on career in the Australian tourism industry. This model now provides a foundation for further research. A cross section of tourism workers in Australia was targeted in the current thesis. It would be useful to replicate this survey with other sectors of the tourism industry to allow a comparison of results that may further endorse education, mobility and mentoring as key influences in the Australian tourism industry. It would also be useful to explore influences on careers in tourism in other countries to establish if these influences are unique to the Australian tourism industry or are influential in the global industry. Would this model of influences on career development be transferable to other industries? More research is required in a controlled environment. It would be useful to replicate this study in another area of tourism with a known population to reinforce both the representativeness of the response demographics and the findings.

The current study also highlighted the need for further research into education, mobility and mentorship as career influences. It is clear that further studies

identifying the gap between the needs of industry and the outcomes of tourism courses are required if education providers aim to address skill shortages. Other questions pertaining to education relate to the lack of acceptance by industry of tourism courses and value of integrating internships into the education experience. As acknowledged previously, the education level of the participants in the current study appeared to be above what may have been expected. This may have been due to the use of an electronic survey or may have been due to the fact that career development was the underlying theme of the study and may have attracted responses from those employees with a career orientation. If a similar study was conducted on the tourism industry, it may provide further information on the education level of those developing careers in the industry.

Mobility issues have been explored in hospitality research. It would be useful to compare such results with issues of mobility in the tourism industry. What aspects, such as personality and demographic characteristics, influence an individual's adjustment when making the transition from a traditional to the more transient new career construct?

Questions regarding the mix of mentors, relationships within or outside the organisation or profession, the benefits of formal and informal relationships, and the mix of mentoring and developmental relationships need to be addressed. Within the new career construct, how do mentoring and other relationships develop across not only career stages, but multiple firms and boundaries?

7.13 Conclusion

In this thesis, the researcher has developed, tested and revised a model of influences on career development in the tourism industry. Education, mobility and mentoring were identified as key influences and the findings reinforce existing links between social demographics and motivation and career development. The findings suggest that career development strategies appear to be more opportunistic than carefully planned and that often the respondents changed strategies based on the degree of success in reaching career goals, or perceived need or because of personal and industry changes.

The three forms of knowing or career competencies discussed above are manifested in people's beliefs and identities (knowing why) knowledge and skills (knowing how) and network or relationships (knowing whom). The current study suggests that peer relationships may offer unique developmental opportunities that should not be overlooked or underestimated. They provide a forum for mutual exchange in which an individual can achieve a sense of expertise, equality and empathy that is frequently absent from traditional mentoring relationships.

In contrast to the traditional view of careers which is linear, static and rigid, the results of this study highlight the emerging nature of career paths as being 'multidirectional, dynamic and fluid' (Baruch, 2004, p. 59). The changes occurring in our organisations and careers are exciting and challenging. Clearly we have much to gain by expanding our conceptualisations of careers beyond the traditional models.

Careers in today's world are what you make them. The apparent boundaries to this department are also your platforms for further opportunity. Organise your employment around your professional and social networks, and use those networks as your link to the larger environment. Don't wait for formal training, but make sure the group of colleagues and collaborators you surround yourself with sustain new learning for you, and try to reciprocate for them. Transition to new ways is constant. Look after yourself, but don't be afraid to trust and to work to build trust around you (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996b).

This thesis provides stakeholders in the tourism industry with information on the influences on career development in the industry in Australia. Australian tourism careers appear to be substantially influenced by mentoring relationships, by education and training and by issues of mobility.

Appendix 1 – Questionnaire

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

1. Demographic Information - Section 1 of 7

The following questions seek information on your position and organisation. Please note that this information is confidential.

1. What is your highest level of educational qualification?

- vocational or trade
- bachelor degree
- post graduate
- other (please specify)

2. What type of job do you have (eg CEO, managing director, tour operator, education officer, administrative assistant etc)?

3. Are you

- employed by others
- self-employed
- contract worker
- volunteer
- other (please specify)

4. Please describe the type of organisation in which you work (eg government department, museum, hotel, airline, university, tourism market etc.)

5. How many years work experience do you have across the expanse of your career? If you have had several careers please list them and enter the approximate number of years you have been in each.

