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**ATTITUDES IN WALES TOWARDS CAREERS IN TOURISM AND
HOSPITALITY**

CLAIRE LOUISE HAVEN
BSc. (Hons), MSc., PGCE

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Welsh School of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Management
University of Wales Institute, Cardiff
Colchester Avenue
CARDIFF, UK
CF23 9XR

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ABSTRACT

This research addresses the problem of attracting suitably qualified people into the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales. Investment in Welsh tourism and hospitality projects is constantly increasing. As a result, a substantial increase in the demand for a quality workforce has been predicted, with forecasts suggesting that employment will increase to such an extent that by 2003, an extra 10,000 workers will be required (DTZ Pida Consulting, 1998). In order to address this problem, the research concentrates upon investigating attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales, focusing on Year 10, 11 and 12 school students as potential employees of the industries. Hence, the social pressures and processes that school students are exposed to when forming career decisions are investigated. Via a literature review, the key themes of career theory and career decision-making are highlighted, together with an examination of the nature of the industries, which serves to contextualise the inherent problems of attracting a suitably qualified workforce. Attitudinal literature is also considered. An initial assumption of this research was that as a result of the statutory requirement for schools to provide careers education and guidance (1997 Education Act), career professionals would have the greatest influence in the career decision-making process of school students. A series of exploratory qualitative research methods are used to explore this assumption, investigate the social influences school students in Wales are exposed to when forming their career decisions and to establish the current attitudes of school students and those that influence them towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries. This qualitative approach is used to assist the design of a quantitative methodology to evaluate parental attitudes towards careers within tourism and hospitality. Statistical analysis of the survey data ($n = 463$) is integrated within the findings of the qualitative phase, to produce six thematic strands of analysis: provision and delivery of careers education; shaping attitudes towards careers; important questions about careers and the formation of attitudes towards tourism and hospitality; exploring specific attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and promoting career opportunities in the tourism and hospitality industries. The research concluded that parents are the greatest influencers, but the influence of formal career education and guidance should not be dismissed. However, the most influential groups are not necessarily the best informed. Therefore, the industries cannot rely on these groups to accurately inform school students and policy initiatives aimed at promoting careers within tourism and hospitality must consider theories relating to socialisation, habitus, the theory of planned behaviour and latitudes of acceptance or rejection in order to be effective.

ATTITUDES IN WALES TOWARDS CAREERS WITHIN THE TOURISM & HOSPITALITY INDUSTRIES

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Contextualising the Research Project

Profound changes in the industrial structure of the United Kingdom have created a national economy that is service-dominated. Killeen (1996a) asserted that, in terms of absolute numbers employed, primary industries have long been in decline, whilst the transition towards service employment has been evident since the mid-nineteenth century, “in the sense that its growth rates exceeded those of other sectors” (Bell, 1974 cited in Killeen, 1996a:5). The expansion of service-based employment is facilitated by the diversity of the sector, which unlike primary and manufacturing industries makes it heterogeneous.

In 1996, ECOTEC Research and Consulting Limited analysed employment changes across industrial South Wales. This labour market assessment identified that approximately 90,000 jobs had been lost across industrial South Wales between 1981 and 1993. The job losses were prevalent in traditional sectors such as agriculture, energy and water (including mining and quarrying), and manufacturing and construction. To some extent, this decline was counteracted by the growth of services. In particular, banking, finance and insurance services, together with distribution, hotels and catering (incorporating retail). ‘Pathway to prosperity - a new economic agenda for Wales’ (Welsh Office, 1998) identified the tourism and hospitality industries as prominent sectors of the Welsh economy. Figures for 1996 indicated that distribution, hotel and catering industries contributed 13% to the gross domestic product (GDP) of Wales, whilst it was estimated that tourism contributed 7% of GDP. This figure is estimated to increase to 8% of GDP by 2010 (Future Skills Wales, 2000).

In terms of measuring tourism employment, there is no official definition of the tourism industry, as it spans several industrial sectors in the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC). Sectors within which tourists spend money and hence support employment include Hotels and Catering, Transport, Retail, Distribution and Recreation. The SIC codes used by the Department for Education and Employment to define the tourism industry provide broad definitions of tourism and leisure activity. This project defines hospitality and tourism employees as falling mainly into Sector 92. SIC92 is now used as the Standard Industrial Classification and includes a number of sub-categories:

- SIC 551: Hotels
- SIC 552: Camping sites and other provision of short stay accommodation
- SIC 553: Restaurants
- SIC 554: Bars
- SIC 633: Travel Agents. Activities of travel agencies and tour operators; tourist assistance activities not elsewhere classified
- SIC 925: Library, archives, museums and other cultural activities
- SIC 926: Sporting activities
- SIC 927: Other recreational activities

Paradoxically, the factors that make tourism and hospitality so beneficial to the economy also make it difficult to measure. Official figures tend to show direct employment in specific sectors of the economy, which are most easily associated with tourism. As a result, they often exclude self-employed people and indirect and induced jobs in activities associated with tourism and hospitality. Official figures from the Annual Employment Survey (ONS, 1998) indicated that in Wales 708, 800 people were employed within the service sector, of which 291,900 were male and 416,300 were

female. Within the scope of the service sector, 57,100 people were classed as being employed in the hotel and restaurant category, with 21,600 males and 35,400 females.

However, DTZ Pida Consulting (1998) presented a wider picture, incorporating hospitality and leisure within the tourism industry. They suggested that 80,600 workers in Wales were directly dependent upon tourism for their employment. Of those, 69,600 were employees in employment including part-time (35,000) and seasonal workers (6,300) and approximately 11,000 self-employed workers. Within these figures, 42% of tourism employment was found to be located in South Wales, 29% in North Wales, 24% in West Wales and only 5% in Mid Wales. These figures illustrate not only the disparities in population distribution in Wales, but also the low percentage of employment in Mid Wales, which may be a result of high proportions of micro-businesses which are not statistically recorded or that the tourism operation is a secondary function of the core business.

In addition, 72% of all personnel in the tourism industry in Wales were classed as being employed in the hospitality sector, with 27% of those employed in accommodation operations and 45% in restaurants and bars. Part-time workers were found to account for 51% of employees in the tourism sector, with 74% of these part-time employees in the hotels, bars and restaurants sectors. Wales was also found to have a significantly higher proportion of self-employment in the tourism sector than the national average for Great Britain. To a certain extent, this can be explained by the fact that Wales has a high number of small establishments, many of which employ less than 10 employees (DTZ Pida Consulting, 1998). This is supported by more recent research, conducted by Tourism South and West Wales (TSWW), which found that 71% of tourism industry businesses in Wales employed under 10 members of staff (TSWW, 2000).

Investment in tourism and hospitality projects in Wales is constantly increasing. As a result, there will be a substantial increase in the demand for a quality workforce. Forecasts suggested that employment in the sector will increase to such an extent that by 2003, an extra 10,000 workers will be required (DTZ Piedad Consulting, 1998). Stevens and Associates (1998) forecasted a demand for full-time equivalent jobs, of all skills and levels, of approximately 3,600 in the Cardiff and Vale of Glamorgan area alone, although this figure was later reduced to a figure of 3,245 full-time equivalent jobs (Stevens and Associates, 2000). The inherent problems of attracting a suitably qualified workforce in order to meet these demands are likely to be exacerbated, as labour demand is exhausting labour supply.

Previous research into employment and training in the tourism sector in Wales (DTZ Piedad Consulting, 1998) identified a number of issues pertinent to Wales. Remuneration is traditionally low in the industry, which often leads to high turnover and a limited labour catchment area, which in turn undermines the ability to attract and retain quality workers. Displacement is also an issue with employees being attracted away from tourism and hospitality into other sectors, as well as new facilities recruiting from existing labour supplies (DTZ Piedad Consulting, 1998). A recent tourism industry survey (TSWW, 2000) identified that 52% of respondents believed that they had experienced recruitment difficulties due to a lack of qualified people, whilst 43% felt that their recruitment difficulties were due to negative image of the industry. Young people in particular were found to have negative perceptions of the tourism and hospitality industries (DTZ Piedad Consulting, 1998). Many young people experience the industry through temporary or holiday jobs, or work experience placements, which are typically quite restricted in their scope and can distort perceptions of the industry.

The employment profile of the hospitality industry in particular is such that it employs a disproportionate number of young people, with 40% below the age of 25 and the number of people working in hospitality below the age of 20 more than four times the national average (HtF, 2001). DTZ Pidea Consulting (1998) suggested that negative perceptions may be initiated at the school and career service level, as they may not promote a very positive image of tourism employment, which may be linked to the school and career service systems perception of service industries. Baum (1995) also discussed the portrayal of the tourism and hospitality industries as a young person's industry, in order to create an image of energy and enjoyment, especially within organisations attempting to match staff image with their client profile. Prior studies e.g.: Purcell and Quinn (1996) found that many higher education students possessing qualifications within tourism and hospitality do not obtain employment in these sectors. Whilst a certain level of leakage can be expected, there is a concern that this may be higher than normal due to students' negative perceptions of the industry.

In addition, negative cultural perceptions of the industry were identified in some areas of Wales. These negative cultural perceptions could be attributed to the varying nature, structure and scale of the tourism industry in the different regions of Wales. The short tourism season is a defining characteristic of tourism in Wales and seasonality is a particular issue in parts of West Wales and North Wales, which are dominated by coastal tourism. Additionally, although some rural areas, such as parts of Mid Wales, possess an established tourism sector, it is geographically dispersed, characterised by small-scale operations and lacks the tourism support infrastructure of more urbanised areas. As a result, career progression may be restricted and the career opportunities obscured. The requirement for flexible labour sources to address the seasonality issue creates a lack of long-term attachment, which can act as a disincentive to train,

subsequently reducing the level and quality of skills within the industry (DTZ Pidea Consulting, 1998). Sensitive cultural issues surrounding perceptions of tourism were also identified, with tourism activity being seen to undermine the 'welshness' of local communities in some areas of Wales, which can deter local people from entering the industry. Such issues hamper the development of a suitably skilled workforce.

Access into the industries is relatively easy, with few demands for specific qualifications. 'Tourism – competing with the best' (Department of National Heritage, 1996) stated that the fact that no qualifications are required to do a particular occupation may give that occupation an image of low status. Comparisons between the qualification attainment levels of tourism and hospitality employees and other employees within the UK demonstrated that the proportion of staff within the tourism and hospitality industries with no qualification was above the average. This does not appear to be the case in other European countries. A benchmarking study (CBI, 1995) discovered that a higher proportion of staff had vocational qualifications in France and Germany than in Britain. Similarly, Baum (1995) emphasised the tradition placed upon training and education in relation to tourism and hospitality employment within other countries in Europe. As a result, more able young people in Wales who have the potential to attain qualifications are less likely to be attracted to employment within the tourism and hospitality industries.

The structure of the population is changing, with fewer young people entering the labour force, due to a reduction in the number of births. This is creating an ageing labour force, which conflicts with the traditional pattern of employing younger people and therefore, may restrict the potential labour supply for the tourism and hospitality industries. Changing trends within full-time education compounds changes in the

industrial structure and demographics of the workforce. Career professionals across Wales involved within this research project reported higher numbers of school students remaining in full-time education beyond Year 11. The increased time duration of the transition from school to work is a trend that is highlighted in a survey of pupil destinations from schools in Wales. Year 11 pupils from schools in Wales continuing in full-time education stood at 71.4% in 1998 (total number in cohort 35651 pupils), compared to 69.9% in 1995 (total number in cohort 35520 pupils). The gender split for 1998 was 66.6% male and 76.3% female, compared to the gender split for 1995, which was 64.7% male and 75.6% female (CSAW, 1999). The high number of Year 11 pupils remaining in full-time education was a trend also identified in other regions of the UK (Lifetime Careers, 2000). They found that 71% of students surveyed expected to remain in full-time education, although this was only actually realised by 63% of school students.

Although there has been a long-term focus towards increasing educational participation, the transition towards massification in post-16 education creates many issues which are likely to have an impact upon the future tourism and hospitality workforce. Increased educational participation creates skill shortages within different occupational areas than previously and is linked to structural change within industrial sectors. Higher levels of educational attainment are likely to create a more highly qualified workforce with career aspirations that exclude industries perceived to be low or un-skilled, such as the tourism and hospitality industries. Baum (1995) asserted that the participation rate in post-compulsory education has implications for the status of tourism and hospitality employment. Specifically, in cases where participation is high the demand for low skills, which is prevalent within the industries, may not be met as a significant proportion of young people will be over-qualified for such work. Conversely, where

participation rates are low, higher proportions of school students are likely to consider the tourism and hospitality industries as viable career options. This supported the earlier work of Pizam (1982) who stated that growing participation rates in higher education produces an educated workforce that are reluctant to consider employment in semi and un-skilled career areas. The absence of structured routes into managerial occupations within the tourism and hospitality industries only serves to compound this problem.

The Department of National Heritage (1996) established that a self-perpetuating vicious circle existed in relation to the tourism and hospitality labour market.

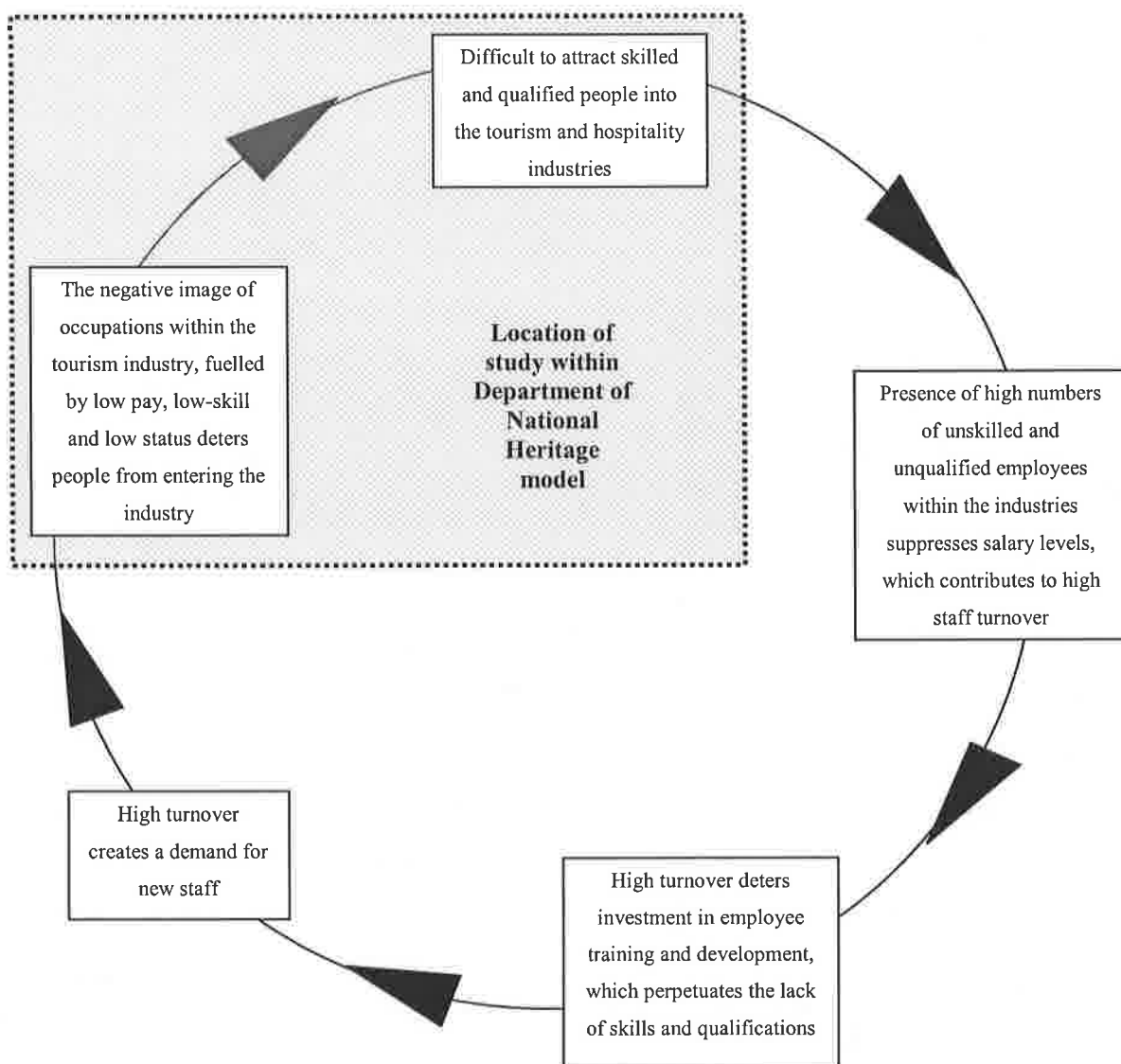


Diagram 1: Adapted from Department of National Heritage, 1996:15

In relation to this model, the research project will concentrate upon investigating attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales, specifically the negative image issue. Furthermore, it will develop this issue, to establish how influencers involved in career education and guidance and the career decision-making process convey images to school students as potential employees.

1.2 Position of the Researcher within the Research Process

The research is located within the Welsh School of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Management, which has an obvious interest in promoting careers within the tourism and hospitality industries in terms of maintaining and developing the delivery of tourism and hospitality programmes. Initially, key stakeholders, such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru, whose primary objective it is to promote tourism and hospitality as a first-choice career, also helped to shape the research project. However, they have acknowledged the promotion of tourism and hospitality careers as first-choice careers to be problematic, due to the attitudes of influencers and misperceptions of the tourism and hospitality industries. Having acquired industrial experience and education within the field of tourism and hospitality, the researcher adopted an objective stance in light of the subjectivity surrounding this issue of attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality. The aim and objectives of the research are formulated around this objectivity in order to examine the subjectivity of various groups of influencers. As a result, the research methods are shaped by the researcher's decision to remain objective. The initial research phase involves the acquisition of qualitative data from various groups of influencers, which is subsequently used to create a questionnaire, in order to obtain quantitative data from a specific group of influencers.

1.3 Policy Initiatives: The Role of Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru

In 1997, the Hospitality Training Foundation (HtF) won substantial funding under the Government's Sector Challenge competition to take forward work to raise the profile and image of the industry and help tackle the industry's skills shortages and recruitment challenges. As a result, Springboard UK Limited was set up to promote hospitality, tourism and leisure as a first choice career throughout the UK. Springboard UK Limited operates on three levels:

- ◆ To promote the industry as an exciting environment in which to work and one that offers real career prospects
- ◆ To support potential employees by offering information and specialist advice on career opportunities in tourism and hospitality
- ◆ To work with employers to help them attract the best possible people into rewarding long-term careers and to share a commitment with them to improve standards in recruitment, training and employment.

Springboard Wales was launched in Cardiff in July 1998 to spread the Springboard message throughout Wales and deal with specific regional issues. Satellite centres have since been opened in Llandudno, Tenby and Welshpool. Springboard UK Limited and Springboard Wales use a range of campaigns to communicate their message and promote tourism and hospitality as first choice careers. Examples include:

- ◆ *"Let's Make it First Choice"*. A high profile campaign to promote career opportunities in the tourism and hospitality industry through interactive events to young people, teachers, parents and other career influencers.
- ◆ *"Mind Blowing"* Careers Events at prestigious venues hosted by Springboard, such as the one held at Cardiff International Airport in March 2000. This Springboard Wales event had a target audience of students from Years 9 and

upward from schools in the South Wales area. The purpose of the event was to provide a fun and informative overview of hospitality, tourism and leisure to encourage young people to consider following a career in the industry.

- ◆ “*Back to Work*” campaign. This involves working with returners to work, the unemployed and lone parents through interactive and informative events.
- ◆ “*Behind the Scenes*” programme. This scheme has been developed with the Education Business Partnership, Hotel and Catering Training Company (HCTC) and the support of industry employers. The “Behind the Scenes” programme targets students who are following a hospitality related course and invites them to spend a half-day in the hospitality industry over a five week period.
- ◆ GCSE Catering Project. In conjunction with the careers service company responsible for Cardiff and the Vale of Glamorgan and an industry champion, Springboard Wales arrange in-school visits. The visit is tailored to suit the particular catering group and the students have the chance to ask questions in an informal setting.
- ◆ “*Influencing the Influencers*” campaign, which involves working with the industry, career professionals, teachers, the media and any other groups who can help to promote a positive image of the tourism and hospitality industry.

1.4 Previous research into attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality

Research into the attitudes of young people, in particular school students, towards careers in tourism and hospitality has been extremely limited (Airey and Frontistis, 1995; Getz, 1994). Getz (1994) carried out longitudinal research on high-school students work experiences, perceptions and attitudes towards careers in hospitality and tourism that involved detailed interviews and a survey with the local industry and two surveys of school students. Other studies have focused upon college students (Barron,

1997; Kusluvan and Kusluvan 2000); ethnic minorities (Cothran and Combrink, 1999); and school leavers (Ross, 1991a; 1991b; 1992a; 1992b; 1994) who all gathered quantitative data, whilst other research tends to concentrate on training and other human resource issues, such as labour turnover and employees who are 'in the system', rather than potential employees (HCTC, 1994). Ross (1994:62) forcefully makes the point that:

"..relatively little research has thus far been conducted on the perceptions and intentions of those individuals who are likely to enter the tourism/hospitality workforce".

This is surprising given the fact that the quality of the workforce is paramount to the successful development of tourism and hospitality projects.

In 1995, Airey and Frontistis carried out research about attitudes towards careers in tourism using interviews with industry employers; focus groups with pupils, parents and teachers; and a questionnaire with pupils. In this comparative study between Greece and the United Kingdom, primarily, Athens and Nottingham, the research found that the UK pupils were more hostile than their Greek counterparts in their attitudes towards tourism as a career option. Variations were also found in the pupils' perceptions of what constitutes a tourism job. The researchers felt that the low levels of identification in both countries of many jobs in the accommodation and catering sector as being part of tourism was surprising and contained important messages for the provision of careers information about tourism. The research concluded by stating that:

"...at a time when tourism is held as one of the world's major industries and sources of employment it would be timely to know more about what potential recruits think about it, in order to provide a basis for attracting the best possible workforce." (Airey & Frontistis, 1997:157).

This research directly addresses this deficiency on a Wales-wide basis. The initial assumptions made were that attitudes towards the tourism and hospitality industries

were negative and that there were specific groups of influencers in the career decision-making process, career professionals being the most important, due to the statutory requirement to provide careers education and guidance in secondary schools as a result of the 1997 Education Act.

1.5 Aim of the Research

To critically investigate both the social pressures and social processes school students are exposed to when forming career decisions and to analyse how and why these social pressures and processes influence the career decisions made by school students, as potential employees of the tourism and hospitality industries.

1.6 Objectives

In order to achieve the aim of this research project, the following objectives will be fulfilled:

1. To contribute to debates relating to the process of socialisation, in addition to social policy debates surrounding career education and guidance advice, and career decision-making processes
2. To contextualise the economic and social factors responsible for gaps between labour supply and demand within the tourism and hospitality industries by examining the nature of the tourism and hospitality industries
3. To investigate the social influences school students in Wales are exposed to when forming their career decisions and to establish the current attitudes of school students towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries
4. To establish and evaluate the current attitudes of those that influence school students in the career decision-making process towards careers in general and more specifically careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and to analyse how

these affect the career decisions of school students with regards to tourism and hospitality as potential career areas

5. To investigate and make observations as to how the research findings can be used to evaluate policy initiatives in tourism and hospitality employment operating within Wales, such as the work of Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru.

1.7 Outcomes of the Research Project

Through the first systematic, all-Wales study of attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality, this project will identify how the career decisions of potential employees are predisposed by determining the attitudes of school students and their influencers towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries. This will be achieved by establishing the social pressures and processes potential employees are exposed to, in addition to perceptions of career opportunities offered by the tourism and hospitality industries and an examination of how influencers contribute to the career decisions of potential tourism and hospitality employees. Furthermore, comparisons will be made between the data obtained from school students and that acquired from their influencers, in order to inform future recruitment policies for the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales. This research project will extend the field of interdisciplinary tourism and hospitality research through the application of relevant and novel sociological and psychological concepts.

1.8 Structure of the Thesis

This initial chapter which contextualises the research is followed by a literature review that comprises three distinct sections. The first section presents a review of career

literature, in which definitions of career are identified, together with an examination of the foundations of career theory. The work also analyses theoretical perspectives regarding careers and career paths. Diversification in the focus of career paths is discussed with specific reference to the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales. Theoretical perspectives regarding careers and social class are explored and reference made to specific case studies that illustrate social class perspectives, social stratification and subcultures. Transformations in the traditional British social class structure are also discussed. The agents of socialisation are outlined, in addition to an analysis of the implications of socialisation and habitus upon career aspirations and decisions, together with an examination of attitudes towards qualifications. Theories of career choice and career decision-making are identified and discussed, including trait and developmental models, with reference to static personality difference perspectives. Finally, the role and historical development of careers education and guidance in schools is explored.

The second section of the literature review provides an overview of the ongoing polemics regarding definitions of tourism and hospitality. This serves to highlight the confusion and lack of comprehension about potential careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and explains why those in the external environment often do not appreciate the opportunities that exist within the industries. Literature, which debates the concept of whether tourism and hospitality are separate industries or part of the same, is addressed in order to elucidate why some of the definition issues exist. The characteristics of tourism and hospitality employment are identified, followed by a discussion of the service or servility dilemma. The service or servility debate draws upon the historical background and definition issues surrounding tourism and hospitality, integrated with sectoral employment characteristics. This discussion of the

literature helps to illustrate why careers within the tourism and hospitality industries may not be perceived to be first-choice careers by potential employees.

Finally, the third section of literature addresses the formation of attitudes and definitions, which incorporates the three components of attitudes: affective, cognitive and behavioural. Theories regarding the relationship between attitudes and behaviour are also explored, with reference to the theories of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1974; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980) and planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden 1986). The implications of cognitive dissonance and attitude change are outlined, which include consideration of the variables involved in persuasive communication: source, message, recipient and situational variables. Previous research into attitudes towards employment within the tourism and hospitality industries is then examined.

The literature discussion is succeeded by the research methodology chapter, within which the specific research methods adopted for this project are identified and justified, together with an examination of the interdisciplinary nature of tourism and hospitality research and consideration of the debates surrounding qualitative and quantitative research methodologies.

The qualitative and quantitative results are integrated within the discussion chapter, which is followed by an overview chapter. The overview chapter emphasises the significant findings of the research, with regards to issues that need to be addressed by the tourism and hospitality industries and ways in which the industries can be promoted to school students, and identifies specific recommendations in the light of these findings. The concluding chapter re-visits the initial objectives with reference to the information discovered during the course of the research process and establishes the

outcomes of the research, in terms of the contribution of the project to current literature and practice. Finally, it provides suggestions for future research within this area.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

SECTION 1: REVIEW OF CAREER LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This section presents a review of career literature, in which definitions of career are identified, together with an examination of the foundations of career theory. The work also analyses theoretical perspectives regarding careers and career paths. Diversification in the focus of career paths is discussed with specific reference to the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales. Theoretical perspectives regarding careers and social class are explored and reference made to specific case studies that illustrate social class perspectives, social stratification and subcultures. Transformations in the traditional British social class structure are also discussed. The agents of socialisation are outlined, in addition to an analysis of the implications of socialisation and habitus upon career aspirations and decisions, together with an examination of attitudes towards qualifications. Theories of career choice and career decision-making are identified and discussed, including trait and developmental models, with reference to static personality difference perspectives. Finally, the role and historical development of careers education and guidance in schools is explored. This work highlights a number of gaps in career literature. Firstly, it is clear that much of the literature is very dated, particularly work regarding career theory and socialisation, hence portraying a male bias. Secondly, career literature and research specific to the tourism and hospitality industries is extremely limited. As a result, this section will attempt to apply existing literature to the current climate and more specifically to the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales.

2.1.1 Foundations of Career Theory

The term 'career' implies a route that an individual is following, which has both

direction and purpose. Adamson *et al.* (1998:253) suggested that a key issue in classical definitions of career is the recognition of what Hughes (1937) termed the 'moving perspective of time'. The career 'journey' ceases to have meaning if order and logic is not applied to work experiences and linkages between successive positions occupied over time. Within the context of organisational careers, the career concept implies a relationship over time between the employer and employee. It suggests a planned development, often of a hierarchical nature and a logical sequence of work-related events and experiences.

However, it has been asserted (Adamson *et al.*, 1998) that the concept of career is much broader than the exclusively work-related definitions that tend to dominate. Arthur *et al.* (1989) provided the following examples of social science viewpoints on the career concept. From an economic perspective the career may be seen as a response to market forces, emphasising the distribution of employment opportunities and as the vehicle by which human capital is accrued through a lifetime of education and experience (Becker, 1975; Doeringer and Piore, 1971). From a political science perspective, the career may be viewed as the sequence of efforts to maximise self-interest, through successive endeavours to gain power, status or influence (Kaufman, 1960). From a historical perspective, the career may be seen as a correlate of historical outcomes, considering the reciprocal influence of prominent people and period events upon each other (Schesinger, 1965). Finally, from a geographical perspective, the career may be viewed as a response to geographic circumstances, focusing on variables such as the availability of raw materials or a population for work (Van Maanen, 1982).

Different disciplines have applied different definitions to the concept of career. Traditionally, sociologists have regarded the career as the unfolding of social roles,

emphasising individuals' contributions of the maintenance of social order (Van Maanen and Barley, 1984) and of the career as social mobility, with the series of positions held over time as indicators of social position (Blau and Duncan, 1967; Featherman and Hauser, 1978). Comparatively, psychologists have viewed the career in one of three ways: firstly, as a vocation, focusing on personality-occupation matching, in ways which are mutually beneficial to individuals and organisations (Holland, 1985, 1997); secondly, as a vehicle for self-realisation and individual growth (Shepard, 1984); and thirdly, as a component of the individual life structure (Levinson, 1984).

Adamson *et al.* (1998) outlined developments in career theory, which suggest that prior to the mid-1970s psychologists and sociologists were addressing the notion of career from traditional disciplinary perspectives, trying to predict the suitability of the individual to specific work roles, and to explain the dynamic social exchange processes defined by individual-organisational interaction. In the late 1970s a concerted effort began towards the development of career theory as an independent discipline. In the period since the mid-1980s, career writers have expanded their interests beyond the traditional perspectives of psychology and sociology, and have adopted a multi-disciplinary orientation. This approach challenges many traditional sociological concepts, such as that of Durkheim (1897), who cautioned that sociological accounts of social facts must incorporate only sociological concepts and facts and that the incorporation of psychological facts in sociological explanation is logically unsound (Daws, 1981). However, Roberts (1981) supports the multi-disciplinary orientation, as he argued that modern psychology and sociology cannot be as autonomous as Durkheim (1897) recommended. Furthermore, Law (1996a) emphasised that career theories are not unitary, but consist of a range of theories offering a variety of configurations relating to different aspects of work, role and self.

Regardless of the differences between disciplinary perspectives, the majority of definitions of career encompass a number of commonly identifiable themes (Adamson *et al.*, 1998:254):

- a) the individual and the central importance of the psychological constructs of self-concept and self-esteem
- b) the organisation as a social institution
- c) the differing needs of the individual and the organisation
- d) psychological and sociological processes of person-organisation interaction
- e) the influence of the external environment, including socio-economic and political reality, the impress of culture, history and prevailing social values
- f) the perspective of time

Prior to the work of Ginzberg *et al.* (1951) little attempt had been made to produce a theory of vocational development. They asserted that occupational or career choice affects both the individual and society, as numerous people are involved in every decision relating to career choice and determined three approaches that were adopted to explain the process of occupational choice. The first approach was termed the 'accident theory', as it was thought that some individuals chose their occupation accidentally. This suggested that the occupational choice of an individual could be determined by an unforeseen exposure to a powerful stimulus. However, it failed to explain why one occupation might be chosen above all others. The second approach became known as the 'impulse theory', which was stressed by psychoanalysts, as they believed that occupational choice could only be understood through a theory that explained the individual's behaviour primarily in terms of unconscious forces. This theory focused on internal forces and completely ignored external factors. Yet, although individual cases of impulse and occupational choice may exist, it was felt that a connection could not be

made in order to form a general theory. The third approach comprised a group of implicit models concerned with matching opportunities in the labour market with individual strengths and weaknesses and was termed the 'talent-matching theory'. This approach was the most widely used in terms of career guidance, nevertheless, it failed to appreciate the developmental nature of occupational choice (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951; Hayes and Hopson, 1971).

2.1.2 Career Theory

Hall (1976:4) defined a career as:

“the individually perceived sequence of attitudes and behaviours associated with work-related experiences and activities over the span of the person's life”.

Although countless other definitions of career have been suggested, one of the most appropriate is that of Greenhaus and Callanan (1994 cited in Arnold *et al.*, 1995:329), who stated that: “a career is the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life.” This definition has several attributes. Firstly, a career concentrates on the *pattern* of experiences over long periods of time, such as their stability and transition. Secondly, the inclusion of *experiences* emphasizes that careers are subjective as well as objective. A person's definition of success in his or her own career may differ from an 'objective' assessment of success. Finally, careers are not confined to professional and managerial occupations, or to 'conventional' career paths involving increasing seniority within a single occupation or organisation.

Driver (1982) defined four specific types of career paths:

1. **Steady state:** a career choice represents a lifetime's commitment to an occupation.
2. **Linear:** the person achieves a series of promotions in one particular occupation.
3. **Spiral:** the person remains in an occupation for 7-10 years and then chooses another

occupation, which builds upon past skills and experience.

4. **Transitory:** the choice of career changes frequently, with variation being the main motivation

In later research Driver (1988) asserted that the focus of career paths is shifting, from one career to several careers during a lifetime, with the emphasis on accomplishment rather than advancement, whereby a person's success is determined by what they contribute to their job, not how many promotions they attain. He suggested that demographic factors are responsible for this shift. The post-war 'baby boom' generation has reached middle age and relatively senior positions at work therefore, younger generations that conform to the linear career concept are confronted by a lack of promotional opportunities. He implied that the pace of societal and technological change tends to favour the spiral and transitory career concepts, which have not historically been accepted as normal or legitimate career patterns.

Killeen (1996a:9) also cited changing demographics as a key influential factor in contemporary careers:

"In the late nineteenth century, the UK population contained more than four times as many people aged 15-19 than were aged 55-59. In the early 1990s, their numbers were nearly equal. A century ago, more than a third of the labour force was under 20 years of age; this figure is now around 7 per cent and falling..... The workforce is not merely getting older, it is also being compressed into a somewhat narrower age-band and, within that band, is displaying a somewhat flatter age-profile. This poses a long-term challenge to the maintenance of a pyramidal, seniority-based system of work organisation. It may also be a stimulus to mid-career change..."

Arthur *et al* (1999:8) delved deeper in order to elucidate the changes associated with the concept of the 'career'. They discussed the developments that occurred as a result of the transformation from an agricultural to an industrial society, which:

“brought in the factory, with its permanent, centrally defined, and tightly controlled work arrangements in government, the military, and the church gave rise to relatively stable bureaucracies in which expertise tended to be company-specific, and was hoarded in permanent jobs and hierarchical sequences of jobs which were seen as firmly under the employer’s control.... The efficient specialisation of work functions in the bureaucracy encouraged individuals to accumulate finely tuned but narrow skills, and to progress in their careers along narrow paths prescribed by professional and trade institutions. Later initiatives, responding to the depression of the 1930s and the aftermath of World War II, sought to reinforce this image of employment and career stability..... The idealised company was a large, stable, hierarchical pyramid..”

Lankard Brown (1996) identified change in the workplace as affecting careers and career development. She discussed the impact of mergers, acquisitions and downsizing upon employment patterns and career directions, suggesting that individuals should not consider spending their entire careers in one organisation, but recognise the temporary nature of all jobs and prepare themselves for refined career paths. Writers such as Inkson and Coe (1993) and Nicholson and West (1988) also supported this argument. They asserted the fact that career paths have become increasingly obscured due to the ‘flattening’ of organisational hierarchies, which has reduced or eliminated entire levels of management. Additionally, Handy (1989) discussed the emergence of the ‘portfolio worker’ and ‘portfolio career’. This is based on the belief that as a result of changes in the workplace, individuals would maintain portfolios of their skills, abilities and achievements with which they obtain temporary assignments in a variety of organisations, rather than securing permanent jobs.

Wijers and Meijers (1996:186) further illustrated changes to the traditional career path:

“..Individuals are often confronted with complex career problems...many are forced to review their career several times in the course of their working lives. Two or three decades ago this type of career problem scarcely existed.”

More recent research exemplified that typical job moves are non-linear. Individuals were found to make lateral, diagonal, or apparent downward shifts to adapt to changing

situations. Their research identified that individuals:

“..‘cycle’ around activities without apparent progression, or ‘spiral’ around different activities so that some progression is apparent in terms of personal fulfilment, learning or earnings” (Arthur *et al.*, 1999:35)

Thus traditional definitions of career paths no longer seem appropriate to contemporary organisational career systems.

Similar problems concerning career paths can be distinguished within the hospitality and tourism industries in Wales, a sector that is dominated by small firms. Approximately 95% of businesses in this sector in Wales employ less than 25 people, who between them employ 65% of all employees in the tourism sector in Wales (DTZ Prieda Consulting, 1998). In addition, self-employment features prominently in the hospitality and tourism industries in Wales. These are important considerations because small firms are less likely than national and international companies to provide structured career development. Hence, career paths are likely to be restricted due to lack of promotional opportunities and the nature of the hospitality and tourism industries in Wales. A comparable situation has been identified in Hawaii, where career advancement opportunities in the tourism industry are extremely limited. It has been suggested that an important factor is that the corporate headquarters of major firms are located elsewhere, leaving only operational divisions or small businesses comprising the majority of employers in Hawaii (Choy, 1995).

Keep and Mayhew (1999) asserted that poor or non-existent career structures are a general characteristic of the tourism and hospitality industries. They found that the general absence of well defined career management and development systems created a situation where some of the better able and qualified employees left the sector in search

of opportunities in other sectors where career progression routes are clearly structured. These findings correspond with research undertaken by the Berkley Scott Group (1998), which identified that a lack of career progression was the main reason why people in catering and hospitality left their jobs. Of the 381 respondents, 36% cited lack of career opportunities as the main reason for leaving their last job, with only 5% citing remuneration as the main reason for leaving, indicating that money is not a major deciding factor. This is an intriguing finding as the tourism and hospitality industries often quote low pay as a reason for recruitment and retention problems, whilst this study suggested that employees are more concerned with the long-term benefits and opportunities rather than the short-term gains. The results also distinguished three important factors that influence decisions to accept a new job: company culture, career prospects and salary. These factors scored in excess of any other motivating factors, which included location, environment and level of autonomy (Berkley Scott Group, 1998).

Hall (1987) stressed the critical importance of the availability of future job opportunities and career paths that might be available when individuals contemplate career choices. Furthermore, an appropriate sequence or progression of jobs can have a powerful effect upon the outcome of an individuals career (Wellbank *et al.*, 1978). Hence, it is apparent that employees place a much greater emphasis on career opportunities and progression. This factor can be applied to the debates surrounding the 'modern' career path concepts of spiral and transitory, where accomplishment is the significant factor and employees are empowered to build upon previous experience and skills.

Sonnenfeld and Kotter (1982) identified a series of theoretical perspectives that have been applied to careers:

1. **Social class:** this sociological perspective suggests that careers are governed by a person's position in the social structure. This position determines the opportunities that are made available to the person. It also determines the socialisation to which the developing person is exposed, so that they tend to view their career in ways consistent with their social class origins.
2. **Static personality differences:** this approach assumes that people's personalities are relatively stable over time, and that people differ from one another. People choose careers that match their personality therefore careers are determined by personality. Hence, the emphasis is on theories and assessment devices that facilitate the matching process.
3. **Career stages:** from this perspective, a career can be divided into distinct phases or stages. The issues and concerns of most importance to a person are said to vary systematically with each stage. The aim is to identify the stages and the personal concerns associated with each.
4. **Life cycle:** this is an extension of the career stages approach. It acknowledges the importance of external biological and cultural factors as influences on a person's career. The aim is to define key life roles and to identify their interplay longitudinally.

Sonnerfeld and Kotter (1982) emphasised that each perspective has some application in the field of careers and that none has been proved wrong. Roberts (1981) endorsed the social class approach that job opportunities partly depend on position in the social structure. He argued that opportunity structure rather than occupational choice are central concepts, suggesting that the employment school leavers enter and the patterns into which their later careers develop, depends more upon opportunity than choice. He maintained that the distribution of opportunities is a function of the manner in which a

stratified occupational system, education and the family interlock. "Within this nexus, scope for genuine choice is deemed rarely significant and often non-existent" (Roberts, 1981:281). Hayes and Hopson (1971) also proposed that occupational choice is far from being an inevitable aspect of social life, as it is determined by the type of society in which an individual lives. They stated that the only societies that offer a degree of occupational choice are those in which there is some division of labour, thus allowing a degree of occupational mobility. Yet, they emphasised that occupational choice can be restricted even if a range of different occupations are available, especially if an individual's choice is impeded by an inherent obligation to work in the same occupation as predecessors. This is illustrated in the Willis (1977) and Coffield *et al.* (1986) studies, although later research challenges these assumptions (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997).

a) Social Class

Attributes of the social class perspective can be identified in research undertaken by Airey and Frontistis (1997), which involved a comparison of British and Greek school student attitudes towards careers in tourism. Background findings indicated that there were marked differences between socio-economic groups in their views about careers. In the UK the lower socio-economic groups expressed greater certainty about what sort of career they wanted, whilst in Greece, it was the upper socio-economic groups who appeared to be more certain. Airey and Frontistis (1997) proposed that this might be because those who perceive fewer choices have a clearer idea of their future.

Copious studies have provided evidence of the close links between vocational development and socio-economic backgrounds (Hayes and Hopson, 1971). Ginzberg *et al.* (1951) found that boys from high-income families tended to assume they would go to

college even at quite an early age. When these subjects entered the realistic choice stage, Ginzberg *et al* (1951) found that they restricted their choices to occupations of a professional-executive kind. In contrast they found that boys from lower-income families tended to think in terms of skilled jobs which would offer a higher rate of remuneration than their fathers received. It was identified that one of the major constraints on the vocational development of the boys from lower-income families was their modest level of aspirations and that their occupational choice process was characterised by two terms: "passive and stunted" (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951:155). Furthermore, it was established that limited economic resources have a direct and indirect effect upon the process of selecting an occupation. Money can assume such a central position that the advantages and value of education are overshadowed. Ginzberg *et al.* (1951) appeared to suggest that children from upper-income families had complete freedom when making an occupational choice, whilst those from lower-income groups were very restricted. However, they reflected that the economic pressures upon lower-income groups might not be as restrictive as they had initially assumed, highlighting that although conditions might be less favourable, alternative choices exist. Moreover, it was stressed that society places a high evaluation on some occupations and a low evaluation on others, consequently, these evaluations exercise an important influence upon the occupational choices of individuals (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951).

Carter (1966) identified three main types of home and social background amongst families within the lower socio-economic group; the home-centred aspiring type, the solid working class type and a third group that he described as underprivileged. The home-centred aspiring type of family is convinced of the importance of planning ahead. Parents are hopeful that their children will be successful at school and in their subsequent careers. They support the school and its values, and encourage their children

to study. He described the solid working class families as those that tend to accept the standards upheld in the wider society, but are rather easy-going and inclined to take life as it comes. They do not think in terms of striving to improve their social position and they do not appear to take a profound interest in education. The under-privileged families care little for conventional codes of behaviour. They generally reject the value system of the school and take little interest in their children's future careers (Hayes and Hopson, 1971). These classifications are supported by the previous work of Ginzberg *et al.* (1951) who found that differences regarding exposure and stimulation in the environments of the upper and lower income groups contributed to differences in occupational decision-making. They established that in the upper-income group, parents provided maximum opportunities for their children, which generally created a positive attitude towards school and educational opportunities. Consequently, they stated that this is an important factor, as a "neutral or negative attitude towards education will severely narrow the range of educational opportunities" (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951:152).

It has been established that children begin to acquire social attitudes and values from an early age, initially from their parents and subsequently from their peers. This suggests that children who identify with their parents and their subculture are likely to develop preferences for the types of occupations that their parents value (Super, 1957). However, Super (1957) also identified that in societies with a tradition of 'upward mobility', children from lower socio-economic backgrounds tended to aspire to occupations higher than those of their parents, whilst those from more privileged backgrounds tended to prefer the same high-level occupations as their parents. This opposes the earlier work of Ginzberg *et al.* (1951) who purported that the modest aspirations of boys from lower-income families acted as a major constraint in their

vocational development. Similarly, other research (Coffield *et al.*, 1986; Willis, 1977) challenges Super's (1957) suggestion that those from lower socio-economic backgrounds aspire to occupations higher than their parents. The latter part of this section considers transformations in the British social class structure, which partially agrees with Super (1957) regarding the increased aspirations of those from lower socio-economic backgrounds, but challenges the notion that those from privileged backgrounds prefer the same high-level occupations as their parents.

Numerous studies also suggest that family size is an important factor in vocational development (Hayes and Hopson, 1971). Research findings indicate that the better-educated and upwardly mobile are likely to come from small families (Himmelweit, 1954; Jackson and Marsden, 1962; Douglas, 1964). It has been suggested that in smaller families there is greater interaction between parents and children who consequently receive more attention and encouragement (Nisbet, 1953; Lipset and Bendix, 1959). Hayes and Hopson (1971) stated that if children from homes of low socio-economic status aspire to occupations at a higher level than their parents, they would find no suitable role models within the family and few family activities related to their aspirations. Similarly children from homes of high socio-economic status who are only equipped for occupations at a lower level than their parents will find themselves equally disadvantaged. Role models are important when attracting individuals to specific careers, as they provide an overview of job factors and a holistic lifestyle career perspective. Hemsley-Brown (1998) suggested that both of these are important elements in the process of choosing careers. Research has shown that information on careers where there are no personal links has little or no impact upon young people's understanding of jobs (Hemsley-Brown, 1998).

Aspects of the social class perspective are also highlighted in research by Willis (1977), that comprised one main case study and five comparative studies. His main in-depth study consisted of a group of twelve young, non-academic, disaffected working class males based in a single-sex secondary modern school on a council estate, referred to as the 'Hammertown Boys'. The comparative case studies comprised: a group of conformist males in the same year as the Hammertown Boys; a group of working class conformist males in a nearby mixed secondary modern school; a group of working class non-conformist males from the single sex Hammertown grammar school; a similar group in a comprehensive near the middle of the larger conurbation of which Hammertown was part; and a mixed class male non-conformist group in a high status grammar school in the most exclusive residential area of the same larger conurbation.

Willis (1977:1) stated that

“the difficult thing to explain about how middle class kids get middle class jobs is why others let them. The difficult thing to explain about how working class kids get working class jobs is why they let themselves.”

This reaffirms previous findings (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951) regarding low levels of aspiration and an apparent unwillingness to attain an achieved status. Social class is one form of social stratification, which may be defined as a system in which social groups are ranked one above the other. The 'Hammertown Boys' are a distinct social group, sharing a common identity, common interests and a similar lifestyle, that distinguish them from members of other social groups. Haralambos and Holborn (1995) suggested that there is a tendency for members of each social group to develop their own subculture, which is distinctive to them as a group, and consists of certain norms, attitudes and values.

In the Willis study (1977) these subcultures relate to topics such as: opposition to authority; truancy; racism; sexism; rejection of the conformists; and informers. Additionally, group subcultures tend to be particularly distinctive when there is little opportunity to move from one social group to another. The 'Hammertown Boys' had their own "counter-school culture" (Willis, 1977) which was opposed to the values supported by their school. They attached a very low value to the academic work of the school, had no interest in obtaining qualifications and resented the school trying to control their time and freedom. The counter-school culture was strongly sexist, valuing masculinity and downgrading femininity, as well as racist, perceiving members of ethnic minorities as inferior. When the 'Hammertown Boys' were tracked into their first jobs, Willis found salient similarities between the shop-floor culture and the counter-school culture. In both cultures the maximum freedom possible was sought and an emphasis placed upon the worth of manual labour and the ability to have a 'laff'. In addition, the same lack of respect for authority, sexism and racism existed. Willis suggested that these cultures are ways of coping with monotony and oppression (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995). Similar sub-cultures are apparent in other studies (Coffield *et al.*, 1986) but are not as distinctive as those portrayed by the 'Hammertown Boys'.

Furthermore, Haralambos and Holborn (1995) proposed that members of the lowest group in stratification systems, particularly those groups that provide few opportunities for improvement of status, tend to have a fatalistic attitude towards life.

"This attitude becomes part of their subculture and is transmitted from generation to generation. It sees circumstances as largely unchangeable; it sees luck and fate rather than individual effort as shaping life and therefore tends to encourage acceptance of the situation" (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995:22).

This attitude is portrayed by both the 'Hammertown Boys' (Willis, 1977) and amongst participants of a later study 'Growing Up at the Margins' (Coffield, *et al.*, 1986), which

consisted of approximately fifty working class young men and women in the north east of England, aged between sixteen and twenty-eight. The participants of the latter study had very pessimistic attitudes towards their futures, many of which had been inherited from family members and adverse educational experiences. For example, many of the female respondents did not perceive the need to consider any potential careers, as false consciousnesses had developed. Their attitudes and beliefs had been influenced by society and they were expected to conform to the role of housewives, which required no formal qualifications.

A similar situation was identified by research into the position of women in post-compulsory education and training in Wales (Istance and Rees, 1994). This research revealed that girls, specifically working-class valleys girls in south Wales with no expectations of gaining qualifications, believed that they had very little control over their future. They were of the opinion that their futures were the result of decisions made by others and appeared to be unwilling to invest in their human capital due to an expectation that they would conform to a role with child-rearing responsibilities. Furthermore, career professionals reported that in such communities, parental influences on career choices tended to direct the girls in a highly stereotypical female direction. Therefore, demonstrating a fatalistic attitude towards life and an acceptance of conforming to stereotypical societal roles. This attitude also illustrates the 'dependent' decision-making style (Phillips *et al.*, 1984), whereby the individual repudiates responsibility for decision-making and assumes other individuals or circumstances will dictate.

Willis (1977) purported that careers teaching and advice was the most explicit ideological force upon the 'Hammertown Boys' during their preparation for work.

Although many aspects of the careers teaching were rejected by the group, some connoted messages did filter through, particularly in terms of reinforcing social class divisions, sexism and the inevitability of certain types of work. This is also apparent in 'Growing Up at the Margins' (Coffield *et al.*, 1986). However, Willis (1977) stressed that such messages have not necessarily been transmitted intentionally, but as a result of exposure to films which depict working class people in their working environments. Such exposure only serves to reinforce traditional stereotypes, rather than encourage social mobility, career aspirations and the desire for an achieved status, yet social class is a relatively 'open' system of social stratification, which means that opportunities for social mobility do, or should, exist. Tumin (1967) questioned the view that social stratification can integrate the social system, by suggesting that social integration is actually weakened by stratification, as members of the lower groups often feel excluded from participation in the larger society (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995).

Willis (1977:58) illustrated that the non-conformists in the high-status grammar school know that they are different from the 'Hammertown Boys'.

"They cannot through institutional means alone transcend their class location. Ultimately, they have not only a different attitude to qualifications but also an inevitable sense of different social position."

Some of the non-conformists from the grammar school are from working class families, yet despite their origins and anti-school attitude, the lack of a dominant working class ethos within their school culture completely separates their experience from the 'Hammertown Boys'. Lipsett (1962) suggested that some social class influences might be too strong to permit upward mobility in spite of scholastic success. Similarly, Weber (1864-1920) observed that a person's class position influenced many areas of their life, in particular, their life chances. In general, the higher a person's social class position,

the better their life chances and the greater their opportunity to obtain and experience things defined as desirable in their society (Haralambos, 1996).

Yet, Willis (1977) asserted that if conformist working class boys in a working class school are isolated from the working class culture, and become free from its processes, they are more likely to 'succeed'. McGuire (1951) provided descriptions of groups with a high probability of obtaining further and higher education, which take into account some of the dynamics by which social class influences may be overcome. He identified three groups: the high status statics, youngsters from the upper- and upper-middle-classes who have absorbed the educational attitudes of their social group; the climbers, youngsters from the lower-middle- and working-classes with an ambition to get ahead in life. Youngsters from this group tend to have friends from higher socio-economic groups. Finally, the strainers, who are from the same background as the second group but who have mixed goals in life. They have friends from higher socio-economic backgrounds than their own, but they are not sure that their way of life is one worth aspiring to. Their personal drive usually requires some external stimulus to urge them on to attaining higher education (Hayes and Hopson, 1971).

Recent studies of social mobility in Britain have reached two conclusions. Firstly, people with parents from higher-class backgrounds have a better chance of obtaining higher-class jobs than people from lower-class backgrounds. Secondly, the opportunities for all social groups to ascend the stratification system have increased during the latter part of the twentieth century and into the twenty-first century. This is due to the decline in lower-class manual jobs and the increase in higher-class non-manual work, linked to the transformation of traditional dominant industrial sectors. Current debates have centred on the changes to the traditional working class.