6. What is the size of your organisation?

- micro (less than 5 people)
- small (more than 5 but less than 20 people)
- medium (more than 20 but less than 200 people)
- large (more than 200 people)

7. In what industry do you work?

- cultural and recreational services
- education
- accommodation, cafes and restaurants
- transport and storage
- government, administration, or defence
- retail trade
- other (please specify)

8. What is your salary range?

$20,000-$30,000	$30,001-$40,000	$40,001-$50,000	$50,001-$60,000	$60,001-$70,000	Over $70,000

9. What is your age range?

15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-55	Over 55

10. What is your gender?

Male	Female

11. Do you describe your present job as

- part of a career
- just another job
- other (please specify)

Next >>

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

2. Career Development - Section 2 of 7

12. What factors have influenced your career? Name them and describe their impact.

<< Prev Next >>

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

3. Education - Section 3 of 7

This section explores the role education has played in your career development.

Some questions ask you to enter the extent to which you agree to a particular statement. Others require an open-ended answer.

13. Your educational qualifications have helped your career development.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
Ratings					

14. Do you intend to undertake any further formal education?

Yes No

15. If you were to undertake further formal education, in what discipline would you study? (click on arrow). If your choice is not on the list, please include it in the box below.

16. In what ways have your educational qualifications (or lack of) helped or hindered your career?

17. What factors (if any) have prevented you from from upgrading your educational qualifications? Name them and describe their impact.

18. On-the-job training has helped your career development.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
Ratings					

19. What type of on-the-job training has helped or hindered your career? (eg conferences, short courses etc.)

<< Prev **Next >>**

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

4. Career Moves - Section 4 of 7

This section seeks information relating to your career moves. Career moves refer to any change in geographical location, company, position, or industry relating to your career.

Some questions ask you to enter the extent to which you agree to a particular statement. Others require an open-ended answer.

20. Career moves have helped your career development.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
Ratings					

21. Approximately how many career moves have you made?

22. How many of your career moves were due to:

geographical relocation
change of Industry
change of Company
change of job
other (please specify)

23. Please comment on the ways in which career moves (any change or lack of change in geographical location, company, position or industry) have helped or hindered your career (eg family commitments, unwillingness to relocate, partner's employment or a lifestyle change)

24. What factors (if any) have prevented you from taking full advantage of career moves? Name them and describe their impact.

<< Prev Next >>

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

5. Mentoring - Section 5 of 7

This section seeks information on the role mentoring has played in your career. Mentoring can involve either one person or a network of people providing career support to another.

Some questions ask you to enter the extent to which you agree to a particular statement. Others require an open-ended answer.

25. Mentoring has helped your career development.

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
Ratings					

26. If you experienced a structured/formal mentorship program, was this run by

- the Organisation
- the Industry
- not applicable
- other (please specify)

27. If you experienced a voluntary/informal mentorship program was it

- social
- collegial/professional
- network
- not applicable
- other (please specify)

28. Please comment on the ways in which mentoring has helped or hindered your career (if any). Remember, that mentoring may involve one or more persons.

29. What factors (if any) have prevented you from taking full advantage of mentoring programs? Name them and describe their impact.

30. If you have not experienced mentoring before, would you have benefited from a mentoring program? Why? Why not?

<< Prev Next >>

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

6. Career development strategies - Section 6 of 7

This section seeks information relating to the ways in which you have deliberately developed your career. A career development strategy involves a series of deliberate decisions concerning your career.

Some questions ask you to indicate a particular response. Others require an open-ended answer.

31. Has your career developed as a result of:

- planning (eg carefully planning your career moves)
- opportunities available (eg unexpected job offers)
- a mix of both strategies
- other (please specify)

32. Do you have a career development strategy?

yes no

33. If you have a career development strategy, has it changed during the course of your career and in what ways? (eg due to success or lack of success, personal circumstances etc)

34. Please comment on the ways in which your particular career development strategies have helped or hindered your career (if any).

<< Prev Next >>

Survey-Careers Exit this survey >>

7. Additional information - Section 7 of 7

This is your opportunity to expand on other factors relating to your career.

Some questions ask you to indicate a particular type of response. Others require an open-ended answer.

35. Please expand on any additional factors that have influenced your career. Name them and describe their impact.

36. Would you be prepared to be interviewed?

Yes No

37. If you are prepared to be interviewed, how is the best way to contact you.

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire. If you have any questions or would like feedback on this research please contact me at helen.ayres@canberra.edu.au

<< Prev **Submit Questionnaire>>**

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