Haralambos and Holborn (1995) asserted that the working class is less distinctive from the middle class and potential for the development of class-consciousness has been removed. They proposed that one of the most obvious changes is the reduction in size of the working class if it is to be defined by manual workers. Discrepancies exist regarding the actual number of current manual workers, due to different classifications having been used. However, Routh (1980 cited in Haralambos and Holborn, 1995) reported that manual workers declined from 79% of those in employment in 1911, to just under half in 1971, whilst the General Household Survey found that 48% of the population were in the working class in 1991, compared to 55% in 1975. In part this decline has been due to de-industrialisation, as the manufacturing industry employs a decreasing percentage of the workforce, between 1966 and 1993, employment in manufacturing in Great Britain fell from 8.6 to 4.2 million (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995:75). Employment appears to have fallen particularly rapidly in those jobs, such as heavy industry, which are more likely to produce the subculture of the traditional proletarian worker. Beynon (1992 cited in Haralambos and Holborn, 1995) emphasised that in 1992, there were more people employed in hotel and catering than in steel, shipyards, cars, mechanical engineering and coal combined.

Haralambos and Holborn (1995) discussed the concept of 'affluent manual workers', who are more concerned with buying consumer goods and developing a 'privatised home-based lifestyle' than demonstrating solidarity with their peers, suggesting that factors such as home ownership had altered attitudes and values amongst some groups within the working class. Disagreements regarding the place of the middle class in the stratification systems were also discussed. Giddens (1984 cited in Haralambos and Holborn, 1995:69) argued that there is a single middle class based on the "possession of educational or technical qualifications." This distinguishes them from members of the

working class, as they can 'sell' their mental labour power rather than just their manual labour power. Therefore, it would be fair to assume that, providing educational or technical qualifications were obtained, the working-class participants featured in Willis (1977) and Coffield *et al.* (1986) had the opportunity for social mobility. Furthermore, it is apparent that the conformist working-class participants featured in the Willis (1977) study had realised that qualifications offered the potential for upward mobility.

This supports the view asserted by Super (1957) that children from lower socio-economic backgrounds tended to aspire to occupations higher than those of their parents, in order to secure an achieved status, encourage social mobility and disregard traditional stereotypes. More recent research (Hodkinson, 1995; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997) also reinforced this perspective, with respondent's career choices seemingly unrestricted by social class divisions, parental occupations and traditional societal stereotypes. Kelly (1989) found that whilst gender often acted as a constraint on the range of jobs young people will consider, social-class backgrounds and academic ability are much less restrictive in their impact. These attitude changes are illustrated in a speech presented to the Institute of Public Policy Research that outlined a ten-year programme aimed at combating poverty and social exclusion. Blair (1999) stressed:

“..Opportunities for all children to get a decent education and for thousands more to go to university.....[the] old establishment is being replaced by a new...more meritocratic middle class....characterised by greater tolerance of difference, greater ambition to succeed, greater opportunities to earn a decent living. A middle class that will include millions of people who traditionally may see themselves as working class, but whose ambitions are far broader than those of their parents and grandparents..”

Super (1957) proposed that children from privileged backgrounds prefer the same high-level occupations as their parents, consequently this has created societal role expectations and traditional stereotypes associated with members of these social classes.

However, a more recent article (Smith and Berry, 1999) challenged this assumption, as profiles of individuals from privileged backgrounds were provided and contrasted against their current occupations. The article clearly illustrated that the observations of Super (1957) should not be used as a general theory and asserted that there is a new trend of 'downward mobility' amongst those from privileged backgrounds.

"There have always been those who, carrying the weight of parental income behind them and parental expectations on their shoulders, have slipped down the social and career ladder" (Smith and Berry, 1999:13).

Changes in the recruitment market were also discussed and it was reported that class no longer guarantees the best jobs. Educational qualifications are regarded as more significant than just attending the 'right school'. The Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) identified that those who studied A-levels and beyond had a much better chance of remaining in the same income group as their parents. Furthermore, the IFS established that downward mobility has become a statistical fact amongst the 'children of Britain's richest'. They used the National Child Development Study, which monitors the progress of all the children born in Britain in a single week in 1958:

"According to the IFS, 34% of the children whose parents were in the top fifth of income earners have ended up in the top fifth themselves. However, 11% ended up in the bottom fifth of the income scale, 13% in the next fifth, 18% in the middle fifth and 24% in the next-to-top level" (Smith and Berry, 1999:13).

Hence, while a third of children born into the richest families remained at that level, two-thirds did not. Consequently, it cannot be assumed that children from high-income, privileged backgrounds possess career aspirations equal to those of their parents or that their social backgrounds automatically provide them with unrestricted occupational choices.

Discussions relating to the primary data obtained within this research project illustrate

aspects of the social class perspective, in terms of the dominant influence of family background and role models upon career aspirations.

b) Socialisation

The research by Airey and Frontistis (1997) has implications other than social class, such as possible differences in the socialisation process between British and Greek school students. Socialisation is the process by which individuals learn the culture of their society. It is more than a formal education and includes the acquisition of attitudes and values, behaviours, habits and skills (White, 1977). Brim (1966) offered a similar definition for general societal socialisation, suggesting that it is the acquisition of these attitudes, skills and knowledge that make individuals more or less able members of their society. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) discussed organisational socialisation as the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organisational role. Career is a much broader term than socialisation. Hall (1987) asserted that a career can be seen as a 'bundle' of socialisation experiences, as the person moves in, through, and out of various work-related roles. Socialisation is a social learning process, concerned with the process by which an individual enters a social structure, whilst career has both an internal and external focus, representing an individual's movement through a social structure over time.

Socialisation is a life-long process originating with primary socialisation during infancy, usually within the family. The family has been described as "a social, a psychological and an economic entity" (Super, 1957:242). It is a social entity because it contains a group of people who function together as a unit. It is a psychological entity because each one of its members has needs, feelings and attitudes that are important to them and to the family and it is an economic entity because it provides a wide range of services

for its members. Work roles may also be learned in the home, as parents and others provide material for playing occupational roles (Hayes and Hopson, 1971). Family members have been shown to be of considerable importance as they represent a credible information source. Hemsley-Brown (1998) found that students who had a parent or close relation working in a field often had a clearer idea about what the job encompassed. Lankard (1995) found that family influence was an important force in the preparation for work and that attitudes about work and careers were a result of family interaction. Additionally, American surveys established that helping their children choose a career was the second most pressing parental concern (Herbert, 1986). Similarly, Hodkinson (1995) identified that school students were influenced by close relatives or neighbours who worked in the same fields, however the influence was grounded in long-term experiences, hence, more profound than just listening to advice.

However, family members are not always best equipped to offer advice as their occupational experience may be restricted and their attitudes towards work may be biased or out-dated. Previous research has indicated that non-tourism industry workers tend to have negative perceptions of tourism industry jobs (Choy, 1995). Similarly, Getz (1994) encountered parental bias in terms of career advice in his study of the Spey Valley in Scotland. He found that careers in tourism and hospitality had an extremely undesirable image, despite respondents having high levels of direct experience of working in the hotel and tourism industry and high levels of parental involvement, in 1992, 42% of respondents had a parent working in the tourism industry. He also identified that students wanted to continue into higher education and enter professions, preferring out-migration to employment in the Spey Valley. Furthermore, it has been suggested that exposure to the working lives of some professionals has a strong class bias, therefore childhood experiences begin to distort ambitions in a class biased way

from an early age (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997).

Paul (1962 cited in Hayes and Hopson, 1971) recommended that parental attitudes towards work could be classified under four headings: the 'silent attitude' which describes homes where work is never openly discussed; the 'resentful attitude' where only grievances about work are disseminated; the 'participating attitude' which describes homes where work is discussed by enthusiastic parents; and the 'candid attitude' where all aspects of work, including advantages and disadvantages are discussed openly. Similarly, Middleton and Loughhead (1993) presented three types of parental involvement in the career development of young people: positive involvement, non-involvement and negative involvement. They suggested that young people feel higher levels of anxiety about their career decisions in relation to the negative involvement of parents. Parents within this category are purported to be controlling and domineering in their interactions with their children. As a result, the children often pursue careers selected by their parents rather than those they prefer, in order not to disappoint their parents.

In Western society, other important agencies of socialisation include the educational system and the 'peer group' (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995). Education systems generally serve to influence the career aspirations of young people. Airey and Frontistis (1997) revealed that the careers education and guidance system and the educational system in Greece are much less developed than in the UK. In addition, the 'world of work' plays a far more important role in the compulsory education system of the UK than that of Greece. Occupational groups are another agent of socialisation; hence, exposure to such groups during compulsory education can play a very influential role in the socialisation process of school students. The education system, occupational and

peer groups are often defined as secondary socialisation, which is concerned with the processes of adult life (White, 1977).

Work experience can have important exploratory values, as it provides an opportunity to sample the life of adult workers and their subculture, develops mature work habits relating to punctuality and responsibility, and provides an opportunity to test the reality of an individual's self-concept (Super, 1957). Hence, work experience can substantially aid the transition from school to work (Petherbridge, 1997). Conversely, research (Purcell and Quinn, 1996; Hodkinson, 1995; Getz, 1994) has illustrated that work experience can have a negative effect upon career intentions, often resulting in students opting for alternative careers in completely different sectors. This is particularly prevalent where students have elected to follow courses that are relevant to employers and which contain industry-related work experience modules, such as leisure and tourism or hospitality and catering qualifications (Keep and Mayhew, 1999). Therefore, it could be argued that Greek school students do not have the same opportunities, in terms of the careers education and guidance system, the educational system and exposure to occupational groups, as their British peers with regards to formation of career intentions and socialisation.

Willis (1977) illustrated that the non-conformist working-class groups featured in his work, although vigorous in their opposition to authority and expected modes of behaviour, appeared ready to conform to society's predictions and expectations of them. In addition, the young, non-academic disaffected males featured in the study seemed content to seek employment in the same work environments as their male predecessors. This concurred with observations by Brim (1966 cited in Super, 1981) regarding the study of personality in relation to society, in particular, the socialisation of individuals

so that they conform to societal role expectations. The established definitions of socialisation as being a model by which to produce suitable social beings were criticised by Chinoy (1961 cited in White, 1977:3), who asserted that socialisation:

“..should not produce individuals as ‘carbon copies’ of their parents, but active beings capable of innovating and bringing about changes in society.”

This is not apparent in the main case study of ‘Hammertown Boys’. Willis observed that the educational system failed to manipulate the personalities of the school students in order to produce ideal workers. He concluded that education does not produce school students who believe in individual achievement, but who reject the beliefs that hard work and individual success can result in worthwhile rewards (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995).

Willis (1977) also stated that both the conformists and non-conformists in his study are working class doing similar work in a similar position. Yet the conformists believe themselves, especially when equipped with qualifications, to be in better jobs and a different kind of person than the ‘Hammertown Boys’.

“When such a division is founded in the working class, it legitimates the position of the middle class. It is not capitalism but their own mental capacities that keep them where they are.” (Willis, 1977:152)

This suggests that the working-class non-conformists and the ‘Hammertown Boys’ do not possess the right attitudes to instigate societal change or innovation. That is not to insinuate that they do not possess the appropriate knowledge or skills to instigate change but that society has reinforced stereotypes and ideologies. Indeed, Willis (1977) stated that he felt that the ‘Hammertown Boys’ understood their own alienation and exploitation and were not just suffering from false class consciousness, but allowed themselves to be ensnared in some of the most exploited jobs that capitalism had to

offer through their own decisions. Consequently, the working-class non-conformists have internalised societal attitudes and beliefs, which in turn, have shaped their career aspirations and reaffirmed the theories surrounding sub-cultures and social mobility.

Recent research (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997) identified noticeable differences between the jobs of parents and the careers chosen by young people, which challenges traditional views on the aspirations of young people and appears to correspond with Super (1957) that they aspire to higher occupations than their parents. The 'Career Perceptions and Decision Making' study asked students, aged 11, 15 and 17, to list the career they currently aspired to, jobs they had wanted to do previously and their parents' occupations. The clear differences between the kinds of careers young people had chosen and their parents' occupations led the researchers to identify three types of careers (Hemsley-Brown, 1998:5):

1. Lottery jobs, which were very high status with a high profile, but with chance criteria for entry, for example, professional sports person or actor. 48% of 11 year olds and 20% of 17 year olds were identified as wanting to do these types of jobs, especially dancing, singing, acting or playing a musical instrument. Artist or designer was also a popular choice, but no parents were working in these careers.
2. High status jobs, which were professions with highly competitive academic entry criteria, for example, doctor or barrister. Approximately a quarter of 15 and 17 year olds had chosen a high status occupation, mainly in law or medicine. However, parents in high status occupations were mainly working in senior management roles, such as Managing Director or Director.
3. Customary jobs, were jobs held by the majority of the pupils' parents (75%) and undertaken by most people. The most popular were nursing, teaching, fire fighting and journalism, although parents were more likely to be teaching, working in

domestic or clerical occupations, or engineering. Older students were more likely to choose customary jobs, and by age 17, 40% had chosen this kind of job, although quite different from those of their parents.

Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1997) found that young people's aspirations to lottery jobs (28%) and high status jobs (22%) did not reflect the jobs of their parents (3% and 10% respectively) nor did they match the opportunities available in the labour market. They established that early decisions are made by young people about education and training at a time when many are still hoping to enter lottery jobs, the majority of which do not rely on formal qualifications (Hemsley-Brown, 1998:6). These findings illustrate the changing career aspirations and expectations of young people in today's society. The young people featured in Foskett and Hemsley-Brown's study (1997) did not appear to be content to seek employment in the same work environments as their predecessors. Nor did they seem ready to conform to societal role expectations or have their career choices restricted by potential social class divisions and false consciousness.

Hodkinson (1995) examined the importance of Bourdieu's concept of habitus in his research into how young people make career decisions. Although theories of career choice and decision-making are identified later in this piece of work, it is pertinent to discuss the concept of habitus at this stage, as there are analogies between habitus and socialisation. In addition, sociological debates have moved away from the concept of socialisation towards the theory of habitus. Socialisation is an on-going process during which individuals conform to society's prevailing norms and values, whilst habitus is much more reflexive, whereby individuals are the product and the creators of their habitus. Jenkins (1992) asserted that habitus is infused as much, if not more, by experience as by explicit teaching. Thus, the power of the habitus of an individual is

derived from the thoughtlessness of habit and habituation rather than learned rules.

“As young people grow up, they absorb and reinterpret meanings drawn from the culture which they inhabit.....[Habitus] encapsulates the ways in which a person's beliefs, ideas and preferences are individually subjective but also influenced by the objective social networks and cultural traditions in which that person lives” (Hodkinson, 1995:6).

Therefore, habitus is more than perceptions. Young people accumulate conceptual structures or schemata from childhood. These structures serve as tools for understanding aspects of their experiences. Individual life histories are shaped as new experiences are gained and the conceptual structures are modified and developed. Habitus is a result of the development of schematic repertoires which are individualistic and used when selecting any course of action. New information is absorbed constantly within existing conceptual structures creating refinement and modification to the habitus.

“First habitus only exists inasmuch as it is ‘inside the heads’ of actors [individuals]...Second, the habitus only exists in, through and because of the practices of actors and their interaction with each other and with the rest of their environment: ways of talking, ways of moving, ways of making things or whatever..” (Jenkins, 1992:74)

Hodkinson (1995) discussed the concept of ‘horizons for action’, within which he suggested young people make career decisions. The term ‘horizons for action’ was adopted to describe the area within which actions can be taken and decisions made. Hence, habitus and opportunity structures found within the labour market influence horizons for action.

“Because schemas filter information, horizons for action both limit and enable our view of the world and the choices we make within it. Thus, the fact that there are jobs for girls within engineering is irrelevant if a young woman does not perceive engineering as an appropriate career.” (Hodkinson, 1995:6)

This demonstrates that, as message recipients, information on careers within tourism and hospitality may fall outside an individual's latitude of acceptance. Rejection may be

a result of the fact that career education and guidance (CEG) programmes may not 'fit' with their existing schematic view of themselves or their perceptions of appropriate career opportunities.

Significantly, Hodkinson (1995) purported that decision-making is context-related and cannot be separated from the family background, culture and life histories of school students. "No-one can step outside such personal development" (Hodkinson, 1995:6). Hence career aspirations and decisions are shaped by the various agencies of socialisation, together with an individual's habitus. Primary data obtained and explored within the discussion chapter of this research project demonstrates many aspects of socialisation and habitus. Specifically the dominant influencers within the career education, guidance and decision-making process and the career aspirations of the school students involved in the study.

c) Qualifications & Education

The 'Hammertown case study' (Willis, 1977) provided a valuable insight into the different perceptions of both the middle and working classes towards theory and qualifications. In middle class culture, theory is seen in its social guise of qualifications as the power to move up the social scale. Qualifications and knowledge are seen as a means of improving and expanding the career opportunities of an individual, rather than enhancing job performance. Conversely, there is a strong belief amongst the working class, in general, that practice is more important than theory. The working class perspective is that "...theory is riveted to particular productive practices, if it cannot earn its keep, it is to be rejected" (Willis, 1977:56). Douglas (1964 cited in Hayes and Hopson, 1971) asserted that social class and family background factors are predominantly responsible for children's educational achievements, as they influence

their verbal development; allow or restrict access to educational resources; and shape values and aspirations. He also stated that any subsequent educational achievements determine occupational choice, which in turn defines identities, a concept supported by Erickson (1968) who viewed vocational development as part of the larger task of identity development. Correspondingly, Super (1957:18) defined occupation as “the principal determinant of social status” and Harrison (1986) asserted that a wealth of empirical work exists to support the view that educational level is strongly related to occupational attainment.

Hayes and Hopson (1971) stated that children who do well at school are likely to be influenced towards higher education and occupational roles appropriate to this level of education. Nevertheless, they also recognised that parents from lower socio-economic groups experience greater financial difficulties in maintaining their children in full-time education, reaffirming the previous work of Ginzberg *et al.* (1951). Howarth *et al.* (1998) established that the UK has experienced a rise of more than 150% of people who live on half of average income. They identified that in 1982 there were four million people in this category, yet by 1997, over 10 million people were affected (Keep and Mayhew, 1999:8). Hence, unless the parents are really convinced of the value of education and are willing to make the necessary sacrifices, they may well encourage their children to leave school at an early age. Studies undertaken by Coffield *et al.* (1986) and Willis (1977) have illustrated this. In both cases, participants left school as soon as it was legally possible, especially the non-conformist working-classes. However, the outcomes of leaving school at an early age with no formal qualifications were very different, due to the time lapse between the studies.

The majority of the participants featured in the Willis study (1977) found employment,

albeit manual work, whilst the majority of the participants featured in 'Growing Up at the Margins' (Coffield *et al.*, 1986) found themselves unemployed or being exploited on government training schemes, possibly due to a general decline in traditional industries in the north-east of England. Spans of unemployment and exploitation lasted significant periods of time and appeared to contribute to a downward spiral trend amongst the young people featured in the study. Unemployment also disrupted their normal transition to adulthood, unlike those in Willis's study (1977), as they were denied the opportunity to become independent from their family or to experience family responsibilities. These experiences only served to reinforce the participants' pessimistic attitudes and the stereotypes adopted through the processes of socialisation. A study on the influences on the vocational development of young people (Mortimer, 1992) established that the variable which had the most effect on educational plans and occupational aspirations was parental education. In addition, the study found that parents who possessed a post-secondary education tended to emphasise the importance of education to their children – a finding which has been documented in other work (Montgomery 1992; Marso and Pigge 1994). However, DeRidder (1990:4) asserted that lower levels of parental education could repress the career development of young people:

“Being born to parents with limited education and income reduces the likelihood of going to college or achieving a professional occupational goal and essentially predetermines the child's likely vocational choice.”

Those who develop educational and occupational aspirations not shared by their family may adopt the school or their peers as their primary reference group, as the reference group is a group with which an individual compares their own standing, behaviour and levels of pay. The attitudes and values held by a reference group will have a profound influence on the individual's attitudes and reactions. Hence, if peers form an important

reference group for an individual and the occupational aspirations of peers includes leaving school to seek employment at the earliest opportunity, an able student may well be persuaded against the educational opportunities open to them. Conversely, studies have shown that the higher the perceived educational aspirations of a student's reference group, the higher will be the individual's own educational aspiration (Hayes and Hopson, 1971). Willis (1977) noted that the 'Hammertown Boys' were anxious to leave school at the earliest opportunity, whilst the conformists paid attention to career lessons and were concerned about the types of job they would eventually attain (Haralambos and Holborn, 1995). The study illustrated that working-class boys reject much of what schools teach them and attach a greater value to manual labour than the more highly rewarded non-manual jobs. Manual labour was seen as more worthy than mental labour. In addition, the non-conformists referred to the conformists as 'cissies', as they were deemed to have no masculine attributes if they desired to obtain qualifications in order to improve themselves and their status.

Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1997) discovered that the benefits of post-compulsory education, as a way of improving job prospects, was common knowledge amongst young people of all ages. However, they found that the majority of young people did not make a personal choice of career direction on the basis of employability, where pupils are providers of skills and employers are consumers in the labour market. Although students appeared to be fully aware that they stood a better chance of gaining employment in some career areas rather than others, they saw no reason to compromise on their demand for a job that they would enjoy, based on intrinsic interests. Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1997) concluded that:

"young people were not making choices based on maximising their opportunities to gain employment, but on enjoyment and interest" (Hemsley-Brown, 1998:6).

Correspondingly, Hodkinson (1995) found that enjoyment of a job was an important consideration and that some school students had particular interests that they wanted to incorporate into careers.

With regards to formal qualifications, the tourism and hospitality industries are often found to be in controversial situations, as reference is frequently made to the quality of jobs that are generated. The tourism workforce has been described as “..uneducated, unmotivated, untrained, unskilled and unproductive” (Shaw and Williams, 1994:142). In addition, a report by the Hotel and Catering Training Company (1995) concluded that the hotel sector possessed one of the lowest levels of training activity in the UK economy and was one of the most under-qualified industries. Contrary to these findings, other studies (Brennan and McGeevor, 1988; Purcell and Quinn, 1996) revealed that many graduate entrants to the tourism and hospitality industries felt overqualified for the positions that they held. A substantial proportion were found to be in jobs that did not require “graduate level ability or training” (Brennan and McGeevor, 1988:71). This is of serious concern in a post-industrial society where young people are encouraged to achieve in education and employment. Purcell and Quinn (1996) asserted that it would be hypocritical not to expect potential future managers to be attracted to degree level courses, which aim to develop managerial competence rather than craft skills. In addition, they identified that increasing proportions of school leavers enter higher education and consequently expect to enter the labour market at a higher level than their predecessors. They concluded that:

“employers who regard graduates as over-qualified and expect them to start at the bottom should not be surprised when such recruits are attracted to other organisations which value their potential more highly” (Purcell and Quinn, 1996:67).

Furthermore, the supply of highly qualified recruits to the tourism and hospitality

industries will become a more salient issue, due to demographic changes and the widespread competition for highly qualified young people entering the labour market in general. The school students featured within this research project exposed issues relating to qualifications and education. They were found to place a higher regard on enjoyment and interest within a job, than financial rewards. This corresponds with previous work (Hodkinson 1995; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1998), yet qualifications were recognised by all respondents and appeared to be a feature in the formation of career aspirations and the overall career decision-making process.

2.1.3 Challenges for Career Theory

Much criticism surrounds the field of career theory, which suggests that it is fragmented and possesses serious weaknesses. Collins and Young (1986) concluded that most of the career literature lacked rigorous definition and clarification of its basic concepts. Whilst the design of research which served to inform career theorists had limitations, in particular a lack of longitudinal studies and the fact that samples tended to be male and middle-class, they also established that the main focus of career theory centred on individual rather than contextual factors. Specifically in terms of life-span development, self-concept, matching personality and career, social learning and decision-making.

Similarly, Schien (1986:310) stated that the career field was “fractionated, lacks coherent concepts and theories, and has a strong ethnocentric and managerial bias.” He asserted that the field is fractionated because it falls between the various academic disciplines that inform it, suggesting that sociologists and anthropologists consider where organisations fail and succeed in terms of their employees, whilst occupational psychologists concentrate on predicting who will enter what type of career. In addition,

he criticised the lack of integrative constructs and theory, explaining that each academic discipline tended to develop their own concepts, yet failed to associate them with concepts from other disciplines. Arthur *et al.* (1989) emphasised the need for a joint frame of reference if theory building across social science disciplines was ever to be considered.

Schein (1986) also emphasised the need for accurate descriptions of careers. Careers can be divided between career choice and career development. Career choice concerns the nature and process of choice, normally, by young people. Career development involves subsequent changes and adjustment. Sonnenfeld and Kotter's (1982) theoretical perspectives can be applied, in order to illustrate the differences between career choice and career development. Career choice tends to reflect aspects of the social class and static personality differences approaches, whilst career development exhibits aspects of the career stages and life cycle approaches. However, it could be argued that such a distinction is manufactured, as choices made in early adulthood often become obsolete and have to be remodelled as a result of subsequent developments. Furthermore, the mutually dependent relationship between education and employment has seen the re-conceptualisation of the concept of 'career'. Arthur (1994 cited in Wijers and Meijers, 1996) suggested that a career has become 'boundaryless', rather than being defined as a structure, specifically a career is a process, describing an individual's lifetime of learning and work. Arthur *et al.* (1999) offered the 'boundaryless' career perspective as a career-orientated response to the transition from the Industrial State to the New Economy. The perspective is based on the fact that because of career mobility, careers tend to cross multiple employer boundaries. However, they suggested that the boundaryless career offers numerous solutions. These solutions incorporate situations whereby:

“people stay in their companies not because of length of service but because of the market value of their skills; where new job aspirants are not discouraged by layers of privileges negotiated by job incumbents; where status and rank do not automatically disqualify people from applying their skills; where learning becomes a central rather than a peripheral condition behind employment arrangements; where past mobility may be seen as a symptom of a drive to learn rather than a propensity towards disloyalty...” (Arthur *et al.*, 1999:11)

2.1.4 Career Choice & Decision-making

Hall (1987) asserted that whilst the concepts of career choice and decision-making are critical processes in career development, they have received little attention in research literature on careers. Two main theoretical approaches to occupational choice tend to dominate careers education and guidance. Structural or personalities matching theories suggest that individuals select work environments that are consistent with their personalities. Theories regarding the role of personality in careers can include reference to psycho-dynamics, as personality types may be considered to represent needs. Additionally, theories of career development often include reference to psycho-dynamics because the representation of personality in career may be explained developmentally, specifically, relating to early experiences within the family. Bordin (1994 cited in Killeen 1996b:25) purported that there is a:

“tendency for psychoanalytical theorists to see the family as *the* source of career behaviour – the enlarged perspective offered by the family system can encompass all theories.”

Furthermore, Bordin (1994) established six intrinsic motives that move individuals to act with regards to careers:

1. Precision – the satisfaction of ‘neat, clear, error-free thought and action.’
2. Nurturance – the desire to care for and foster living things
3. Curiosity – the wish to know and understand, which may take an object or people orientated form
4. Power – which may take a physical/mechanically orientated form, or one in which

others are dominated by skill, knowledge and personal charisma

5. Aesthetic expression – sensory and rhythmic satisfactions
6. Ethics – concern with right and wrong, which is a concern for defining and enforcing rules, rather than for doing good

Trait-and-factor theory also considers the stable psychological characteristics that distinguish individuals from each other and determine preferences for specific types of work. One of the most influential trait-and-factor theories and model of career choice was developed by Holland (1958) from his experience as a vocational counsellor. He constructed the Vocational Preference Inventory, based on the observation that several broad classes account for human interests, traits and behaviours (Holland, 1997). His model is based on the assumption that there is an interaction between personality and environment, so that individuals tend to move into career environments that are compatible with their personal orientation (Hall, 1987).

A given type of personality dominates these environments and each environment is typified by physical settings posing special problems and opportunities. As different personality types have different interests and abilities, generally, they surround themselves with people congruent with themselves. Therefore, where specific personality types congregate they create an environment that reflects the personality type they most resemble (Holland, 1997). The choice of occupation is an expressive act that reflects an individual's motivation, knowledge, personality and ability. Therefore, individuals choose careers that 'match' their personal qualities and the closer the 'match' the more likely it is that the individual will remain in that career area. This is supported by earlier research (Gottfredson, 1977) that intimated the greater the disparities between individual and occupational profiles, the greater the propensity to

change career areas.

Holland (1985 cited in Holland, 1997:21-27) distinguished six dominant personality types in relation to occupational choice:

1. **Realistic:** people who prefer activities that entail the explicit, ordered or systematic manipulation of objects, tools, machines and animals, who possess an aversion to educational activities. Such behavioural tendencies facilitate the acquisition of manual, mechanical, agricultural, electrical and technical competencies and a deficit in social and educational competencies. These type of people prefer realistic occupations or situations in which they can engage in their preferred activities and avoid the types of activity demanded by social occupations or situations. They possess traditional values and prefer to work within institutional restraints. Ambition and self-control are ranked as important values, although they perceive themselves as lacking human relations' attributes. Their realistic beliefs, competencies and values are used to solve work and external problems.
2. **Investigative:** people who prefer activities that incorporate the observational, symbolic, systematic and creative investigation of physical, biological and cultural phenomena and who have an aversion to persuasive, social and repetitive activities. Such behavioural tendencies create an acquisition of scientific and mathematical competencies and a deficit in persuasive competencies. These type of people prefer investigative occupations or situations, where they can engage in preferred activities and competencies and avoid those types of activities demanded by enterprising occupations or situations. Investigative people value scientific or scholarly activities and achievements, independence and personal traits such as intelligence and ambition. However, they believe other values such as family security and friendships

are less important. Their investigative beliefs, competencies and values are applied to the problem-solving process.

3. **Artistic:** people that prefer ambiguous, free unsystematic activities that encompass the manipulation of physical, verbal or human materials to create art forms or products. Artistic people have an aversion to explicit, systematic and ordered activities. Their behavioural tendencies generate an acquisition of artistic competencies, such as: language, art, music and drama and a deficit in administrative or business competencies. Artistic people tend to engage in artistic occupations or situations in which they can fulfil their preferred activities and competencies and avoid the activities demanded by conventional occupations or situations. They value self-expression, equality, aesthetic experience and achievement as well as personal characteristics such as imagination. They perceive problems in an artistic context so their artistic beliefs, competencies and values dominate the problem-solving process.

4. **Social:** people who have a preference for activities that entail the manipulation of others to inform, train, develop, cure or enlighten. These people tend to have an aversion to explicit, ordered and systematic activities that involve materials, tools or machines. The behavioural tendencies of social people lead them to acquire human relations competencies but create a deficit in manual and technical competencies. They prefer social occupations and situations, such as teaching where they can satisfy their preferred activities and avoid activities demanded by realistic occupations and situations. They value social and ethical activities and problems, equality, helpfulness and competence. Furthermore, they like to help and understand others, have a teaching ability and social skills but lack mechanical or scientific abilities. They perceive problems in a social context, particularly in human relations' terms.

As a result, their problem-solving process is dominated by social competencies and traits.

5. **Enterprising:** people who prefer activities that incorporate the manipulation of others in order to achieve organisational goals or economic gain. This type of person tends to have an aversion to observational, symbolic and systematic activities. Their behavioural tendencies create an acquisition of leadership, interpersonal and persuasive competencies but a deficit in scientific competencies. They prefer enterprising occupations or situations, such as sales roles, where they can engage in their preferred activities and avoid those demanded by investigative occupations and situations. They have traditional values and aspire to influential positions within business and community environments. Their enterprising beliefs, competencies and values are applied to problems, which are considered from an enterprising context.
6. **Conventional:** people who prefer activities which involve the explicit, ordered, systematic manipulation of data but have an aversion to ambiguous, free, exploratory or unsystematic activities. Such behavioural tendencies generate attainment of clerical, computational and business system competencies and a deficit in artistic competencies. These people prefer conventional occupations or situations in which they can satisfy their preferred activities and avoid the activities demanded by artistic occupations or situations. They value business and economic achievements and prefer to work within structured organisations or institutions. They seek practical solutions and use their conventional beliefs, competencies and values to solve problems whilst observing established policies and procedures.

Holland (1985) proposed that these personality types could be arranged in a hexagon to

express their similarity to each other. Each type is placed at a corner of the hexagon in the sequence RIASEC, so that C (conventional) becomes adjacent to R (realistic). The scores individuals obtain in any one dimension tended to be most strongly correlated with adjacent dimensions and most weakly correlated with the opposite dimensions. Hence, 'artistic' is strongly correlated with 'investigative' and 'social' but weakly correlated with 'conventional'. Holland asserted that people are most usefully described in terms of three types that closely resemble them, in descending order of similarity.

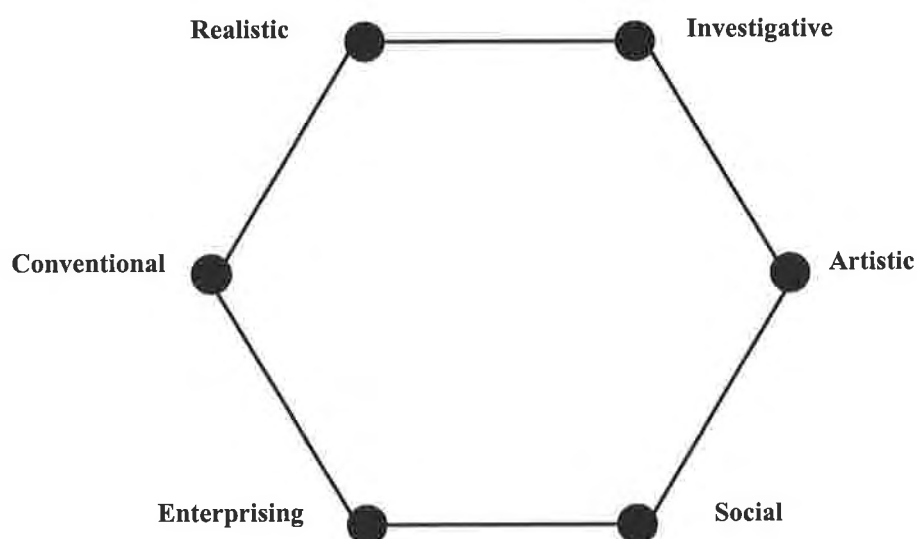


Diagram 2: A hexagonal model for defining the psychological resemblance amongst personality types and environments (Holland, 1997:6)

Although this trait model perspective has been of great significance to careers education and guidance, Moir (1990 cited in Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997) suggested that there is little evidence for such a close relationship between personality and occupational choice. Furthermore, trait-and-factor theories tend to deal with career issues at one point in time. In addition, Holland's theory (1985) describes the content of actual and ideal decisions but not the process of decision-making.

Alternatively, developmental models (Super, 1953; Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951) presented occupational choice as a revealing maturation process involving normative age-graded

stages resulting in an ability to make realistic choices. Such theories take a longer-term, developmental perspective than trait-and-factor theories. One of the first attempts to conceptualise the process of career decision-making was the 'Advanced Development Theory' (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951) which is based on the view that there are three stages leading to an occupational choice over a process lasting several years. The first stage, occurring between the ages of 6 and 11, was defined as 'fantasy choice'; the second stage as 'tentative choice' and occurred during adolescence; whilst the third stage was defined as 'realistic choice' and took place in early adulthood. The 'fantasy choice' definition bears a close resemblance to the 'lottery jobs' identified by Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1997), particularly as the occupational choice process is closely linked to the:

“..general maturation of personality, consideration must be given to the sequential changes – physical, intellectual, emotional and social – that occur during these crucial years” (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951:59).

This theory accentuates that effective vocational guidance is based upon the ability of an individual to understand their personal values and goals, which infers that career professionals need to emphasise the significance of CEG and facilitate the process of understanding personal values and goals. Additionally, it stressed that the developmental process is largely irreversible and tends to end in a compromise between interests, capacities, values, and the opportunities that are available. Killeen (1996b) purported that the individual may be considered within the context of social or cognitive psychology, as someone with a self-concept that they are driven to implement within work. One of the most prolific exponents of self-concept theory is Super (1953).

Super (1953) produced a series of ten propositions, which emphasised the importance of the advancement of an individual's self-concept in the later stages of the developmental

process and the inclusion of home and school experiences in the formative stages. The propositions ranged from the assertion that self-concepts are based on self-observation and comparison to others to a more social-psychological formulation in which identification with significant others becomes central (Killeen, 1996b). This relates to the literature on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986), whereby the opinion of others and the consequences of complying or not complying with these opinions is considered prior to an action being carried out.

These propositions can be reviewed as stating that: people differ in abilities, interests and personalities, hence they are qualified for a number of occupations. Each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests and personality traits, which allow some variety of occupation for each individual and a variety of individuals in each occupation. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which individuals live and work, and hence their self-concepts alter with time and experience, ensuring choice and adjustment are a continuous process. As a result, this developmental process can be summarised as a series of life-stages classified into growth, exploration, maintenance and decline, which subsequently may be subdivided into *a)* the fantasy, tentative and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and *b)* the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.

Hence, this concept suggested that the nature of the career pattern is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic level, mental abilities, personality characteristics and the opportunities to which they are exposed. Development through the life stages can be guided partly by facilitating the process of maturation of abilities and interests, and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of the self-concept. Hence, the process of vocational development is essentially that of developing and

implementing a self-concept and a compromise process, in which the self-concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, genetic make-up, the opportunity to play various roles and an evaluation of role playing by supervisors and fellows. Super (1953) identified the process of compromise between individual and social factors, and between self-concept and reality, as one of role playing regardless of whether the role is played in fantasy, counselling interviews, or in real life activities. Finally, he stated that work and life satisfactions depend upon the extent to which individuals find adequate outlets for their abilities, interests, personality traits and values.

Super's theory (1953) focused attention on the complex process in which the individual attempts to implement their self-concept. He purported that central features of the choice process were the development of self-concept and the development of an awareness of the occupational roles available in the world of work which provide the opportunity for implementing the self-concept. Nevertheless, Moir (1990) also criticised the developmental models, stating that such purified processes of development could not be adequately identified. His research illustrated that no linear development processes were apparent and that choices were made at any age, drawing on both fantasy and realistic models of occupation and reality. These findings are challenged by Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1997), who appear to conform with the 'Advanced Development Theory' model (Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951), as they clearly distinguished the age at which choices about lottery, high status and customary jobs were made.

Hoult and Smith (1978) also stated that, traditionally the numbers of occupational choices made by children between the ages of 11 and 17 steadily decreased until a child fixed upon their chosen career. Likewise, Super (1953) stated that career choice becomes more realistic over time and Blau *et al* (1956) described occupational choice as

a development process that extends over many years. Hoult and Smith (1978) found that school children to the age of 13 had a rapidly increasing awareness of the various career areas open to them. The subsequent two or three years saw a decline in the number of career choices selected and was believed to be due to the continuation of the vocational education process and increased maturity amongst the school children. Furthermore, Hoult and Smith (1978) asserted that the educational process with regards to career choice facilitated the reduction process, as it enabled school children to reject superficially attractive careers because they developed a greater awareness of the disadvantages of different career areas.

The concept of developmental models has progressed to encompass the theory of 'careership' (Hodkinson and Sparkes, 1997). They identified significant discrepancies between the career decision-making models found in both the trait and developmental models and the reality of how students actually 'choose'. Hodkinson and Sparkes (1997) illustrated that, in terms of the transition from school to work, career decision-making has a crucial but conflicting position, as sociological literature emphasises the dominance of socially-structured pathways, whilst policy-making operates on the assumption that individuals are 'free agents'. Moreover, they established that although students gave rationalising reasons for their choices, in reality decisions were pragmatic, opportunistic, based on partial information and highly context-related for the individual student. The importance of unforeseen contacts and experiences, the influence of family background, culture, life histories, feelings and emotions, which comprise an individual's habitus, was found to be extremely significant.

As a result, Hodkinson and Sparkes (1997) proposed a new model of career decision-making termed 'careership', comprising of three integrated dimensions which interact to

generate career choice. The first dimension was termed pragmatically rational decision-making, located in the habitus of the person making the decision and is rational within the confines of the flow of information. The second dimension involves interaction with individuals, including other 'choosers' and those with whom they are socially situated, related to the unequal resources these individuals possess. Finally, the third dimension considers the location of decisions within the partly unpredictable pattern of turning points and routines that make up the life course. They concluded that individuals are influential, if not instrumental, in the development of occupational careers and that careership is not predetermined but subject to change, albeit planned or unforeseen.

Holland's (1985) fundamental hypothesis is that people will be most satisfied and successful in occupations that are congruent with their personality. This reinforces how his theory reflects the static personality differences approach outlined by Sonnenfeld and Kotter (1982). In addition, many of the attributes of Holland's six personality types, such as realistic, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional, can be applied to job roles within the tourism and hospitality industries. This fundamental hypothesis is an important indicator of the fact that the social class perspective does not necessarily govern career choice. "Choice is a psychological process" (Roberts, 1981:283). However, Hodkinson (1995) discovered that career decision-making was context-related and could not be separated from the family background, culture and life histories of the respondents. Indeed, Holland (1997:2) stressed that each personality type is:

"a product of a characteristic interaction amongst a variety of cultural and personal forces including peers, biological heredity, parents, social class, culture and the physical environment. Out of this experience, a person learns first to prefer some activities as opposed to others."

Social class certainly maintains an influential role in terms of the socialisation process

and the habitus of an individual, together with their initial choice of a career. Yet there is no guarantee that career choices made on the basis of social class will be satisfying and rewarding for an individual, especially if the career does not suit their personality or individual aspirations and expectations. Holland's model has also proved useful when studying mid-career changes. Research has indicated that the greater the discrepancy between an individual's profile and that of their occupation, the greater is the propensity to alter fields in later life (Gottfredson, 1977). However, to suggest that career choice is made on the basis of either social class or static personality differences would be to create a false dichotomy, as there is an entire continuum upon which career choices may be founded.

Career decision-making is literally the psychological process involved in forming a career choice (Arnold *et al.*, 1995). Fokkett and Hesketh (1997 cited in Fokkett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997:8) suggested that the choice process:

“..involves many iterations and reiterations in relation to specific educational choices with a continuous matching, re-matching and filtering of new perceptions and available information within the existing choice structures of both pupils and their parents.”

Several factors are considered important to the process of career decision-making:

1. Self-awareness. An individual must have an accurate appraisal of their personal strengths and weaknesses. The importance of examining emotions as well as thoughts, and negative experiences as well as positive ones is usually stressed. Accurate self-assessment is important (Farh and Dobbins, 1989) because self-assessments often fail to concur with assessments carried out by objective tests or by other individuals.
2. Knowledge of occupations
3. Assimilating self-knowledge and occupational knowledge

4. Decision-making styles. Phillips *et al.* (1984) identified three styles specific to career decision-making. Firstly, rational where advantages and disadvantages of various options are considered logically and systematically; secondly, intuitive where various options are considered and the decision is made on 'gut feeling'; and thirdly, dependent where the individual repudiates responsibility for decision-making and assumes other individuals or circumstances will dictate.

2.1.5 The Role and Historical Development of Careers Education and Guidance in Schools

Careers Education and Guidance (CEG) contributes to the Government's aim to give everyone the best possible opportunity, through education, training and work; to enjoy a fulfilling life; to have a stake in society; and to make Britain more economically competitive (DfEE, 1999).

Effective career education and guidance is crucial to preparing young people for working life. It helps ensure that they make the right choices about their learning and future occupations. In addition, it prepares them for the demands of working life, helps them develop the skills needed to manage their own careers, and can increase motivation and achievement. Hodkinson and Sparkes (1993) suggested that career choices made by Year 11 pupils can have a profound effect upon their future careers and life chances, thus demonstrating the importance of effective CEG. Career guidance has been defined as:

“a process of structured intervention aimed at helping individuals to take advantage of the educational, training, and occupational opportunities that are available” (Ginzberg, 1971:4).

Furthermore, he stated that individuals are constrained to attend school, in order to

consider the type of work and life they wish to pursue. This process involves relating development to the opportunities and options available. Therefore, “educational and vocational guidance represents a pivotal intervention” (Ginzberg, 1971:4).

However, careers education and guidance has not always occupied such a significant position in the British education system. Historical facts identified that although the 1926 Hadow Report referred at length to the school’s obligation to be attentive of the future occupations of its pupils, it made no reference to the ‘careers master.’ Macrae (1932 cited in Hayes and Hopson, 1971:1) provided one of the first references to the career master:

“..recently, numbers of schools have appointed careers masters who, in addition to their ordinary teaching work, are charged with the duty of helping boys to obtain suitable employment. At present, however, the emphasis is generally placed on the finding of the post rather than on the precise estimation of the capabilities of the candidate”

Records illustrate that only a brief reference was made to the careers master in the Spens Report (1938) although, again, the job-seeking aspect of the role was emphasised and the position demanded very little educational input.

Hayes and Hopson (1971) suggested that the career master’s appearance can be located somewhere between 1926 and 1932 and inferred that their primary purpose was to help school leavers find suitable employment. Furthermore, they established that there is a complete lack of published discussion of the role of the career master during the 1940s and 1950s and that the term ‘careers teacher’ did not appear in official literature until the publication of the Newsom Report (1963). They proposed that the careers teacher was “..undeniably a product of the 1960s” (Hayes and Hopson, 1971:2). Visible changes, in terms of expectations, occurred after the publication of American research

(Ginzberg *et al.*, 1951; Super, 1957) into the development of pupils' vocational thoughts. Hayes and Hopson (1971) documented copious studies and reports published in the 1960s (Forward from School, 1962; Brunton Report, 1963; Newsom Report, 1963; Preparation of Young People for Employment, 1964; Careers Guidance in Schools, 1965; The Careers Teacher, 1967; Memorandum on Careers Work in Schools, 1968) which serve to illustrate the increasing support for and the progress made in the field of careers education and guidance. In addition, careers work was given a new emphasis and the role of the careers teacher expanded to encompass preparation for adult life.

Prior to the 1960s, vocational guidance was a specialist advisory service that matched the talents and interests of school leavers against what was known about jobs. Alternatively, advice was provided by a variety of amateurs, in the belief that some advice was better than none at all. Hayes and Hopson (1971) stated that neither the specialist advisory services nor the amateurs believed that there was anything to be 'taught'. In addition, career guidance was extremely limited, with no provision for pre-leaving preparation or guidance on adaptation to adult life. These early approaches to vocational guidance were based on trait theory models, with an emphasis on matching individual characteristics to differences in occupational activities and requirements. The situation today is very different. Careers education, information and guidance services enable young people to make appropriate educational and occupational choices at key transition points, based on relevant information about learning opportunities, jobs and the labour market. They also encourage young people to achieve relevant skills and qualifications at their highest level of capability; guide individuals in using their skills and qualifications effectively in their chosen occupational area; and facilitate the matching of individuals to particular opportunities within which they can develop their

skills and potential.

By the beginning of the 1970s, Law (1996b) asserted that government publications were beginning to specify topics for CEG. CEG was to incorporate 'an understanding of self', 'thinking about opportunities' and making 'considered choices'. Consequently, the DOTS model (Law and Watts 1977 cited in Law 1996b:97) emerged, which was applied as an analytical tool for CEG:

1. Self awareness – who am I?
2. Opportunity awareness – where am I?
3. Decision learning – what will I do?
4. Transition learning – how will I cope?

This model enabled CEG to move further than simply 'matching'. It facilitated a curriculum that encouraged the active involvement of school students in participative learning experiences. More recent career models (Herr, 1997) emphasise the 'chooser', the integration of work roles with other life roles, and on broader issues of lifestyle choices, whilst still operating a relatively systematic and mechanistic approach to guidance and making assumptions about the rationality of choice (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997).

In practice, careers education and careers guidance are interwoven, with schools and career services working collaboratively. Generally, schools assume the initiative in terms of the career education programmes, whilst the career services lead in terms of career guidance. Ginzberg (1971) asserted that psychology is the core discipline for both education and guidance, due to its ability to provide a framework for understanding the processes of both cognition and emotional development. Additionally, psychology has a range of techniques that can assess individuals, thus aiding the management of

large numbers of students with diverse abilities.

'Careers Education and Guidance from 5 to 16' (1988) emphasised the need for careers education and guidance due to rapid economic and social change. It reinforced the view that the years pupils spend at school should enable them to provide effective and responsible contributions to the economic and social well being of themselves and others (DES, 1988). Initiatives such as Industry Year in 1986 produced a widespread recognition that schools have a significant and specific contribution to make in preparing young people for adult life and employment. Considerable impetus was given to careers education and guidance in schools by the development of such initiatives. 'Working Together for a Better Future' (1987) affirmed the importance attached to sound careers education and guidance by the government and urged local authorities to involve all their schools and colleges in a review of policy and practice in the field of careers education and guidance. 'Careers Education and Guidance from 5 to 16' (1988) also identified the aims of careers education and guidance as being to: "develop skills, attitudes and abilities, which will enable them to be effective in a variety of adult occupations and roles". Additionally, it recommended that in support of this aim, careers education and guidance should also help pupils to:

"develop knowledge and understanding of themselves and others as individuals; develop knowledge and understanding of the world in which they live and the employment and other career opportunities that are available; learn how to make considered choices in relation to anticipated careers and occupations; and manage the transitions from school to adult and working life effectively" (DES, 1988:3).

Dearing (1993) also highlighted the importance of CEG in supporting school students during academic and vocational choices. Furthermore, Hodkinson and Sparkes (1993) asserted that a key role for CEG should be the empowerment of all young people in order to increase the ability of every young person to maximise whatever agency is

possible in their own particular circumstances.

2.1.6 Implications of the 1997 Education Act on Careers Education & Guidance

The 1997 Education Act included provision to improve Careers Education and Guidance. The purpose of the legislation being to ensure schools and colleges work effectively with the Careers Service and to include new duties on Schools and Colleges in terms of the delivery of careers education and guidance.

The 1997 Education Act rendered that all publicly funded schools are required to: provide a programme of careers education to all pupils in Years 9-11 (section 43); to provide access to careers advisers to enable careers services to fulfil their contract duties on behalf of the Secretary of State (section 44); to work with careers services to ensure that pupils have access to materials providing careers guidance; and to provide a wide range of up-to-date reference materials (section 45).

Sections 44 and 45 apply to all registered pupils, including those with special needs, at county and voluntary schools, grant-maintained schools, Local Education Authority maintained and grant-maintained special schools (other than those in hospitals) and city technology colleges. These pupils are further defined by age, as being in the phase of secondary education normally undertaken by those aged 14 to 19. A Commencement Order brought Sections 44 and 45 into effect from September 1997 (DfEE, 1999).

Within the 1997 Education Act, the term 'careers adviser' refers to a person employed by an organisation that is contracted to provide a careers service, and who provides careers education and guidance to young people in schools and colleges.

a) Careers Education and Guidance Sections within the 1997 Education Act

1. Section 43 places a duty on schools to provide a programme of careers education for pupils aged 14 - 16.
2. Section 44 requires schools and further education colleges to co-operate with careers advisers, particularly by giving them relevant information on pupils and students and by giving them access to pupils and students for the purpose of providing careers advice and guidance.
3. Section 45 requires secondary schools and further education colleges to ensure that pupils and students have access to guidance and reference materials relating to careers education and career opportunities.
4. Section 46 enables the Secretary of State to make regulations to extend the scope of clauses 61 to 63 so that they can apply to secondary pupils outside the age of 14 - 16, to primary schools, and to the provision of careers education in further education colleges. It also allows amendment of the definition of 'careers adviser'.

Under section 44 of the Act schools must work with the careers service and provide facilities for careers service staff to carry out their roles effectively. The duty on schools to give careers services reasonable access to pupils at school is so that: a) the Careers Service can provide careers guidance to young people at their schools; and b) all Year 11 pupils are aware of all careers, training and education opportunities available, have comprehensive accessible information about these, and receive impartial advice on the possible outcomes and implications of different choices.

Section 45 of the Act states that persons attending an educational institution to which this Section 45 applies must be provided with access to both guidance materials and a wide range of up-to-date reference materials, relating to careers education and career

opportunities. This implies that, where practical, schools should provide their pupils with suitable information through a careers' library, which should be a regularly maintained and dedicated area, located within the school, which is open at all reasonable times.

Young people require high quality careers education and guidance to enable them to make suitable choices, to achieve their potential and to make effective use of their skills. Legislation is one aspect of the Department for Education and Employment's overall strategy to improve the quality of careers education and guidance for young people, by outlining the roles and responsibilities of the various partners and emphasises the importance the Government places on careers education and guidance. The 1997 Education Act maintains arrangements for providing good quality careers education and guidance in schools and will help schools target existing resources for career education more effectively.

Partnership forms a key element of the legislation, as good quality careers education and guidance, geared to the needs and ambitions of each young person, depends on an effective partnership between schools and careers services. It is also intended that these partnerships ensure that careers education and guidance in schools meet a minimum standard, are given satisfactory priority by senior management and are properly monitored. A Partnership Agreement between schools and careers services can contribute significantly to effective careers' provision. The career service provides vocational information, guidance and a placing service which: helps young people attain well informed, objective and realistic decisions about their employment, education and training. It also helps those leaving school or college and those young people who leave training or are unemployed to find suitable employment, education or training. In

addition to ensuring that pupils, students and staff at schools and colleges are aware of the demands that working life makes on people and of the opportunities it offers them; and promotes equal opportunities. Each career service must provide its clients with comprehensive and impartial careers information; advice and guidance when making careers decisions; and a service to refer and place clients into education, training and employment (DfEE, 1999).

b) Groups associated with the Career Services

i) Young People

Each young person in full-time education, or part-time vocational education, is entitled to a free information and guidance service from their local careers service. Careers service staff have an unprecedented knowledge of the requirements of further education courses, of training opportunities, and of the demands and availability of jobs locally. They also offer advice on the financial support available to young people whilst they are in education and training or if they are unemployed. The career guidance offered by the service is impartial, objective and based on the needs of each individual.

ii) Schools and Colleges

Each career service works closely with schools and colleges to provide help for clients in full time education. Qualified careers advisers work with teachers and careers co-ordinators to ensure that young people have access to information and advice on the full range of opportunities available to them. Schools and colleges agree, in consultation with their local careers service, a programme of careers education and guidance to be carried out in their establishment.

iii) Parents

Career services maintain substantial contact with parents, recognising the important part they play in influencing young people in their choice of career path. Parents are encouraged to attend their child's guidance interviews, attend careers service open days and parents evenings when careers advisers are present. They are also offered a report on the career education and guidance that their child has received. Career advisers are able to inform parents of the changes in the labour market, together with the structure and range of qualifications.

iv) Employers

Maintaining contact with a wide range of local employers is a high priority for career services. They offer a valuable service to all employers, providing a link between employers and young people in schools and colleges. They ensure that employers recruit those most suitable to their needs, by matching young people to suitable job and training vacancies. The career services can also help employers attract well-trained and motivated staff and provide information on support and assistance available. Other services provided include advice on recruitment, and education and training. The Confederation of British Industry's (1988) case for improved links between school and industry influenced the establishment of government support for Education-Business Partnerships, based on the view that individuals are a key component in the competitiveness of industry within the UK.

c) The Role of Career Co-ordinators in Schools

Responding to the careers education and guidance needs of young people in schools and colleges provides teachers, parents, careers advisers and others with a major challenge. As key partners in the 'guidance community', careers co-ordinators have a vital role to

play in helping and supporting young people in the initial stages of a lifelong process of coping with choice and change.

A major challenge for schools is how they can adequately help young people to prepare for an uncertain future. Careers education and guidance has a crucial role to play in this process. It is widely recognised that the learning needs of pupils are best met through a coherent programme, which is delivered across the curriculum. Effective careers education and guidance is best supported by:

- ◆ a relevant curriculum
- ◆ access to careers information
- ◆ experience of work
- ◆ action planning
- ◆ recording of achievement
- ◆ parental involvement
- ◆ partnership with the careers service
- ◆ links with business, community groups and other educational establishments

('Better Choices - Putting Principles into Practice', DfEE, 1995)

In recent years, careers education and guidance in schools has received a much greater focus, consequently the value of continuous professional development and planned in-service training for careers teachers has been recognised. Training refers to a wide range of opportunities, which enable learning to take place for both individuals and groups. When applied to the teaching profession, the term relates to both initial teacher training and in-service training and development. Most training for careers work in schools is provided through planned in-service training for teachers and other practitioners.

Hayes and Hopson (1971) emphasised the importance, to those providing vocational guidance, of a sound understanding of the dynamics of the choice process. Guidance work implies the existence of favourable conditions, within which competent and knowledgeable individuals can make choices. However, individuals are rarely 'free agents' and may not possess the level of maturity required to secure appropriate choices. Hence, those providing guidance are operating within the constraints of the habitus and socialisation processes that young people have been exposed to. Beven (1995 cited in Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997:10) suggested that:

"to try and give guidance to a pupil without taking account of their interpretation of events, their terms of reference and (...) what is important to them can lead to making assumptions about motivation, values and choices, and the subsequent guidance given may not be particularly appropriate."

Additionally, Hawthorn (1995 and 1996 cited in Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997:8) asserted that choice:

"..whether free or relatively constrained, is dependent upon personal histories, experiences, perceptions and interpretations of the influence of explicit and implicit socio-economic and cultural pressures, both in the individual's immediate family environment and beyond in the social environment and the global environment portrayed by the media."

Hodkinson and Sparkes (1993) also emphasised the fact that school students make career choices that are strongly influenced by factors beyond their control, specifically social structure, culture and the state of the labour market. In addition, much discussion has surrounded the direct influence of school staff on vocational development. Hoyt (1965 cited in Hayes and Hopson, 1971:26) observed that the:

"career counsellor's ability to influence the life of a student is small but there are indications that the counsellor's potential for influence on life aspirations is greater than is generally achieved."

In recent years greater emphasis has been given to careers work in schools as the needs of students have reflected the changing nature of career development. Current trends

and changes in the world of work suggest that lifelong learning will be an essential feature of future career patterns. In reality this could mean: "...a route through life that will cover a wide range of territory and involve many cross-roads and decisions..." ('Better Choices - Putting Principles into Practice', DfEE, 1995). Such reasoning implies that student needs will best be served through educational experiences which develop a knowledge and understanding of themselves; an awareness of the opportunities available to them and a range of career management skills in order to cope with life changes, decisions and transitions. Furthermore, Watts (1993) stated that an emerging structure can be identified in which education and employment are mutually dependent upon each other. This is attributed to the changing nature of learning and work and the subsequent increased public profile of CEG.

The majority of schools have a written policy for careers work, which is consistent with the overall aims of the school. Many of these policies incorporate a student entitlement statement to careers education and guidance. In practice, careers education and guidance provision varies between schools with a corresponding range of careers co-ordinator roles and responsibilities. The specific contribution of the careers co-ordinator is to manage and co-ordinate the overall provision so that the various components are integrated into a coherent programme. Furthermore, as Andrews (1999) illustrated, the role also encompasses ensuring that CEG provision is reviewed, evaluated and developed. Hence, the post-holder is a manager and leader of career work, rather than simply a co-ordinator for CEG.

In order to deliver quality careers education and guidance, careers co-ordinators need to develop knowledge, understanding and skills in certain key areas.

1. Identifying the need for careers education and guidance. This key area involves the

identification of students' career learning and development needs and the need for careers education and guidance in the school. Careers co-ordinators will need to possess a knowledge and understanding of: the scope and purpose of careers education and guidance, such as its aims, objectives and anticipated learning outcomes; basic career development theories; factors which influence student career decision making, such as interests, values, personal circumstances and community contacts; changes in education, training and employment patterns which could affect student career development and progression; and the school ethos and organisational context within which careers education and guidance is delivered.

2. Planning and designing careers education and guidance programmes. This key area involves the development of the careers education and guidance provision that will address the needs which have already been identified. With regards to this area, careers co-ordinators will need to assimilate a knowledge and understanding of: student needs and learning outcomes; the relationship between careers education and guidance developments with the overall school development plan; the integration of careers education and guidance across the curriculum; the process of curriculum planning which identifies quantifiable targets to enable progressive student learning across key stages and describes what students will gain from each part of the programme; the roles of other partners in the planning process, including the careers service; and appropriate modes of delivery to match student needs and school circumstances.
3. Delivering careers education and guidance. This key area of responsibility involves the provision, management and support of a range of learning opportunities and experiences that will directly meet student career learning and development needs.

Therefore, careers co-ordinators will need to develop a knowledge and understanding of: all aspects of careers education and guidance delivery; the roles and contributions of other partners; appropriate teaching and guidance methods to facilitate student learning; and resources to support teaching and learning, such as reference materials, equipment, IT facilities and career publications.

4. Working collaboratively with partners involves the identification and co-ordination of the contributions of other partners who can help in meeting students' career learning and development needs. To achieve this key area, careers co-ordinators will need to expand their knowledge and understanding of: the actual and potential range of partners who can contribute to the provision of careers education and guidance; the local guidance community, including partnerships, formal and informal groups (teachers, careers service staff and others) and national partnership networks, such as the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers; and the specific roles, inputs and interrelationships of the various partners.
5. Evaluating and continuously improving careers education and guidance. This key area of responsibility involves making judgements about how well students' needs have been met and what can be done to inform future provision. Hence, careers co-ordinators will need a knowledge and understanding of: ways of organising evaluations (evaluation models and frameworks for assessing and measuring careers work); the value of evaluation with regard to both school aims and student career related learning; the need to monitor, evaluate and develop work; and the setting of standards, improving and securing quality.

In practice, some careers co-ordinators, because of their level of experience or school

circumstances, may not be involved initially with all five areas. However, the identification of student learning needs and the continuous evaluation of practice are fundamental to the provision of quality careers education and guidance.

However, there is little doubt that problems exist within the provision and delivery of CEG. Research (Cleaton, 1993) found that only one-sixth of schools were attempting any cross-curricular careers education and concluded that CEG was being forced out of the curriculum by core and foundation subjects. Nevertheless, evidence suggested that the position of careers work was strengthening, with 74% of schools possessing a written policy for CEG and 97% had a designated careers co-ordinator. Yet only one-fifth of secondary schools provided separately time-tabled specialist CEG in the last two years of compulsory education. The most commonly identified CEG provision was via personal and social education (PSE). Law (1996b) argued that PSE encompasses many more things than CEG. Similarly, Whitty *et al.* (1994) established that PSE in schools is often not related to other curriculum subjects in a structured manner. However, although it is accepted that PSE does have a wider remit than just CEG, Law (1996b:100) stated that:

“PSE is well placed to help students examine and relate the life-style implications of their actions, seeing how work choices have causes and consequences for consumer, citizen, family and other roles.....”

Hodkinson and Sparkes (1993) outlined ways in which career professionals can enhance the career decision-making process of young people. These suggestions were based upon research that identified pupil's career decision-making as 'restricted pragmatic rationality', incorporating partial information, localised, opportunistic, context-specific, boundedly rational as decisions are influenced by feelings and emotions, and polychronic time that refers to time frames which are important at different times. This

opposes the 'technical rationality' of career guidance processes and procedures, which was found to encompass total information, cosmopolitan, context-free, planned, totally rational and monochronic time which refers to chronological stages of decision-making. The 'enhanced pragmatic rationality' suggested by Hodkinson and Sparkes (1993:259) comprised:

- Increasing the understanding of the social and cultural opportunities and constraints within which school students exist and facilitating strategies to challenge them. Rather than attempting to make career decisions context-free, understanding of the context itself should be promoted.
- Increasing the amount of information available and ensuring a cosmopolitan perspective whilst relating the information to the reality of individuals. Specifically, information needs to be seen as relevant by school students at the time when it is provided, rather than being seen as detached and irrelevant information.
- Expanding the perceived context within which school students make career decisions, to ensure that they modify and expand their systems of relevancies with regards to career opportunities.
- Increasing the self-confidence and self-esteem of school students, as low self-belief may be associated with restricted pragmatic rationality.

The timing of the intervention of career professionals is also of fundamental importance. Research by Houlst and Smith (1978) found that the largest number of career choice possibilities expressed by school children was at age 13. Hence, they suggested that this might be an appropriate time for career professionals to constructively intervene in order to facilitate the career choice reduction process.

The complex and dynamic nature of the careers work role requires careers co-ordinators

to continuously address their professional development needs. 'Better Choices - Putting Principles into Practice' (DfEE, 1995) identifies three areas of potential professional development need:

- ◆ knowledge and information
- ◆ organisation and management
- ◆ skills and techniques

The extent and focus of professional development will vary amongst individual teachers and schools. For a newly appointed careers co-ordinator, for instance, acquiring the skills and knowledge to deliver the careers education programme may well take priority. Most careers co-ordinators balance their careers work role with other responsibilities and Andrews (1999) asserted that in some instances the leadership and management role of the career co-ordinator may be more demanding than that of a head of subject department. Further to the legislation regarding careers education and guidance contained in the 1997 Education Act, a number of recent Department for Education and Employment initiatives have been aimed specifically at improving the quality of careers education and guidance in schools. These include financial support for the training of career teachers and careers advisers and enhanced careers guidance. In addition, the Department for Education and Employment has also supported the production and dissemination of various good practice guides and judgements on the effectiveness of schools' careers education and guidance provision are required to be made during OFSTED school inspections.

Law (1996b:103) presented a synopsis that illustrated why CEG is important, if not to the present time but to the future:

- the humanistic rationale argues that careers work is an investment for personal

choice – a way in which young people are motivated towards lifelong learning and work

- the broader liberal educational rationale argues that careers work is an investment in the social fabric – a way in which young people are attached to their working and learning communities
- the vocational education rationale argues that careers work is an economic investment in the preparation of young people for working life, in order that they can obtain relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes.

Thus, a coherent approach for training in career work, which requires more than the professional development of individual teachers, is recommended. A comprehensive, planned and progressive approach is essential in order to reflect the needs of students; individual teachers; the curriculum; and the school. In practice, individual professional development will only have a direct impact on the quality of careers education and guidance if it is an integral part of a whole school development strategy. Thus, school development plans should reflect the training needs of teachers and vice versa. Barnes and Andrews (1995) state that the failure to unite the two can result in “over-developed individuals in under-developed schools” (DfEE, 1999). In order to integrate the development needs of teachers and schools, a systematic and continuous three stage approach to CEG should be adopted, which includes: identification of needs; response; and evaluation.

2.1.7 Summary

This section has presented an overview of career literature, incorporating career theory and career decision-making. Agents that influence career choices were explored, together with the role and historical development of careers education and guidance in

schools. Within the discussion chapter, issues relating to social class, habitus, socialisation, qualifications and their role within the CEG system and career decision-making process are explored in relation to the empirical data obtained during the course of this research project. The following section focuses upon the tourism and hospitality industries. Specifically, definitions, nature and structure of the industries and employment within tourism and hospitality, which includes an analysis of the service-servility debate.

SECTION 2: REVIEW OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY LITERATURE

2.2 Introduction

This section provides an overview of the ongoing polemic regarding definitions of tourism and hospitality. This serves to highlight the confusion and lack of comprehension about potential careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and explains why those in the external environment often do not appreciate the opportunities that exist within the industries. Literature, which debates the concept of whether tourism and hospitality are separate industries or part of the same, is addressed in order to elucidate why some of the definition issues exist. The characteristics of tourism and hospitality employment are identified, followed by a discussion of the service or servility dilemma. The service or servility debate draws upon the historical background and definition issues surrounding tourism and hospitality, integrated with sectoral employment characteristics. This literature discussion helps to illustrate why careers within the tourism and hospitality industries may not be perceived to be first-choice careers by potential employees.

2.2.1 Defining the Tourism and Hospitality Industries:

a) Tourism

The lack of consistency and acceptance has created much debate surrounding the development of a precise and meaningful definition of the 'tourism industry', as opposed to a general travel industry. Various definitions, concepts and descriptions of tourism tend to arise from the multi-disciplinary nature of the subject and many of the working definitions adopted by government agencies and tourism organisations contain deficiencies that diminish their precision and meaningfulness, as well as reducing the credibility of the tourism industry. A report by the Australian Bureau of Industry Economics (1984 cited in Stear *et al.*, 1989:24) stated that:

“this report covers all activities which directly or indirectly produce final goods or services purchased by the tourist dollar.....By taking account of indirect effects, the definition covers considerably more than the obvious services such as accommodation, transport, souvenirs, restaurants, attractions and entertainment. Other economic activities which benefit from tourism are those which supply inputs to the industries which directly cater for tourists, produce consumer durables such as motor vehicles and recreational equipment used for tourism purposes, and supply inputs to the goods just mentioned.”

Whilst this approach enables the measurement and indirect effect of tourist expenditure, it does not provide a meaningful or useful definition of the ‘tourism industry’. Even the definition of the Australian Tourism Industry Association (1987) lacks clarity, as it defined the tourism industry as “a service industry with direct and indirect linkages into all other industries in Australia” (Stear *et al.*, 1989:25). Similarly, the Wales Tourist Board (2000) makes reference to a “fragmented industry”; a “diverse industry”; a “hybrid of experiences”; “poorly defined industry structures” and a “dynamic industry”.

Academic literature also illustrates the difficulties involved in clarifying a meaningful concept of the ‘tourism industry’. Kaiser and Helber (1978 cited in Stear *et al* 1989:26) suggested that there is no tourism industry:

“rather it takes in a cross section of the entire economy for a region or nation. The impact of tourism revenues and activities cuts across many skill areas, industries and segments of a population.”

Furthermore, they highlighted the problems associated with collecting data, due to the accumulation of industries, enterprises, resources and attractions. Fragmentation is often cited (Foster, 1985; Murphy, 1985; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986) as an obstacle in the search for clarity, as it creates a lack of communication and cohesion. However, Murphy (1985 cited in Stear *et al.*, 1989:26) distinguished both fragmentation and a commonality of purpose:

“..the tourism industry is highly fragmented with many types of businesses and many levels of industrialisation but they all have a common purpose and this is to help a visitor enjoy his trip.”

Smith (1988) suggested that the rationale behind the plethora of definitions used by tourism researchers, government agencies, tourism associations and individual businesses was that they each had their own perceptions and interests, which were reflected in their individual definitions.

Some academics (Burkhart and Medlik, 1974; Heeley, 1980) approached the classification of definitions of tourism with the assertion that there were two main groups into which the definitions broadly fit. The first group was identified as that of conceptual definitions, which attempted to elucidate the essential nature of tourism as an activity, whilst the second group consisted of technical definitions within which designations of types of tourist and tourism activity could be found. The distinctions between types of tourist and what constitutes tourism activity found within the technical definitions enabled organisations to compile statistical measurements of activity. Further research (Buck, 1978; Leiper, 1979) expanded the groups of conceptual and technical definitions to include 'holistic' definitions, intended to encompass the entirety of the subject area, allowing both interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches.

Early literature provided very limited observations into the social nature of tourism, suggesting that technical definitions, rather than conceptual definitions, were applied to initial attempts at definitions. Hence, provided very little insight into the nature of tourism or why people travel. In fact, many of the early definitions, which utilised the technical perspective, focused on the economic aspects (Von Schullard, 1910; Wahab, 1971) of tourism.

The approach taken by Hunziker and Krapf (1942) attempted to express the entity of tourism as both a human and economic activity. They saw tourism as a 'composite

phenomenon', which encompassed a whole range of different relationships between travellers and the host population. Consequently, their approach created the base upon which several later definitions were developed. Burkart and Medlik (1974 cited in Gilbert, 1990:9) defined the subject of tourism by adopting the work of Hunziker and Krapf (1942):

“the totality of relationships and phenomena linked with the stay of foreigners in a locality provided they do not exercise a major, permanent or temporary remunerated activity”.

Although the modern concept of tourism can be partially attributed to the work of Hunziker and Krapf (1942), it has been suggested that their definition was deficient, particularly in terms of the technical perspective. Whilst the definition proposed ideas relating to the social nature of tourism, it relied on the use of accommodation as a necessary component of tourism and stipulated that only those undertaking a remunerated occupation within the country visited would be excluded from tourism measurements (Gilbert, 1990).

In their attempt to distinguish tourism as a ‘unique domain of study’, Burkart and Medlik (1974 cited in Gilbert, 1990:10) proposed that it would be useful to differentiate between the conceptual and technical perspectives of definitions of tourism. They stated that:

“whereas the concept of tourism provides a notional theoretical framework which identifies the essential characteristics of the activity, the technical definitions evolved through experience over time, and these definitions provide instruments for particular statistical, legislative and industrial purposes. Each of the different definitions is seen to be appropriate for different purposes”.

The Tourism Society (1979 cited in Gilbert, 1990:10) adopted a definition of tourism that was based on the work of Burkart and Medlik,:

“tourism is deemed to include any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and their activities during the stay at these destinations”.

This definition identified the inclusion of activities undertaken during the stay or visit to the destination and did not insist upon overnight stays or foreign visits, hence, allowing domestic tourism, as well as day visits. The definitions based on the work of Burkart and Medlik (1974) are an obvious contrast to other definitions, especially those more concerned with distance travelled from home than tourist activities (Australian Bureau of Industry Economics, 1979; Mill and Morrison, 1985). Jafari (1977 cited in Smith, 1988:180) emphasised a knowledge-based approach to the study of tourism. He created a holistic definition that accentuated the concept of a study of man.

“Tourism is the study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host’s socio-cultural, economic, and physical environments”.

Whilst the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST) adopted the definition proposed by Kaspar (1981 cited in Gilbert, 1990:11):

“The entirety of interrelations and phenomena which result from people travelling to, and stopping at places which are neither their main continuous domiciles nor place of work”.

This definition secured the concept of tourism and included the spatial and dynamic aspects exacted for an adequate representation of tourism, yet it failed to enable technical differences to be made by purpose of visit. Lieper (1979:404) stated that tourism should be considered as:

“the system involving the discretionary travel and temporary stay of persons away from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting tours made for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points en-route. The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions, and a tourist industry. These five elements are arranged in spatial and functional connections. Having the characteristics of an open system, the organisation of five elements operates within broader environments: physical, cultural, social, economic, political, technological with which it interacts.”

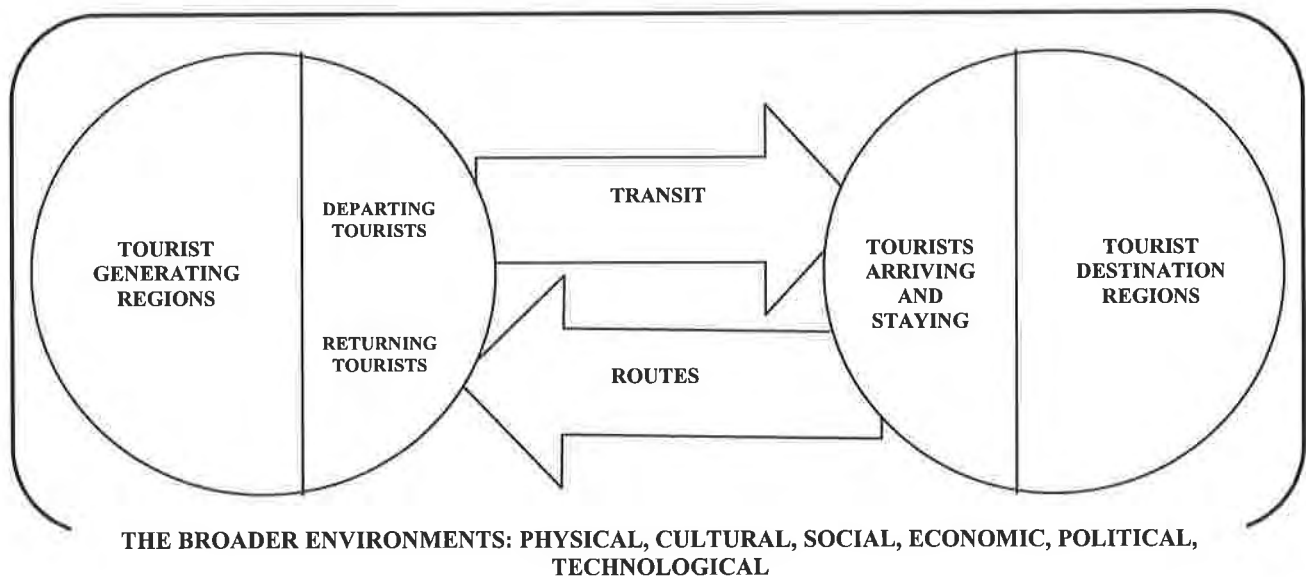


Diagram 3: The Tourism System (Leiper, 1979:404)

Although many of the definitions of tourism achieve their stated goals, they also share a major imperfection, in that they do not, generally, reflect the fact that tourism is an industry. Consequently, tourism perpetually endures a poor reputation from the perspective of economic and policy analysts, government officials and ‘captains of industry’ not involved in tourism. Smith (1988) and others purported that many of these individuals express doubts as to whether tourism can be termed an industry.

“The recurring difficulty for tourism is not being one of those compact sectors with its own neat set of economic parameters. Instead, argue its detractors, it is an untidy composite of many parts with no legitimate claim to call itself a proper industry” (Trove, 1995:19).

Chadwick (1987) asserted that macro-economists considering the overall picture of national economies are inclined to dispute the fact that tourism is deemed to comprise an industry because there is no distinct product or service that can be described. Furthermore, macro-economists argue that any attempts to account for travel and tourism are liable to result in double counting, because activities of all establishments have already been allocated to existing industries.

Lickorish (1970, 1988) described tourism as the movement of people, a market or demand force rather than a single industry. Definitions of industries have, traditionally, specified firms who produce the same product or groups of products so that the consumer regards these products as ideal substitutes for one another, even though the products may differ slightly. Bain (1968 cited in Stear *et al.*, 1989:29) defined an industry as “strictly a group of sellers of close-substitute outputs who supply a common group of buyers.” Basic economics tends to depict ‘an industry’ when the product is homogenous. Gilpin (1973 cited in Leiper, 1979:403) stated that “specifically an industry comprises all those activities, which are directed toward the production of a given class of goods.” However, Medlik (1972 cited in Gilbert, 1990:16) argued that “a firm may consist of more than one establishment and operate in more than one industry.”

Correspondingly, many (Wahab, 1971, 1975; Lundberg, 1976; McIntosh, 1977) have accepted that tourism should be treated as an industry, whilst appreciating that the difficulties encountered when defining tourism are a result of the very broad nature of both the concept and service inputs (Gilbert, 1990). Furthermore, Leiper (1979:403) stated that “in complex modern economies, products are typically heterogeneous and the basic [economic] definition does not always apply.” This view is supported by Nobbs (1975 cited in Leiper, 1979:403), who asserted that:

“the further one moves from primary to secondary and tertiary industries the less homogenous and the more differentiated the product becomes....An industry may be considered a classification of firms; the classification is made possible by grouping the firms according to the most noticeable characteristic that they have in common.”

Tourism encircles various other industries such as the accommodation, airline, cruise, food service and rail industries. In addition, it also encompasses attractions, retailers and tour wholesalers, as well as a range of public services. Stear *et al.* (1989) and

Gilbert (1990) both identified the 'free', natural, non-industrial, intangible resources which provide input to the product. Furthermore, they distinguished between services crucial to tourism and those that are merely supportive. Young (1973 cited in Gilbert, 1990:17) declared that:

"it is a heterogeneous group embracing a large variety of trades and industries which have the supplying of travellers' needs as their common function....it is wrong to believe that tourism has a recognisable shape with neatly interlocking components."

It is common for authors to attempt to examine the product or output rather than the structure of the tourism system. Hence, because tourism does not produce a distinct product, many (Chadwick, 1981; Papadopolis, 1986) argue that it cannot exist as an industry as it does not sell just one product nor is one single sector involved. Some individuals (Papadopolis, 1986) have even suggested that tourism in the conventional sense is not a market. Conversely, it has been recognised (Medlik and Middleton, 1975; Foster, 1985) that whilst the tourism industry comprises of many different sectors, from the perspective of the individual tourist, there is solidarity in that a single composite product is perceived as the industry's output. Medlik and Middleton (1975 cited in Stear *et al.*, 1989:27) described the product as:

"not an airline seat or a hotel bed, or relaxation on a sunny beach, but rather an amalgam of many components, or a 'package'."

Furthermore, they purported that while this is most obvious when tourists purchase an industrially 'packaged' tour it is equally veracious for independent travellers who construct their own combinations of products with the suppliers of touristic services and goods supplying just the components. Foster (1985 cited in Stear *et al.*, 1989:27), who believed that the total touristic experience was a definable product, sustained this approach:

“..to the various members of the tourism industry, the tourism ‘product’ is different things....however, for the tourist the product is the complete experience....from the time they leave home until they return.”

Nevertheless, owing to the fact that tourism is difficult to define distinctly, due to the expansive activities that it covers, problems exist in determining to what extent it falls within the context of an industry. Gilbert (1990) asserted that these problems exist because tourism is treated as a ‘holistic concept’ when in reality it is characterised by an exceptionally fragmented framework of industries, bodies and touristic activity. Mill and Morrison (1985) referred to tourism as an activity rather than an industry; however, the activities that comprise tourism tend to have a major beneficial effect on copious world economies. Smith (1989:31) outlined several of the definitions that have been proposed which suggest a potential industry definition. These included: the US Senate Committee on Commerce, Science and Transportation (1978):

“the interrelated amalgamation of businesses, organisations, labour and governmental agencies which totally or in part provide the means of transport, goods, services, accommodations and other facilities, programmes and resources for travel and recreation”;

and Leiper (1979):

“the tourist industry consists of all those firms, organisations and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists”.

Such definitions tended to share two familiar characteristics. Firstly, they were supply-side definitions, focusing on the production of commodities rather than the demand for those commodities, hence illustrating an approach consistent with that used by other industries to define themselves. Secondly, the definitions tended to have an inherent weakness, in that they implied the inclusion of businesses such as restaurants that service the needs of both the host population and tourists as part of the tourism industry. Smith (1989:32) reinforced the importance of incorporating a distinction into any operational definition between businesses that are effectively ‘pure’ tourism and those

that are only partially tourism. He claimed that a failure to make this distinction would result in a:

“consistent overestimate of the magnitude of tourism as an economic force, thus contributing to the continued lack of credibility of the field.”

This statement supported the concerns voiced by Chadwick (1987) regarding ‘double counting’ and, more recently Leiper (1999) regarding misleading statistics on tourism jobs.

Earlier work by Smith (1988) discussed the development and application of an operational definition of the tourism industry by the (Canadian) National Task Force on Tourism Data (1985). Previous definitions were found to be ‘demand-side’ definitions, as they attempted to define tourism in terms of who was a tourist. Hence, undermining the accepted definition of an industry, which is usually defined in terms of the goods of services produced, not the characteristics or motivations of their consumers. Therefore, it became apparent that a supply-side definition had to be developed, as a definition of tourism founded upon tourists’ characteristics would not be comparable to other industrial definitions, the key feature of a supply-side definition being its focus on the commodities produced by the industry. The following definition was proposed:

“Tourism is the aggregate of all businesses that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure and leisure activities away from the home environment” (Smith, 1988:183).

This supply-side definition possessed several key features that other definitions had lacked. Firstly, it considered tourism as a retail service industry, enabling a conceptualisation and measurement of tourism consistent with other industries. Secondly, the definition was simple, objective and allowed independent measurement and verification due to the inclusion of business, pleasure and leisure activities; and finally, it included the concept of ‘home environment’ - which although lacks clarity - is

unimportant for a supply-side definition of tourism. The proposed definition assumed that a set of businesses serve people who travel away from their home environment for any purpose, regardless of what operational definition may be selected for the term 'home environment' (Smith, 1988). Additionally, this definition, although a supply-side definition comparable with previous definitions, progressed a stage further. Tourism businesses were divided into two tiers, with tier one comprising of businesses which would not exist without travel, whilst tier two comprised of businesses which would continue to exist without travel, but in a diminished form. It was deemed that the businesses found in tier two derived a significant proportion, but less than 100 per cent, of their revenues from tourists.

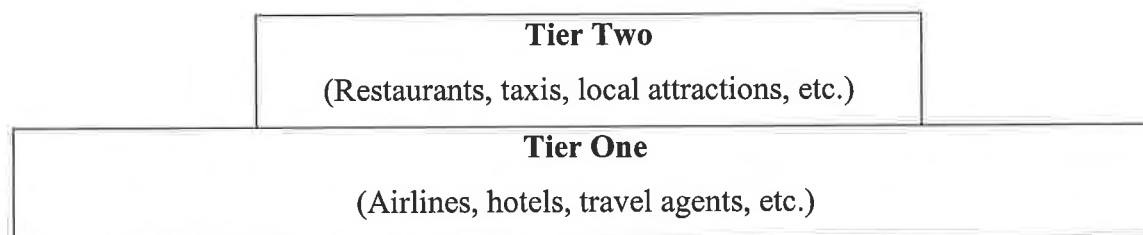


Diagram 4: Supply-side Tier Model (Smith, 1989:32)

This perspective was challenged by Stear *et al.* (1989), who in an attempt to provide a precise and meaningful definition of the tourism industry purported that:

“The tourism industry is the collection of all collaborating firms and organisations which perform specific activities directed at satisfying the particular needs of tourists”.

Unlike Smith (1989) they asserted that it was precise and meaningful because it included only those firms that were industriously and purposefully performing specific production and marketing activities directed at the particular needs of tourists and excluded firms who did nothing to cause tourism in terms of both its volume and qualitative aspects. However, this definition and justification is challenged by the

definition proposed by Weaver and Oppermann (2000:3), who adapted the work of McIntosh *et al.* (1985) which placed tourism in a stakeholder context.

“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 organisations, in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing these tourists and other visitors.”

Weaver and Oppermann (2000) credited their expanded list of stakeholders with increasingly important roles in the tourism equation, which supports claims that tourism is a multi-faceted industry requiring more of an input than simply those involved directly with tourists and visitors. Likewise, with regards to the debates surrounding the acceptance of tourism as an ‘industry’, Gilbert (1990:17) concluded that:

“tourism, whilst having no clear boundary delineation or concise conceptual clarification does, due to the overall size and impact of spatial and temporal movements of people with varying service needs for shelter, sustenance, entertainment and travel, produce the basis of an industry.”

The debates that still abound as to a precise definition of tourism and what constitutes the tourism industry highlight the issues of misperceptions and incomprehension about the industry. If those within the industry cannot agree upon what constitutes the tourism industry, the effective promotion of careers within tourism to potential employees will prove difficult. Discussions relating to the primary data collections of this research project illustrate how these issues of misperceptions and incomprehension filter into careers education and guidance programmes and ultimately impact upon the career decision-making process.

b) Hospitality

Hepple *et al.* (1990:305) emphasised the wide-ranging applications of the concept of hospitality, which may be used by different groups in different ways. They suggested that the word 'hospitality' refers to "...a broad range of factors which are similar or have a common thread". The hospitality industry is often defined as "those businesses serving people away from home" (Olson and Blank, 1987:282).

Lashley (2000) asserted that in recent years, both academics and industry practitioners have increasingly used 'hospitality' to describe the industrial and commercial provision of accommodation, food and drink as an economic activity. He suggested that, reflecting changes in the industrial descriptor used by practitioners, the study of hospitality continues to be hotel and catering management by another name.

'Hospitality' literally comprises of two distinct services, the provision of overnight accommodation and the provision of sustenance, which satisfy two very basic human needs – the need to sleep and the need to eat. Mullins (1995:4) identified 'hospitality' as a collective term, to:

"...include hotels, motels, guesthouses, bed and breakfast, farm houses, holiday parks, restaurants, fast food outlets, cafes, department store catering, public houses, clubs, industrial catering, institutional catering and the related area of tourism and leisure".

Jones (1996:1) purported that the term 'hospitality' has emerged as the way hoteliers and caterers want their industry to be perceived, to reflect the tradition of service that can be traced back to "the earliest days of innkeeping." However, it could be argued that this actually conjures up the image of servility that is often associated with hospitality, especially as definitions which include the terms 'obligation of..' or

'provision of..' are exclusively concentrating on one side of the hospitality exchange, that of the provision of a service, an issue which will be discussed at a later stage.

Lashley (2000) cited copious examples of previous attempts to define hospitality (Burgess, 1983; Cassee, 1984; Heal, 1990; Visser, 1991; Mennell *et al.*, 1992; Telfer, 1996) which explored aspects such as the social psychology of mutuality and reciprocity associated with hospitality, anthropology, sociology, philosophy, culture and the multi-disciplinary nature of hospitality. However, more recent definitions tend to confirm the prevailing absorption with commercial provision.

The Joint Hospitality Industry Congress (1996) defined hospitality as "the provision of food and/or drink and/or accommodation away from home", similarly, the Higher Education Funding Council – England (1998) defined the industry as "the provision of food and/or drink and/or accommodation in a service context" (Lashley, 2000:5). Tideman (1983 cited in Brotherton 1999:167) also defined hospitality from an economic perspective:

"the method of production by which the needs of the proposed guest are satisfied to the utmost and that means a supply of goods and services in a quantity and quality desired by the guest and at a price that is acceptable to him so that he feels the product is worth the price".

Brotherton (1999:167) challenged this definition as being a "definition of almost any economic activity". Such definitions are largely determined by the economic activities of hospitality, in terms of the supply of goods and service to various sets of consumers. Herein lies a conspicuous distinction between the hospitality industry and the tourism industry.

Olson and Blank (1987) discussed the lack of a universal framework that precisely defines hospitality industry components, yet despite this, the classification of hospitality as an industry is generally maintained through the Standard Industrial Classification, unlike the classification of tourism as an industry, which is continuously debated. The Standard Industrial Classification commenced in 1948 to provide “uniform statistical records of industrial growth and activity” (Jones, 1996:2).

Under the 1968 classification, the hotel and catering industry was defined as “establishments (whether or not licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquors) providing meals, light refreshments, drink or accommodation”. This classification was revised in 1980 to comprise divisions of broad groups of economic activity. Individual industries are referred to as ‘classes’ within each division, which are then subdivided into sectors or groups, which can be further divided by activity. The hospitality industry was primarily classified in division 6, under class 66 ‘Hotels and Catering’. However, confusion existed with some activities being included in division 9, ‘Other Services’, although these were mainly industrial and institutional catering activities.

In 1992, a new, much more ‘streamlined’ Standard Industrial Classification was adopted, which is contrasted against the 1980 Standard Industrial Classification codes in the following table:

1980				1992	
Division 6 Services					
Class 66	Group	Activity	Hotels and Catering	SIC Code	Sub-sector
	661		Restaurants, snack bars, cafes and other eating places	551	Hotels Includes: hotels, and motels with restaurants; licensed hotels and motels; unlicensed hotels and motels; hotels and motels without restaurants
		6611	Eating places supplying food for consumption on the premises: a) Licensed places b) Unlicensed places	552	Camping Camping sites and other provision of short-stay accommodation. Includes: youth hostels and mountain refuges; camping sites, including caravan sites; other provision of lodging not elsewhere classified; holiday centres and holiday villages; other self-catering accommodation; other tourist or short-stay accommodation.
		6612	Take-away food shops	553	Restaurants Includes: licensed restaurants; unlicensed restaurants and cafes; take-away food shops.
	662	6620	Public houses and bars	554	Bars Includes: licensed clubs and entertainment; public houses and bars.
	663	6630	Night clubs and licensed clubs		
	664	6640	Canteens and messes: a) Catering contractors b) Other canteens and messes		
	665	6650	Hotel trade: a) Licensed premises b) Unlicensed premises		
	667	6670	Other tourist or short-stay accommodation: a) Camping and caravan sites b) Holiday camps c) Other tourist or short-stay accommodation not elsewhere specified		

Table 1: 1980 classification source: Jones, 1996:3; 1992 classification source: DTZ Piedad Consulting, 1998:100

However, Lashley (2000:14) identified the limitations of these economic definitions and proposed a need for a wider understanding of hospitality, derived from the fact that hospitality is essentially a relationship based on host and guest. He asserted that:

“..to be effective, hospitality requires the guest to feel that the host is being hospitable through feelings of generosity, a desire to please and a genuine regard for the guest as an individual.”

Without this, the relationship between the host and the guest could be counter-productive if the guest senses a calculative and economic hosting. King (1995) also identified the need to be hospitable, as during the 1980s, when hospitals and other types of health care organisations were in competition with each other for patients, one competitive advantage identified was the ability to be hospitable. Furthermore, Christian (1979 cited in Burgess, 1982:50) suggested that hospitality:

“can be defined as generous and cordial reception of guests offering pleasant and sustaining environment. The guest is made to feel at home and naturally comfortable.”

More recently, Telfer (2000:39) purported that:

“hospitableness is the name of the trait possessed by hospitable people. It is clearly something to do with hospitality.... The central idea of the concept remains that of sharing one’s own home and provision with others”

In accordance with the argument provided by Lashley (2000), Telfer (2000:41) stated that:

“being a good host is not really enough for being hospitable. For we would say that a host was not genuinely being hospitable if we discovered that he or she had an ulterior motive for being so attentive, one that had nothing to do with any desire to please the guests or any belief in an obligation to do so..”

She concluded that hospitableness is not an option for commercial hosts.

“In choosing that kind of job they have in effect chosen hospitableness as one way in which they will try to show generosity, kindness and so on, since so much of their life is spent in contexts where hospitableness is called for” (Telfer, 2000:55).

Conversely, Brotherton (1999:167) asserted that many definitions confuse:

“hospitable behaviour, or hospitableness, with hospitality and fall into the trap of suggesting that one of the important features of hospitality is making the guest ‘feel at home’..”

There are two factors to discuss with regards to this issue, firstly, the ‘feel at home’ factor, and secondly, confusion between hospitable behaviour, hospitableness and hospitality. With regards to the ‘feel at home’ factor, he is extremely cynical and suggested that:

“this purported characteristic is so historically and socially value laden, and imbued with totally unwarranted assumptions, that even a cursory examination will find it to be patently nonsensical. In many hospitality situations....the last thing which guests or receivers wish to feel is ‘at home’. The whole ‘at home’ issue is predicated on the assumption that an individual’s home life is akin to some kind of stereotypical middle-class idyll, but if an individual has a miserable home life the last thing they would wish to be made to feel is as though they were at home!” (Brotherton, 1999:167).

Furthermore, he suggests that one of the main motivations for staying at a hotel or eating out is that there is a ‘novelty value’ attached, which provides the individual with the opportunity to do and experience something which is a change from the norm and is different to domestic routines.

“Hence, hospitality is invariably designed to make guests feel as though they were not at home, and is desired for this very aspect” (Brotherton, 1999:167).

On the contrary, the study conducted by Hepple *et al* (1990:316) revealed that:

“the concept of hospitality can be applied to hospitals and that those non-medical aspects of hospitals, which are important to making patients feel as ‘at home’ as possible in hospital can be identified and do meet with agreement from a relatively large (390 respondents) sample of patients expressing their feelings during a hospital stay.”

Hence, the ‘feel at home’ factor may be attributed to the individual guest, the surrounding environment and the situation within which the guests find themselves in that environment.

In relation to the second factor, concerning the confusion between hospitality and hospitable behaviour that exists in many definitions, Brotherton (1999:168) stated that:

“the inclusion, and purposive ordering of the product parameters (accommodation, food and drink) serves to differentiate hospitality from hospitable behaviour. For hospitality to exist something more than hospitable behaviour must be evident..”

He purported that it is the three elements of accommodation, food and drink that expedite the differentiation between hospitality and hospitable behaviour. “Hence, the product component is an integral foundation of the hospitality concept” (Brotherton, 1999:168). Likewise, Andrews (2000) conceded that hospitality is principally concerned with establishing and augmenting guest-host relationships, but suggested that, in the commercial hospitality of a package holiday, the notions of obligation and reciprocity are often used to disguise commercial transactions. Telfer (1986 cited in Lashley 2000:11) suggested an important demarcation between being a host and being hospitable:

“Being a good host implies more than specific behaviours such as ensuring drinks are full and guests have plenty to eat. It requires a genuine desire to please guests and make them happy. Hence, genuine hospitable behaviour requires ‘an appropriate motive’ and a hospitable person is thereby, ‘someone who entertains often, attentively and out of motives appropriate to hospitality’”.

Brotherton (1999:165) also suggested that the use of the terms ‘hospitality’ and ‘hospitality management’ in contemporary hospitality-related research literature is “rather variable and fluid.” Regardless of the fact that the use and acceptance of the term ‘hospitality’ has been widespread amongst academics and industry practitioners, preliminary research within this particular research project has identified a lack of awareness amongst many respondents. Initial discussions and interviews illustrated confusion regarding the meaning of the term ‘hospitality’, which appeared to prompt restrictive images of hospitals and residential homes rather than the wide ranging

organisations generally classified as being within the hospitality industry. However, this association is not as unusual as it may first appear.

Christian (1979 cited in Burgess, 1982:50) expounded that hospitality “originates from the Latin noun *hospice* – a place of entertainment or of shelter.” Cassee and Reuland (1983) highlighted, firstly, the difficulties of defining the concept of hospitality and, secondly, the relevance of the concept of hospitality to hospitals. Meanwhile, Hepple *et al* (1990:305) stated that:

“there is a good case for seeing hospitality as an important attribute of a satisfactory hospital stay and further, the more at ease people feel, in the hospital situation, the sooner they recover..”

King (1995) also discussed the application of the concept of hospitality to health care operations. She suggested that although the word ‘hospital’ and ‘hospitality’ are derived from the same source, some hospitals have not been regarded as very hospitable places. In order to achieve a competitive advantage in the marketplace, hospitals and health care organisations recognised the need to be seen to be hospitable. Evidence suggests that some hospitals instituted guest relations programmes, similar to those of companies like Disney and Marriott (Zemke, 1987; Betts and Baum, 1992). Although there are obvious differences between an organisation such as Disney and health care organisations, Betts and Baum (1992:62) argue that there are fundamental similarities.

“Both are service organisations. Both have guests – guests who expect to pay large entrance fees and therefore have high expectations of the service and the outcome of their experience. How we live up to guests’ expectations determines their satisfaction, our image in the marketplace, and ultimately our success.”

However, it is important to appreciate the differences between British and American health care provision when illustrating this strategy.

Non-hospitality organisations that refer to their customers as 'guests' are, according to King (1995:219):

"using hospitality as a metaphor or shorthand to describe (or prescribe) for their employees a type of relationship with those customers. Metaphors are useful in communicating cultural values throughout an organisation, however, employees must be in agreement as to what the metaphor means.....and they must be able to act according to the values that the metaphor stands for. Here, the use of a hospitality metaphor was intended to tell employees that they should treat patients *as if* they were guests. However, limiting the meaning of this metaphor to courtesy and complaint handling skills of front line employees only addressed one aspect of the guest-host relationship."

Hepple *et al.* (1990) cited other definitions of hospitality, which focused upon the one-way process of provision by the host (Onions, 1972; Nailon, 1981) and which may have served to reinforce the image of servility. Christian (1979 cited in Burgess, 1982:50) appeared to suggest that this is related to the historical development of hospitality "hospitality throughout history has been centred around security, physical comfort, psychological comfort, all centring around offerings, gratis or commercial, to others by a host." Nailon (1982:137) confirmed this by stating that "deeply embedded in the tradition of hospitality management is the concept of service." Burgess (1982:50) proposed that the concept of hospitality could be represented as a package.

"The outer, primary interacting element is that of the social relationship fostered by the warm, friendly, welcoming, courteous, open, generous, behaviour of the host, creating the hospitable social environment. This supports and promotes the positive feeling of security and comfort created by the physical structure, design, décor and location of the facility. Finally, the provision of accommodation facilities to sleep, eat, relax and wash, together with the supply of food, beverage, service and entertainment."

Hepple *et al* (1990:306) considered the usefulness of Burgess's conceptualisation, in particular, the fact that it illustrates the interactiveness of the hospitality experience. As a result, they identified several implications:

a) the consumer's impression of the provider is built-up partly from some social relationship/interaction;

b) all the representatives of the hospitality industry who are to come into contact with the consumers will, to some extent, be seen as ambassadors of the establishment, which must influence staff recruitment, selection, training, assessment, etc.;

c) the hospitality experience occurs at a specific time with the attendant problems of perishability.

Furthermore, Hepple *et al.* (1990:307) suggested that individuals involved in the delivery of 'hospitality offerings' have a crucial influence on its success, an issue that has education and training implications. As a result, they outlined fundamental key factors that constitute hospitality - "physical comfort, security and psychological comfort and security, with some underlying acknowledgement of a payment." Similarly, the definition proposed by Cassee and Reuland (1983 cited in Hepple *et al.*, 1990:307) stressed that "...hospitality factors are blended together and the feeling created in the consumer is of great importance." In its modern sense, Hepple *et al.* (1990 cited in King 1995:220) concluded that hospitality comprises four distinct characteristics:

1. It is conferred by a host on a guest who is away from home
2. It is interactive, involving the coming together of a provider and receiver
3. It is comprised of a blend of tangible and intangible factors
4. The host provides for the guest's security, psychological and physiological comfort.

King (1995:229) identified four attributes of hospitality in general.

"First, hospitality is a relationship between individuals, who take the roles of host and guest. The host provides generously for the well-being, comfort and entertainment of the guest. This typically includes offering food, drink, sleeping accommodation and/or entertainment. Second, this relationship may be commercial or private (social). In the commercial-relationship, the guest's only obligation is to pay and to behave reasonably. Private or social hospitality

assumes an equality of power, and the guest has a social obligation to contribute to the relationship by being good company, and to reciprocate to the host in some way. The commercial hospitality relationship is not a relationship between equals. It is the host who seeks to please, who provides, and who fulfils. The guest is always free to withdraw patronage if he is not satisfied. Third, the keys to successful hospitality in both the commercial and private spheres include having knowledge of what would invoke great pleasure in the guest, and delivering it flawlessly and generously. Inherent in the hospitality, but perhaps not always evident is the concern for security for both the guest's person and property. Fourth, hospitality is a process that includes arrival, which involves greeting and making the guest feel welcome, providing comfort and the fulfilment of the guest's wishes, and departure which includes thanking and invitation to return. At each step of the process, these courtesies, or social rituals are enacted and define the status of the guest and the nature of the guest/host relationship."

The differences identified by King (1995) between commercial and private hospitality relationships is explored further in the work of Shamir (1980), in particular, the issue of voluntary participation of the guests and the subordinate status of the host in the commercial setting.

Lashley (2000:5) stated that, fundamentally, the definition must be broad ranging to allow for analysis of:

"hospitality activities in 'social', 'private', and 'commercial' domains...each domain represents an aspect of hospitality provision which is both independent and overlapping. The Social domain of hospitality considers the social settings in which hospitality and acts of hospitableness take place, together with the impacts of social forces on the production and consumption of food/drink/and accommodation. The Private domain considers the range of issues associated with both the provision of the 'trinity' in the home as well as considering the impact of host and guest relationships. The Commercial domain concerns the provision of hospitality as an economic activity and includes both private and public sector activities."

A single, concise, all-encompassing definition of hospitality has yet to be achieved and universally accepted, as Ingram (1999:141) stated:

"the absence of a clear classification framework is reflected in the nature of the hospitality product, which is a complex amalgam of components.."

However, attempts have been made to address this problem. Brotherton (1999:168) proposed the following definition of hospitality:

“a contemporaneous exchange, which is voluntarily entered into, and designed to enhance the mutual well-being of the parties concerned through the provision of accommodation and food or drink.”

Lashley (2000:14) commended this definition with regards to the fact that it enables a consideration of the guest-host relationship, but warned that it:

“limits consideration of the notion of reciprocity [and] may also discourage consideration of hospitality in a wider social and private setting.”

Nevertheless, Brotherton (1999:168) stated that:

“..[It] transcends the issues of form, motives and scale, and context and focuses attention on the essential elements of the hospitality concept. The inclusion, and purposive ordering, of the product parameters (accommodation, food, drink) serves to differentiate hospitality from hospitable behaviour.”

The most recent definition offered of the hospitality industry proposed that:

“the hospitality industry is comprised of commercial organisations that specialise in providing accommodation and/or, food, and/or drink, through a voluntary human exchange, which is contemporaneous in nature, and undertaken to enhance the mutual well being of the parties concerned” (Brotherton, 2000:143).

As with the debates surrounding tourism definitions, the lack of clarity regarding what is hospitality and the hospitality industry does little to promote a cohesive progressive industry with career opportunities to potential employees. Furthermore, the lack of clarity only serves to contribute to the lack of understanding that exists within external environments, such as the world of careers education and guidance and the family as social institutions, which shapes attitudes towards careers. These issues are further explored within the primary data obtained within this research project.

2.2.2 Tourism & Hospitality: Separate or Combined Industries?

It is extremely difficult to purposely divide tourism and hospitality and treat them as two completely separate industries, as the boundaries between the two sectors are becomingly increasingly overlapped, particularly as industrial structures are changing as a result of integration within and between the travel and accommodation industry. Horner and Swarbrooke (1995) argue that this is a result of postmodernism and cite examples of attractions with on-site accommodation and sophisticated catering operations. However, this is not a modern or even post-modern phenomenon.

The historical development of the commercial hospitality industry is clearly linked with the development of the transportation industry and subsequently the tourism product. Specifically, the emergence of the railway network in the UK during the mid-nineteenth century created a demand for accommodation, which led to the development of terminal railway hotels. Consequently the development of luxury hotels was stimulated by an increase in travel by the upper echelons of society. Additionally, historical evidence (Cooper *et al.*, 1993; Holloway, 1994; Youell, 1998) suggests that the development of seaside resorts and the expansion of hotels within these resorts is indebted to the development of the UK railway network, which facilitated an increased demand for travel and enabled day trips to become a reality for the masses. Knowles (1994) also identified the significance of the developments in air transport and car ownership in terms of improving the accessibility of resorts and hotels.

As a result of the connection with travel and leisure, the tourism and hospitality industries are often linked together.

“Tourism for business or pleasure requires accommodation and food for travellers who are away from home” (Ingram, 1999:141).

This type of consumer approach towards tourism and hospitality may alleviate the compartmentalisation of the two sectors, which has become a real issue, especially with regards to the debates surrounding definitions. Additionally, it could be argued that reducing the compartmentalisation of the two industries might help to ameliorate levels of understanding and awareness of potential career progressions within tourism and hospitality.

However, there are those who question the close relationship between tourism and hospitality. Brotherton (1999:165) stated that:

“it is rarely clear where the boundaries of hospitality are drawn in relation to ‘near neighbours’ such as tourism and leisure, or the structural and behavioural characteristics of the service industries such as retailing, financial services etc., and whether hospitality should be conceived as a product, a process, an experience, or all three!”

Meanwhile, Olsen and Blank (1987:282) are quite definite in their distinction between tourism and hospitality:

“The difference between hospitality and tourism is that in the case of the former, the operations are specialised to serve people away from home (department stores may be a part of tourism but not hospitality) and a hospitality service may occur in the home area or work area. A restaurant illustrates the distinction – it is always a part of the hospitality industry, but only that part of sales to people away from their usual residence or work area can be considered tourism.”

The use of a restaurant operation to illustrate this distinction could be deemed to be rather equivocal, especially as problems exist when classifying diners as tourists, visitors or local residents.

Primary data obtained from career professionals during the course of this research tended to reinforce the assertion that tourism and hospitality are fundamentally separate industries, with hospitality focusing on catering and tourism being concerned with travelling and interpersonal skills. There was a suggestion that, by their very nature,

tourism and hospitality were intertwined, but their basic components were different. A minority view supported the argument that tourism and hospitality are the same, but this was generally perceived to be due to a lack of understanding or the fact that it was often easier to present tourism and hospitality as a combined industry. An overriding opinion was that a greater understanding of the terminology would propagate the view that tourism and hospitality are separate industries, as discernible differences would become apparent.

In simplistic terms, tourism and hospitality are different, with tourism being related to the short-term movement of people to places some distance from their normal place of residence, whilst hospitality is concerned with the provision of places to sleep and food and drink. Yet, as with the terminology definitions, the polemics will continue due to the undeniable relationship between tourism and hospitality, as tourism is an activity, whilst hospitality is concerned with the supply side, hence they are both involved with the provision of services.

2.2.3 Tourism & Hospitality Employment: Characteristics

Although the development of the tourism and hospitality industries creates new employment opportunities, critics of the industries contend that tourism and hospitality employment provides predominantly low-paid, low skilled jobs that are demeaning (Choy, 1995). Furthermore, some (Hansen and Jensen 1996; Leiper 1999) have contested the perception that tourism, as a large industry, provides huge opportunities for jobs and careers. Aside from exaggerated mass media messages, other factors have been held responsible for producing misleading statistics. One of the most prominent issues is the variation which still exists with regards to definitions of tourists and tourism, which in some cases allows for a very broad range of visitors to be captured

within tourism figures (Leiper, 1999). The occurrence of seamlessness within the industry, in terms of the distinctions between tourism, hospitality and leisure becoming blurred, enables tourism employment figures to be inflated. However, Leiper (1999) asserted that the underlying factor responsible for misleading employment statistics is that full-time equivalent jobs are purported to represent real jobs, which perpetuates manipulation of the true facts.

The negative aspects of tourism and hospitality employment tend to focus upon the physical demands of the job and poor conditions of work. In particular, tourism and hospitality employment is frequently characterised by low pay, long working hours, high labour turnover and a lack of training. Biswas and Cassell (1996) highlighted features such as unskilled labour, the transferability of skills between a broad range of establishments and high levels of absenteeism. Hayter (2001) also highlighted the fact that reports of attempts to circumvent the minimum wage and exploit asylum seekers do little to promote the image of employment within tourism and hospitality.

This situation is compounded by the high incidence of labour turnover within the industries. Labour turnover is often accepted by some within the tourism and hospitality industries as inevitable and a natural process, whilst others perceive it to be beneficial, as it enables them to manipulate the size of their workforce (Lashley and Chaplain, 1999). Nevertheless, labour turnover is a cost to tourism and hospitality businesses and can create severe operational difficulties. Research (HtF, 2001) has shown that many employers are unwilling to invest money in training beyond induction as employers are unlikely to recoup the advantages.

Keep and Mayhew (1999), in their generic paper on the leisure sector, into which tourism and hospitality were categorised, identified a number of employment characteristics:

- Dominance of small employers and micro-businesses
- A workforce which is predominantly young, part-time, female and lowly qualified
- Relatively low wages
- Unsocial working hours and patterns of work
- Poor or non-existent career structures in terms of progression to managerial occupations
- A lack of cohesive and consistent human resource management systems
- High levels of labour turnover

Baum (1995) identified additional characteristics in relation to tourism and hospitality labour markets:

- The inseparability of production and consumption and the intangibility and perishability of the product
- High levels of fluctuation in demand and labour-intensiveness

Part-time employment is the usual antidote to the uneven distribution of work, providing employers with a reserve of peripheral workers, with which to supplement the core workers. Hence, allowing employers to have a degree of numerical flexibility. However, the pivotal factor in their employment is that the temporal fluctuations in demand are predictable, thus facilitating regular part-time employment. As emphasised by Baum (1995), the tourism and hospitality industries provide a labour-intensive service at the point of contact with the customer. Whilst demand is fairly rhythmical and predictable, isolated peaks of demand are prone to occur. Such isolated peaks can only be effectively and efficiently met through temporary increases in labour at the

point of contact, via functional or numerical flexibility. The dominance of self-employment and small family businesses within the tourism and hospitality industries in the UK provides an alternative response to fluctuations in demand, in the form of self-exploitation, "rhythmic fluctuation in demand will be met by a willingness to work very long hours" (Shaw and Williams, 1994:148).

Part-time and casual employment is an inherent characteristic of work within the tourism and hospitality industries, and whilst labour flexibility may be seen as a positive attribute, it also has the potential to be detrimental. Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) identified that perceptions of nursing as a career were linked to an increasingly casualised labour force and flexible part-time workers tended to be perceived as low-skilled workers. Although labour markets have experienced a transition towards flexibility, particularly within the tourism and hospitality industries, occupations requiring a flexible workforce may not be identified as viable career choices. Part-time jobs are more likely to be staffed by locals than full-time jobs (Shaw and Williams, 1994).

This opinion is supported by the work of Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998), who identified that the unskilled flexible generic workforce is usually recruited locally, whilst those entering management roles are recruited nationally. Within the UK, part-time employment is significantly higher in the tourism and hospitality industries than in other European Union countries. The UK accounts for 49%, compared to Austria 16.5%, France 23%, Greece 0.5% and Italy 11.5% (Keep and Mayhew, 1999:6). The high proportions of casual and part-time staff employed within the industries may be less inclined to view the tourism and hospitality industries as a long-term career option,

perceiving it to be a transient job. Subsequently, part-time and casual employees may be unwilling to invest in industry-related qualifications.

One factor likely to contribute to poor qualification attainment within the tourism and hospitality industries is the willingness of employers to recruit people without the necessary qualifications. Although this approach is often linked to the problem of labour shortages, it may dissuade relatively highly qualified students from considering tourism and hospitality as career options. Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) identified that the selection procedures adopted for entry into particular careers could convey varying degrees of image and status. Higher status tends to be attributed to those careers that appear to be highly selective in terms of entry. As a result, such career areas are often awarded a higher degree of professionalism. Baum (1995) argued that in other European countries, hotel employment in particular has a stronger tradition of perceived professionalism than within the UK.

The concept of professionalism is closely associated with status but may also incorporate personal attributes, such as career aspirations, progression and attitudes. With regards to access into the industry, Baum (1995) cited Switzerland as an example, where specific qualifications are required in order to work in particular management and skill areas. Furthermore, the traditions of hospitality and tourism management education and training in other European countries serves to illustrate the importance awarded to the development of practical skills. Weak internal labour markets are often characterised by the absence of professionalism and the demand for seamlessness between operational and managerial functions reflects weak internal labour markets. Sheldon (1989 cited in Baum 1995:146) established a number of dimensions in relation to the concept of professionalism:

- Extended period of education and training
- Professional code of ethics and body of knowledge
- Organised through professional trade associations
- Complex nature of the occupation
- An altruistic service
- A requirement for a specific licence to practise the particular occupation
- High prestige and high income
- An occupation which is competence tested
- Self-employment

Remuneration is also associated with the level of professionalism that exists within an industry. Levels of pay are often dependent upon the market demand for particular skills. Industries that have weak internal labour markets, such as the tourism and hospitality industries, often demand fairly generic skills, which are accessible at a low cost within the marketplace. Hence, the tourism and hospitality industries do little to counteract the perception of low pay and low skilled employment.

The situation within the tourism and hospitality industries in the UK with regards to a lack of professionalism is hindered by the trend towards de-skilling, fuelled by the need to minimise costs and address labour shortages. Consequently, qualified individuals may not consider the tourism and hospitality industries to provide viable career opportunities. Baum (1995) asserted that increasing flexibility within the tourism and hospitality workforce can be detrimental, as it will only serve to weaken the labour market. De-skilling and flexible working practices are deemed to be contradictory to the features of a strong labour market. Nevertheless, de-skilling and flexibility are compatible, as the simplification of various tasks places them within the skill capabilities of a wider range of employees.

2.2.4 Tourism & Hospitality Employment: Service or Servile?

King (1995:221) outlined the historical role of hospitality in society, within which the 'obligation of hospitality' is identified.

"In some societies, the host's obligation was expanded to include not just the assurance of safety, but also the provision of comfort, ease and welcome. Sometimes, this relationship was extended to include the giving of lavish gifts or even the favours of the host's wife (Leed, 1991). White (1970) observed that the harder the physical conditions the greater the obligation of hospitality. He gave two examples: Arab hospitality in the desert, where to hesitate in setting food before a stranger would be shameful, and Arctic hospitality of the Eskimos, who place their wives at the disposal of their guests."

This 'obligation of hospitality' and reference to the 'provision of..' strongly suggests the presence of servility – a term often used to describe the hospitality industry and emphasising links with domestic service and subordination. Baum (1995) appeared to be rather dismissive of the romantic portrayals of the origins of mass tourism and the Grand Tour (Turner and Ash 1975; Towner 1985; Buzzard 1993; Steinecke 1993). He purported that such portrayals gave little consideration to employment and seemed to assume that the early stages of tourism and hospitality did not involve work or service delivery. However, Saunders (1981 cited in Baum 1995:120) illustrated the historical association between domestic service and tourism and hospitality employment, which served to perpetuate the 'up-stairs-downstairs' culture.

"It will not have escaped attention that some of the practices that have grown up in this century [nineteenth], such as living in and tipping, were carried over into some of the service industries, particularly hotel and catering. Servants suffered also the disadvantage of the scattered nature of their employment, which made it difficult for them to form associations..."

Guerrier and Adib (2000:257) suggested that employees in the hospitality industry are often perceived to be:

"the dregs of society; doing dirty, tedious and hard jobs for little pay because they have no alternative."

Shamir (1980:741) discussed the concept of Subordinate Service Roles (SSRs). He purported that SSRs indicated:

“organisational boundary roles in which an organisation member performs direct service to a non-member whose status is higher than that of the service giver.”

Thompson (1962 cited in Shamir 1980:742) defined boundary roles as:

“roles that link the organisation with its environment through interaction between an organisation member and a non-member”.

Certain roles are more likely to encounter ‘role conflict’, defined by Kahn *et al.* (1964) and Rizzo *et al.* (1970) as:

“the simultaneous occurrence of two or more incompatible sets of pressures regarding the role occupants expected behaviour” (Shamir, 1980:742).

Early studies tended to focus on managers, organisational leaders and people in bargaining situations. However, Shamir (1980:742) identified other boundary roles that could experience high levels of role conflict, which he referred to as:

“subordinate service roles: the waiter, the receptionist, the taxi driver, the bus driver, the bank teller, the sales person in a store, the hairdresser and the like. The service organisations in which these roles are carried out have two main characteristics: first of all, unlike human processing organisations such as hospitals or schools, they have no ‘mission’ and no intention to change or mould the behaviour of their clients. The employees of such organisations are commonly not considered professionals or ‘experts’. Secondly, clients’ participation in the activities of the organisation is voluntary, they do not have to use the service, but have to be motivated to do so. As a result of these two characteristics, the status of the service role occupant in such organisations is subordinate relative to that of the client..”

This latter point regarding the voluntary participation of clients is supported by the work of King (1995), who asserted that the commercial hospitality relationship is not a relationship between equals.

Furthermore, Shamir (1980) discussed the issues surrounding 'person-role conflicts' in SSRs and incorporated the work of Terkel (1972). In particular, he considered inequality dilemmas and the conflict surrounding feelings versus behaviour.

"In many SSRs there are expectations both from clients and from superiors that the role occupant will emphasise his subordinate status in his behaviour. It is commonly assumed in service organisations that the client wishes to feel important, and the service worker is expected to 'build up the client's ego'. This expectation is more explicit in hotels where training literature refers to customers as Mr King and Mrs Queen....The motto 'the customer is always right – even when he is wrong' is an expected norm in service organisations." (Shamir, 1980:744).

Additionally, Shamir used the work of Butler and Snizek (1976) to illustrate his belief that the mutual address forms used in service situations highlight the inequalities between clients and SSRs.

"While the client is addressed as 'Sir' or 'Madam', the service giver is addressed by his first name, by a nickname or by the name of his job. Thus there is a conflict between service-role requirements and values of equality that exist in society outside the service organisation." (Shamir, 1980:744).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) contributed to research on the role of emotion in the workplace, in particular the display of expected emotions by service providers during service encounters. Their work developed the concept of emotional labour introduced by Hochschild (1983 cited in Ashforth and Humphrey 1993:89) who argued that:

"service agents are expected to experience and express certain feelings during service interactions but that attempting to conform to those expectations causes certain pernicious psychological effects among the agents."

Hochschild (1983 cited in Briner 1999:17) defined emotional labour as, "the management of feeling to create publicly observable facial and bodily display.." In addition it has been suggested that emotional labour has an exchange value, in terms of employees receiving wages for displaying particular emotions and that, in many cases the display of certain emotions is a job requirement and the job may not be carried out, without displaying the required emotion.

Shamir (1980:746) commented upon issues surrounding feelings compared to behaviour, primarily the assumption that the role occupant will convince the client that they enjoy their role. "The most salient expression of this expectation is the requirement to smile." The expression of emotion, which are intended and marketed as natural, genuine and authentic displays of real emotions are of utmost importance to service occupations. Parkinson (1991:420) used a media example to illustrate the importance of 'genuine' emotions within service occupations:

"When you look across the bar, you're looking across the footlights. You've got to put on an act. You may feel like taking an overdose but you mustn't let it show – that's not what the customers are here for.....Just bear in mind what I've told you and smile! A natural smile at all times." (Alec Gilroy offering advice to a new member of the bar staff at the Rovers Return, Coronation Street, 17 September 1990)."

Where emotional expression is an inherent or desired component of role performance, the manner in which emotions are expressed is often prescribed (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995). This tends to be the case within the tourism and hospitality industries, particularly in situations where all staff are exposed to generic customer care training. Generally, such training dictates the expected emotions of staff in order to convince guests that they are enjoying their role, as well as purveying positive emotions upon guests and promoting the corporate image of the organisation.

Taylor (1998) claimed that since the early 1980s and the retrenchment of manufacturing, emotional labour has increased in significance amongst many employers due to the upsurge in female employment and the growth of the service sector.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993:107) suggested that:

"emotional labour is a double-edged sword in that it can facilitate task performance by regulating interaction and precluding interpersonal problems, or it can impair performance by priming expectations of good service that cannot be met."

The concept of 'emotional contagion', whereby individuals catch emotions through conscious information processing or unconscious imitation illustrates the work of Shamir (1980), regarding feelings compared to behaviour. Hatfield *et al.*, (1992 cited in Ashforth and Humphrey 1995:113) defined emotional contagion as:

"A tendency to mimic another person's emotional experience/expression....and thus to experience/express the same emotions oneself"

In particular, emotional contagion demonstrates the belief that, through smiling and other expressions of positive emotions, the role occupant will convince the guest that they enjoy their role and may contribute to the holistic service experience of the guest.

It has been suggested that if the concept of identity were to be incorporated, emotional labour could be enriched, particularly if individuals identify with their roles within the organisation, as this has the potential to generate positive benefits of the organisation and promotion of its corporate image:

"individuals who strongly identify with their organisational roles are apt to feel most authentic when they are conforming to role expectations...conversely, individuals who define themselves in terms of other social groups....are more apt to experience emotive dissonance and self-alienation" (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993:98).

The importance of the incorporation of identity is illustrated by the work of Darke and Gurney (2000:83) who expressed the view that:

"the performance of hospitality is fragile and precarious necessitating careful and continual impression management. Whilst 'letting the side down' always carries the risk of sanctions either material (deduction of wages, fine, loss of performance bonus) or moral (shame, ostracism, embarrassment) the risks of failing to meet required standards of hospitality are particularly grave."

Shamir (1980:746) also explored other methods of 'control' within SSRs, particularly instruction manuals that relate to service workers' appearances and the initiation and termination of an interaction.

“Contrary to most interpersonal relationships where both sides have some rights and ability to control their entrance into interaction and exit from interaction, in SSRs, due to the subordinate position of the role occupant and his or her exposure, the right to determine the beginning and the end of the interaction is mainly at the hands of the client.”

There are three issues regarding this type of conflict. Firstly, the role occupant has little or no control over a very important aspect of the role, that of interaction with the guest. Secondly, the guest determines the nature of the relationship and level of intimacy with the role occupant, which could be a source of serious conflict between the guest and the employee, as territories may be infringed. Finally, this potentially conflicting situation serves to illustrate the unequal power status of those involved in commercial hospitality and the reliance on the voluntary participation of the guest, compared to those involved in private hospitality, as previously identified by King (1995).

Conversely, Guerrier and Adib (2000:267) suggested that examples of high status and rewarding work in the hospitality industry do exist. They quoted a receptionist in a five-star London hotel, who described the role of the concierge:

“It’s so specialist that a concierge will earn a basic £20,000 on paper but their take home pay is probably close to £80,000. Because they send people to restaurants where a party of four are going to pay £1000 to £2000, so they’re tipped by that person leaving the hotel....And it’s easily £100 just to say thanks for the evening. And then of course, the restaurant will thank them because they’ve sent so many people over to them, after a time....”

However, this example raises the question of whether the concierge is working for the hotel, the guest or even an external organisation, such as the restaurant. Shamir (1980:748) examined this type of conflict, which he termed ‘the two bosses dilemma’.

“Organisations normally require universal and specific treatment of clients...they expect the service role occupant to treat all clients equally....while the client expects the service-giver to consider his special case and treat him as a whole person. This type of conflict is particularly severe in subordinate service roles where the status of the client is typically higher than that of the role occupant, who finds himself in a situation of having to comply with conflicting expectations from two different bosses.”

There is also a darker side to the tourism and hospitality industries. The example provided by White (1970) regarding the giving of sexual favours within Arctic hospitality also illustrates the servility aspect, with regards to attempts by the host to meet all the needs and wants of their guests. Unfortunately, such perceptions of the hospitality industry still exist and have been highlighted in the data collected during the course of this research. One participant within this particular project related an incident whereby a school student had associated hospitality with prostitution. Although this may appear to be a complete misinterpretation of the industry, there is a well known, although rarely mentioned sex tourism market and other studies have illustrated this.

Guerrier and Adib (2000) explored the issues that arise when guests exploit the bounds of normal behaviour and ask for an explicit service that is not provided. They quoted a male receptionist from a budget airport hotel, who claimed that the following example illustrated frequently encountered situations:

“People just come down and say ‘I’ve had a long day, I’m very stressed out, do you know where I can get a b*** j** or... At the front desk, they don’t shout it out because, of course, they don’t want other people to hear ...

[The receptionist] nevertheless felt that it was inappropriate to be rude to the guest:

You’re scared they might complain and say he wasn’t being helpful. You just think if they trust in you saying that to you at least you can respect it and just not be rude to them and say ‘go away, I don’t know that stupid information’. If you really don’t know you just say ‘I’m really sorry I can’t help you’ and not be rude about it. Everyone’s different.

He kept in role even when asked for a service that was even more outrageous:

One guest...he comes down and goes ‘Do you have any entertainment?’ and we said ‘hm’. ‘Can you send one of your colleagues up to my room?’ and I just went ‘Hm – no I don’t think she’ll come up to your room’ and he goes ‘well you’ll do anyway’ and I said ‘No, we don’t provide that service ‘ and walked away. He was really serious. He goes ‘well you’ll do, just come up’ like we’re obliged to do it..... He just thought it was a service we should provide him.” (Guerrier and Adib, 2000:266).

Darke and Gurney (2000:84) purported that researchers have tended to ignore aspects of sex tourism and sexual harassment within the tourism and hospitality industries:

“..particularly involving settings and destinations where acts may be practised that are prohibited at home.....the chambermaid has long been the subject of male sexual fantasies and the term ‘hostess’ has acquired sexual connotations....”

Consequently, Guerrier and Adib (2000:266) stated that:

“exhortations by hotel management that staff should do whatever it takes to ensure that guests are totally satisfied take on an ironic meaning. In reality, hospitality service involves a series of complex negotiations between guests and service providers about what is and what is not acceptable behaviour. When the expectations are in line with each other, the interaction is a satisfying experience for both but the service provider is extremely vulnerable if guests choose to step over the boundaries.”

It would be myopic to suggest that perceptions relating to domestic service, sexual innuendoes and subordination are purely misconceptions. Pizam (1982) equated service with servility and servitude, thus associating service sector employment with a perceived status of inferiority, especially in countries with colonial legacies. There are many global examples whereby the host’s obligation and desire to meet the needs of guests often equates to servility:

“in many areas of the Third World...tourism [and hospitality] is associated strongly with servility; it reawakens memories of the colonial past” (Crick, 1996:35).

Furthermore, Crick suggested that such socio-historical factors could affect the way in which tourists are treated. These studies tend to support the earlier work of Shamir (1980) with regards to SSRs and potential conflicts involving: inequalities; emotional labour; interpersonal behaviour and human territory. It could be argued that role occupants in other customer service occupations suffer from aspects of vulnerability from their clients, yet, tourism and hospitality employees are more likely to encounter a myriad of ‘intimate’ boundaries that need to be determined and which are susceptible to ambiguity and misinterpretation, due to the very nature and setting of the industry.

Realistically, however, many of the “servility” aspects discussed serve to illustrate hidden, rather than integral aspects of hospitality employment (Guerrier and Adib, 2000). Selwyn (2000:19) asserted that the intrinsic activity of hospitality is to create a new relationship or to foster an existing relationship and the exchange of goods and services allow these relationships to be procured. Furthermore, he argued that hospitality, through the exchange of material and symbolic goods and services:

“..either consolidate structures of relations by symbolically affirming them, orare structurally transformative..... Hospitality converts: strangers into familiars, enemies into friends, friends into better friends, outsiders into insiders, non-kin into kin.”

Ingram (1999:140) epitomised the contrasting and conflicting images created by the word hospitality as being dependent upon:

“whether you are a recipient or a provider of its services.....receivers of hospitality might imagine friendly, social occasions enhanced by good food and drink and the warmth of the welcome. Those who provide these services, however, may recollect the drudgery of producing this fare and serving it to people who are often fussy and ungrateful.”

This observation has most definitely been illustrated by the data collected within this research project. Many instances have been recorded where participants described the hospitality (and tourism) industries from a consumer perspective during which they used words such as “warm” and “welcoming”, whilst they were less than complimentary about working within the industries. Thus illustrating dissonance between image and reality. Yet ease of entry into the tourism and hospitality industries, ‘hidden’ career progression opportunities and limited training investment may perpetuate the labour shortage. Increasing participation rates in higher education creates a workforce that is reluctant to seek employment in the unskilled and semi-skilled areas of tourism and hospitality employment and who are likely to be attracted to other sectors which value their potential (Brennan and McGeevor 1988; Purcell and Quinn 1996).

2.2.5 Summary

This section has provided an overview of the inconsistencies which still exist with regards to the definitions of tourism and hospitality, which serves to illustrate why there is a lack of understanding in the external environment amongst those who influence the career decision-making process. Moreover, the image of employment in the tourism and hospitality industries is of paramount importance in the attempt to address the shortfall of quality, skilled labour. Oftentimes, image and reality are not one and the same thing. As such, whilst the reality may reflect a wide diversity in working conditions, salary levels, status and professionalism, the image portrayed of employment within the tourism and hospitality industries may be based on 'worse-case' scenarios or out-dated, biased information. Disparities between the image and reality of working within the tourism and hospitality industries are explored within the discussion chapter, in relation to the primary data obtained during the course of this research project.

Theories relating to attitudes, behaviour and attitude change are identified in the following section, which also incorporates previous studies appertaining to attitudes towards careers and employment within the tourism and hospitality industries. This enables associations to be made between attitude and behaviour theories and the situation regarding attitudes towards the tourism and hospitality industries. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986) and concept of cognitive dissonance assist in the explanation of why tourism and hospitality were not consciously selected as first-choice career within the primary data collated during the course of this research project.

SECTION 3: REVIEW OF ATTITUDE LITERATURE

2.3 Introduction

This study is seeking to investigate attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality. Hence, an examination of the concept of attitudes, behaviour and attitude change is fundamental to the literature review, as well as an overview of previous studies regarding attitudes towards tourism and hospitality employment. The literary discussion addresses the formation of attitudes and definitions, which incorporates the three components of attitudes: affective, cognitive and behavioural. Theories regarding the relationship between attitudes and behaviour are also explored, with reference to the theories of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1974; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980) and planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden 1986). The implications of cognitive dissonance and attitude change are outlined, which include consideration of the variables involved in persuasive communication: source, message, recipient and situational variables. Previous research into attitudes towards employment within the tourism and hospitality industries is then examined. This previous research, integrated with theoretical concepts contributes to the interrogation of the primary data collected from career professionals, school students and parents with regards to their attitudes towards the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales.

2.3.1 What is an Attitude?

Attitudes are reinforced by beliefs and often attract strong feelings that may lead to particular behavioural intents (Oppenheim, 1992). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) outlined the distinction between attitudes and beliefs and the different emotional dimensions involved. They asserted that:

“..the beliefs we hold are relatively neutral: they are simply statements which are believed to be true. But the attitudes we hold are evaluative: they indicate how we feel about the matter concerned.....The emotive language people use when

describing something is often a key indicator to their underlying attitude.”
(Fishbein and Ajzen 1975 cited in Hayes 1993:93)

Furthermore, values are “..consistent, personal assumptions which underpin attitudes” (Hayes, 1993:93). Judgements are made against the benchmarks of personal values and principles and, therefore, convert a belief into an attitude (Gross, 1996). Generally, individual’s attitudes are usually dormant and are expressed in speech or behaviour only when the object of the attitude is perceived, furthermore, attitudes do not exist in isolation within the individual. They tend to have links with components of other attitudes and with deeper levels of an individual’s value system (Oppenheim, 1992).

McDougall and Munro (1994:116) established that whilst numerous definitions of attitudes have been suggested, most “..contain some reference to an enduring predisposition towards a particular aspect of one’s environment”. This is illustrated by the following definitions of attitudes “..learned predispositions to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way towards a given object, person or event” (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975 cited in Hayes, 1993:91) and “an attitude is an evaluative disposition towards some object. Its an evaluation of something or someone along a continuum of like-to-dislike or favourable to unfavourable..” (Zimbardo and Leippe 1991 cited in Gross, 1996:435).

The definition proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) also emphasised that attitudes are learned, consistent and concerned with favourable or unfavourable responses. This is supported by Rokeach (1968 cited in Gross, 1996:435) “a learned orientation, or disposition, toward an object or situation, which provides a tendency to respond favourably or unfavourably to the object or situation”. Similarly, Secord and Blackman (1969 cited in Arnold *et al.*, 1995:167) suggested that attitudes are “certain regularities

of an individual's feelings, thoughts and predispositions to act toward some aspect of his [sic] environment.”

Eagly and Chaiken (1993 cited in Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000:252) supported these earlier definitions whilst emphasising the classes of response or components upon which attitudes are created “[attitudes are] tendencies to evaluate an entity with some favour or disfavour, ordinarily expressed in cognitive, affective and behavioural responses.” This definition relates to the earlier work of Secord and Blackman (1969) in terms of feelings representing the affective component, thoughts the cognitive component of an attitude and predispositions to act the behavioural component.

Many attitude theorists (Rosenberry and Hovland 1960, Ajzen and Fishbein 1980, Stahlberg and Frey 1988) accept that attitudes consist of three components of classes of response: affective, cognitive and behavioural. This approach was founded on the work of Allport (1935), Krech and Crutchfield (1948), Cartwright (1949), Smith (1947) and Katz and Stotland (1959) who believed that uni-dimensional affective or evaluative measures did not do justice to the complexity of the attitude concept (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

The affective component of an attitude relates to an individual's positive or negative emotions or feelings towards a particular attitude object. Affective responses may involve verbal expressions of feelings or physiological reactions. Collectively, the evaluation of specific characteristics associated with a particular attitude object will contribute to an overall evaluation of that attitude object, whether favourable or unfavourable.

The cognitive component of an attitude comprises beliefs, opinions, knowledge or information held by an individual towards an attitude object. For any object of interest, it is highly likely that an individual will possess a number of beliefs that may be indicated in the form of verbal expressions of beliefs or non-verbal perceptual reactions. Individuals may acquire beliefs and opinions about a particular attitude object without having any personal experience of that attitude object. As knowledge levels are increased, preferably through personal experience, the structure of beliefs becomes more established and organised, with certain beliefs about various characteristics assuming different degrees of importance. When combined, these beliefs constitute the cognitive component of an attitude towards a particular object.

The behavioural component, which may be referred to as the conative component of an attitude, relates to how an individual actually responds or intends to respond to a particular attitude object, based on the individual's affective and cognitive responses (Gross, 1996). Ajzen (1993 cited in Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000:252) defined this as "behavioural inclinations, plans, intentions and commitments, as well as overt motor acts involving the attitude object." Generally, the behavioural dimension is orientated towards the complete attitude object, rather than concentrating on a specific characteristic or attribute (McDougall and Munro, 1994).

The following model was designed to provide a schematic representation of the three-component view of attitude structure. It identifies an attitude as an intervening variable between observable stimuli and observable responses (Gross, 1996) and illustrates the assumption that the three components are highly correlated. All responses to a specific stimulus object are mediated by the individual's attitude towards that object (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

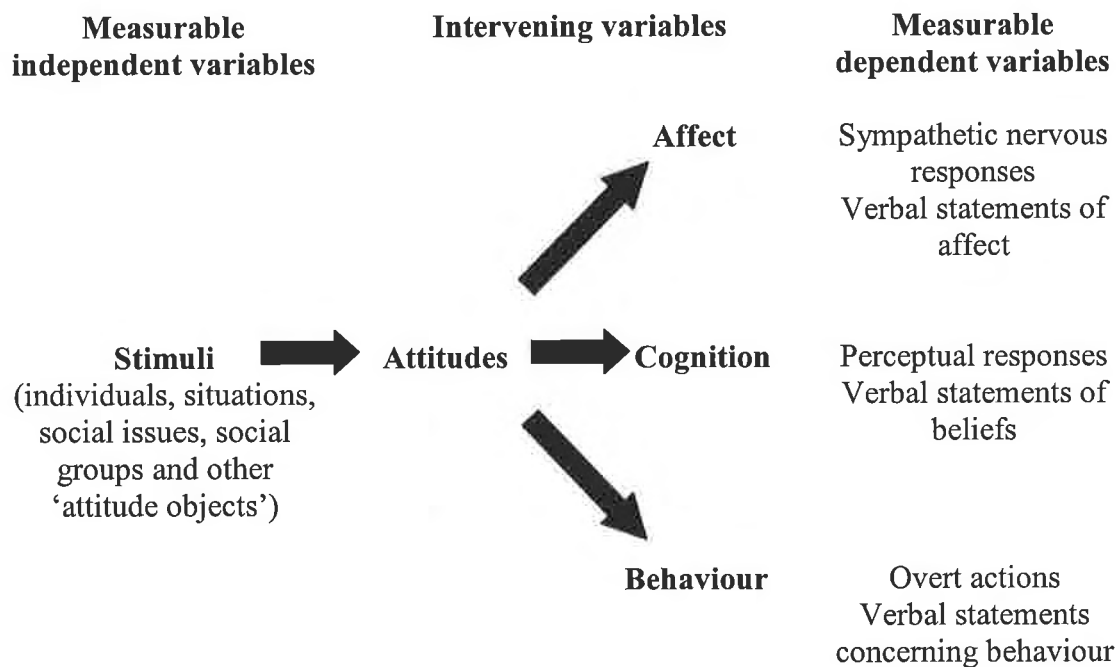


Diagram 5: Three-component View of Attitude (Rosenberg and Hovland 1960 cited in Ajzen and Fishbein 1980:19)

This schematic representation infers that a complete description of attitudes requires an assessment of all three components, by acquiring measurements of each of the three response classes. Therefore, attitude measurements based only on one or two response classes would be incomplete. Hence, the three components of an attitude should be highly correlated (Gross, 1996). As a result, an individual's beliefs about a particular attitude object should be consistent with their evaluation of that object and the behaviour taken towards that attitude object should also be compatible with the other components of the attitude structure. Given this inclusive view of attitudes, it is difficult to assume anything other than a strong positive relationship between attitude and behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). However, controversy exists regarding the multi-component model, specifically the suppositions that a high correlation must exist between the three components and that there is a relationship between attitudes and actions (behaviour).

2.3.2 Attitudes and Behaviour

Breckler (1984 cited in Arnold *et al.*, 1995) established that although feelings, beliefs and behaviours towards an attitude object tend to be accordant with each other, they are not so highly accordant with each other that they can be presumed to be the same thing. This view is supported by the work of Thurstone (1931 cited in Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980:15) who identified that:

“..although a person’s attitude toward an object should be related to the pattern of his behaviour with respect to the object, there is no necessary relation between attitude and any given behaviour.”

Similarly, Doob (1947 cited in Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980:19) concluded that there was:

“..no innate relationship between attitude toward an object and any given behaviour with respect to that object. Two people may learn to hold the same attitude towards a given stimulus, but they may also learn to emit different responses..”

An investigation into racial prejudice (LaPiere, 1934) demonstrated how the attitudes people say they have may be quite different from the attitudes implied by their behaviour. LaPiere accompanied a Chinese couple on a journey across America, which incorporated hotel stays and restaurant dining. Over 90% of places accepted the customers, even though anti-Chinese prejudice was a major racial bias in American society at that time. Six months later, LaPiere contacted the same hotels and restaurants to enquire whether they accepted Chinese guests. Almost all the hoteliers said they did not. As a result, the findings raised distrust about the assumption of a strong relationship between attitude and behaviour, as the attitudes that individuals express may not necessarily enable a prediction about how they will act. However, Ajzen (1988) argued that this was misleading and asserted that, in general, people do act consistently with their attitudes, but those attitudes may vary in terms of being very global or general in nature to being very specific to a particular object, place or event.

McDougall and Munro (1994) illustrated how different levels of specificity can have profound implications. To investigate the general attitude of an individual towards something requires the incorporation of a wide variety of related beliefs, feelings and behaviours. Conversely, to examine the attitude of an individual towards a particular event, the parameters are more clearly defined and only need to consider specific beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to that event.

With regards to LaPiere's investigation, situational factors are likely to have influenced behaviour. The presence of LaPiere and the politeness of the Chinese couple may have made it more difficult to demonstrate overt prejudice (Gross, 1996). Therefore, attitudes may be deemed to be only one determinant of behaviour. Although they represent a predisposition to behaviour, how individuals actually act in a particular situation will be dependent upon the immediate consequences of that behaviour, in particular how others are perceived to evaluate actions and habitual ways of behaving.

Literature relating to the concepts of habitus and socialisation (Danziger 1971; White 1977; Hodkinson 1995) are also relevant to this issue, as in many instances, individual's learn to adapt their behaviour to conform to the rules of particular groups. Furthermore, their subjective decisions regarding any course of action are shaped by their habitus, which is a result of the development and modification of an individual's conceptual structure.

Jonas *et al.* (1995) suggested that the earlier failures to demonstrate a consistent relationship between attitude and behaviour could be understood with regards to the reliability and validity of the measures used. A single instance of behaviour is likely to be an unreliable indicator of an attitude because the performance of the attitude depends

on many situational factors, in addition to the attitude. According to Hogg and Vaughan (1995) current opinions tend to uphold the view that attitudes and overt behaviour are not related in a simplistic manner. In order to predict the behaviour of an individual, the interaction between attitudes, beliefs and behavioural intentions must be accounted for, in addition to establishing how these cohere with the subsequent action.

The 'theory of reasoned action' (Fishbein and Ajzen 1974; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980) attempted to formalise the link between attitudes and behaviour. According to the theory of reasoned action:

"a person's intention is a function of two basic determinants, one personal in nature and the other reflecting social influence. The personal factor is the individual's positive or negative evaluation of performing the behaviour; this factor is termed *attitude toward the behaviour*. It simply refers to the person's judgement that performing the behaviour is good or bad, that he is in favour of or against performing the behaviour.....The second determinant of intention is the person's perception of the social pressures put on him to perform or not perform the behaviour in question. Since it deals with perceived prescriptions, this factor is generally termed *subjective norm*..... Generally speaking, individuals will intend to perform a behaviour when they evaluate it positively and when they believe that important others think they should perform it." (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980:6)

Hence, in summary, it is assumed that actions are best predicted by intentions and that an individual's attitude and their perception of social pressure subsequently determine intentions. Generally, beliefs influence attitudes and subjective norms, which in turn influence intentions and intentions influence behaviour. Therefore, behavioural change will ultimately be a result of changes in beliefs (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980)

However, Gross (1996) highlighted one of the major criticisms of the theory of reasoned action, specifically, that the theory is limited to explaining voluntary behaviour and hence, largely disregards the fact that some behaviours are less under the control of the individual than others. The original theory was modified and

subsequently became the 'theory of planned behaviour' (Ajzen and Madden, 1986). This was designed to take account of voluntary and non-voluntary behaviours by including the concept of perceived behavioural control. This reflects the ease or difficulty that an individual attaches to the performance of the necessary behaviour based on past experience and current obstacles (Arnold *et al.* 1995; Gross 1996).

Research has demonstrated that adding the perceived behavioural control variable can often improve the predictability of intention and behaviour (Hogg and Vaughan 1995; Jonas *et al.* 1995) as perceived behavioural control is thought to influence behaviour directly and also indirectly through intentions (Arnold *et al.*, 1995). Therefore, to summarise, the theory of planned behaviour asserted that intentions are determined by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, whilst behaviour is determined by intentions and perceived behaviour control (Connor, 2000).

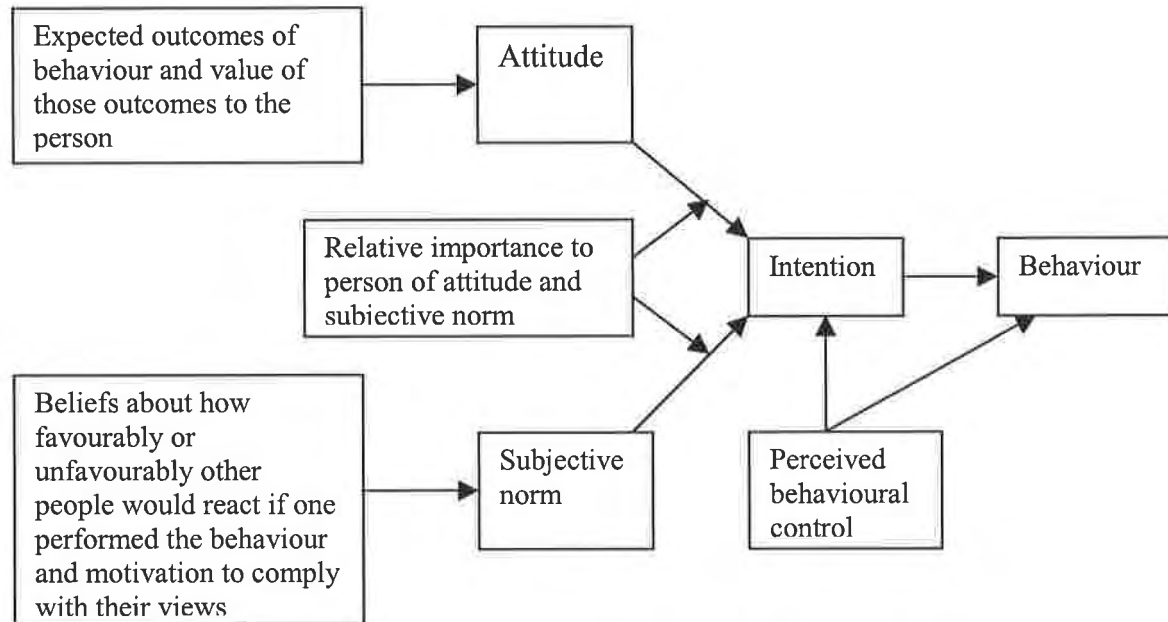


Diagram 6: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen and Madden 1986 cited in Arnold *et al.*, 1995:176)

In the theory of planned behaviour, the parameters of the term 'attitude' are precisely defined. They relate specifically to beliefs about the consequences of behaviour, rather than to general beliefs or feelings towards the object of the attitude. Furthermore, the 'subjective norm' takes into consideration both the opinions of others and the individual's desire or refusal to comply with those opinions. The fact that individuals vary in the relative importance of attitude and subjective norm in the determination of their intentions was also acknowledged. Ajzen (1991) asserted that:

"intentions to perform particular behaviours are often accurately predicted by attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Also, intentions together with perceived behavioural control are quite good at predicting a person's actual behaviour.." (Ajzen 1991 cited in Arnold *et al.*, 1995:177)

However, although perceived behavioural control is important in determining the extent to which an individual believes they can perform the necessary behaviour in any given situation, the usefulness of perceived behavioural control will be limited if the individual's perception of the object is unreliable or inaccurate.

Nevertheless, despite the debates, the majority of research tends to uphold the view that there is a small to moderate positive relationship between attitudes and behaviour (Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980:5) suggested that "..behaviours are not really difficult to predict.." and that "..a person will usually act in accordance with his or her intention." However, although attitudes may be thought as sound predictors of behaviour, the link is not deterministic. It is difficult to consistently anticipate behaviour, as there may be a range of independent variables, conditions and situational constraints that intervene and affect behaviour, generating disparity in the expected attitude-behaviour relationship. As Gross (1996:437) stated "sometimes we experience a conflict of attitudes and behaviour may represent a compromise between them", yet learning about attitudes can help predict behaviour.

2.3.3 Changing Attitudes

As previously discussed, most definitions of attitudes “..contain some reference to an enduring predisposition towards a particular aspect of one’s environment” (McDougall and Munro, 1994:116). Attitudes are generally fortified by beliefs of reality and deeply held values. Hence, unlike opinions, attitudes do not change quickly (Getz, 1994a). Predicting behaviour is possible without having an understanding of the factors that cause a particular behaviour, however, some degree of comprehension is essential for producing attitude change.

According to Laswell (1948 cited in Gross 1996:440):

“in order to understand and predict the effectiveness of one person’s attempt to change the attitude of another; we need to know who says what in which channel to whom and with what effect?”

As a result, most research has investigated how:

“attitude change (the effect) is influenced by variations in the characteristics of the source of the communication (who), the message (what) and the audience (whom)” (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980:219).

This information-processing model of attitude change is underpinned by the assumption that the effect of a specific communication depends upon the extent to which it is heard, assimilated, acknowledged and yielded to by individuals. As a result, two factors determine the effect of a particular communication; firstly, understanding and learning the content of the message and, secondly acquiescence of the learnt content.

McGuire (1969 cited in Gross 1996) also proposed that the extent to which individuals have retained and subsequently acted upon the message content should also be investigated. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) asserted that a set of primary beliefs might be identified as the potential determinant of a given behaviour and to be effective a message must influence these primary beliefs. However, simply changing a small

number of primary beliefs may not be sufficient to change behaviour. Therefore, to be effective, the persuasive communication and the conveyed message content have to alter a sufficient number of primary beliefs in order to influence the attitude towards the behaviour or the subjective norm. A sufficient change in the optimum number of primary beliefs should influence the attitude of an individual towards performing the behaviour and the perception of the social pressures created by significant others, coupled with the perceived behavioural control variable. Hence, depending on their relative weightings, these components should generate changes in intentions and actual behaviours.

Festinger (1957) asserted that cognitive dissonance is a major source of attitude change. Cognitive dissonance occurs when two cognitive elements, whether beliefs, attitudes or behaviour, are contradictory. In order to combat this inconsistency, the presence of dissonance is thought to motivate the individual to change one or more cognitive elements, so that they may be able to interpret situations differently.

“Cognitive dissonance theory remains one of the most widely accepted explanations of attitude change and many other social behaviours. It has generated over one thousand research studies and will probably continue to be an integral part of social psychological theory for many years..” (Hogg and Vaughan 1995 cited in Gross, 1996:452)

However, those with strong feelings on an issue or object are generally very resistant to messages and information that contradict their beliefs. Messages may be ignored or distorted to conform to their original beliefs. Hence, specific communications are often not heard, assimilated acknowledged and yielded to by individuals. The information-processing model of attitude change can be identified by four variables that are involved in persuasive communication: source; message; recipient and situational variables.

Source variables influence the effectiveness of persuasive communication. This includes aspects such as status or credibility; attractiveness; trustworthiness and non-verbal behaviour. Whether or not the source is perceived to be an expert or knowledgeable in relation to the attitude object is important to the status and credibility of the source. Customarily, the more expert the source, the greater the likelihood of persuasion. Non-verbal behaviour contributes to the perception of the message source and if the source is perceived to be attractive and trustworthy, rather than calculatingly persuasive, the greater the likelihood of persuasion.

Factors that comprise message variables are primarily concerned with how the information in the message is structured and the message content. Therefore, message variables include non-verbal aspects; explicit or implicit; levels of emotional appeal; one-sided or two-sided arguments; and primacy-recency issues. Non-verbal aspects can reinforce the message, as face-to-face communication can be more effective than general media attempts to change attitudes, as the message source can receive immediate feedback from the recipient and modify the message to suit the situation. Conventionally explicit messages are more effective, as they do not obligate the recipient to draw their own conclusions.

The level of emotional appeal is another aspect of the message and whether individuals can be 'frightened' into changing their minds (Janis and Feshbach, 1953). Although it may be possible to frighten recipients into listening, understanding, yielding and retaining a message, this does not determine that they will act upon the message content. Furthermore, Gross (1996) emphasised that fear can inhibit rather than facilitate action. Therefore, for any behaviour change to take place, the 'high availability factor' is required. This demands that the recipients are informed how to

avoid undesirable consequences and that they believe that the preventative action will be effective and realistically achievable.

Presentation of single or double-sided arguments is a source of debate. Hovland *et al.* (1949) found that in terms of persuasion, it is dependent upon the level of education of the recipients. Those who were better educated were more influenced by a two-sided argument, whilst those with little education were more likely to be persuaded by a one-sided, but confidently presented argument. The primacy-recency issue considers how the message should be structured to deliver the double-sided argument, specifically whether the counter-position should be presented first or last.

The third source of variable which may influence the persuasiveness of a specific communication involve the recipients. Pertinent factors for this variable includes levels of education; resistance to persuasion; and latitudes of acceptance and rejection. The attitudes which individuals possess influence their susceptibility to further persuasion. In addition, levels of education and intelligence might affect attitude change, as they often determine the extent to which recipients understand the message (Hayes, 1993). Gross (1996) asserted that, normally, resistance appears to be strongest when counter-arguments are available and weakest when they are not. Therefore, recipients may resist persuasive communication by obtaining a 'mild' dose of an argument against their own opinion, sufficient to activate a defensive counter-argument. Furthermore, advance warnings may enable recipients to resist persuasive messages. Alternatively, if individuals perceive that there are determined efforts to change their attitudes, they often adopt an attitude opposing the one contained in the message. Latitudes of rejection or acceptance vary, depending upon the original position of the individual (Hayes, 1993).

“The greater the discrepancy between the attitude a person already holds and the one which the communicator wants the person to hold, the less likely it is that any shift in attitude will occur” (Gross, 1996:447).

Hence, the more extreme the message, the more likely it is that it will fall outside the recipients latitude of acceptance, but inside their latitude of rejection.

Finally, situational variables tend to suggest that informal environments are more effective than formal environments. Gross (1996) stated that this might be explained by variances in the perception of who is trying to influence whom and for what motives. Within group situations, genuine attitude change may be facilitated by the reduction of cognitive dissonance as a result of pressure to conform to the attitudes, values or beliefs of a particular social group. Typically, this is a consequence of making public an opinion about an attitude object, whereas privately expressed opinions are much less likely to facilitate attitude change.

Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) also discussed different types of images that can impact upon the message and distort or enhance the career decision-making process. Contracted images are those based upon direct experiences that young people are exposed to. Delegated images are those acquired by adults through their direct experiences, which are subsequently passed onto young people. Whilst, derived images are those obtained from the media or other external sources. Delegated and derived images may easily distort or enhance a message, depending upon the type of experiences the adult has been subjected to and the perspective that the media or other external source is trying to promote. In theory, it is only through contracted images that young people can truly formulate their own objective opinions without bias or subjectivity from other sources, although even these contracted images will be shaped

by the individual's habitus, thus demonstrating that separating personal experiences from socially constructed pathways is a fairly impossible task.

2.3.4 Previous studies of attitudes towards employment within the tourism and hospitality industries

“In the UK, hospitality/tourism employment does not enjoy a high status..”
(Barron and Maxwell, 1998:34)

Goodall (1987) examined employment within the tourism and hospitality industries in the UK. Common characteristics identified included: low wages, poor working conditions, lack of job security, absence of career progression, high turnover and limited training opportunities. Furthermore, he asserted that negative attitudes could be traced to poor working conditions.

“Among young people there is a growing disenchantment with work in the industry, particularly in the hospitality sector” (Goodall, 1987:121).

An obvious implication is the problem of attracting and retaining an adequate supply of motivated employees. In addition, Lucas and Jeffries (1991) investigated a related issue, specifically the effect of demographic trends on the nature of the UK labour market. At a time when the demand for labour within the tourism and hospitality industries is increasing, demographic trends have created an overall reduction in the number of school leavers.

In Wales, the number of school students remaining in full-time education after Year 11 exacerbates this problem. This is a trend that is highlighted in a survey of pupil destinations from schools in Wales (CSAW, 2000). Year 11 pupils from schools in Wales continuing in full-time education stood at 73.5% in 1999 (total number in cohort 35365 pupils), compared to 69.9% in 1995 (total number in cohort 35520 pupils). The

gender split for 1999 was 69.1% male and 78.0% female, compared to the gender split for 1995, which was 64.7% male and 75.6% female (CSAW, 2000:3). The following table displays the percentages of Year 11 school students continuing in full-time education within the remit of some of the regional careers companies involved in this study:

REGION	% YEAR 11 CONTINUING IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION	YEAR 11 - TOTAL NUMBER IN COHORT
Mid Wales (Powys)	78.2	1416
North Wales (Conwy, Denbighshire, Gwynedd, Isle of Anglesey)	75.9	3828
South Wales (Cardiff & the Vale)	77.9	5116
West Wales (Carmarthenshire, Ceredigion, Pembrokeshire)	77.7	4408

Table 2: CSAW, 2000:7-14

The high number of Year 11 pupils remaining in full-time education was a trend also identified by Lifetime Careers (2000). They found that 71% of students surveyed expected to remain in full-time education, although this was only actually realised by 63% of school students. The result of this situation is that the tourism and hospitality sector will:

“..fare badly against other industries because of its poor image, lower career potential, inferior pay and benefits and less sophisticated personnel policies”
(Lucas and Jeffries, 1991:323)

Research into the attitudes of young people, in particular school students, towards careers in tourism and hospitality has been extremely limited (Airey and Frontistis, 1995; Getz, 1994b). Getz (1994b) carried out longitudinal research in Scotland on high-school students work experiences, perceptions and attitudes towards careers in hospitality and tourism that involved detailed interviews and a survey with the local industry and two surveys of school students. The most significant result from this study

was that despite high levels of direct experience working in the industry and high levels of parental involvement, careers in tourism and hospitality have a poor and debilitating image.

“Students want to go on to higher education and enter professions, and prefer out-migration to looking for work in the Spey Valley. Jobs in tourism and hospitality are largely perceived to be undesirable.” (Getz, 1994b:35)

Other quantitative studies appear to have focused on college students’ (Barron and Maxwell 1993; Barron, 1997; Kusluvan and Kusluvan 2000) and ethnic minorities (Cothran and Combrink, 1999). In their study into the attitudes of hospitality management students in higher education, Barron and Maxwell (1993) found that students embarking on hospitality management courses and those students who had completed the work experience element of the course held opposing views on the nature of working life in the industry. Typically, students commencing the course held much more positive views than those who had completed industrial work experience. This was supported by later research (Barron, 1997) which identified that first year students have generally positive, but often unrealistic views of working life in the hospitality industry. Nevertheless, such students had specifically selected a hospitality management education programme and were found to have an explicit commitment to enter the industry upon graduation and develop their career within hospitality.

Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) investigated tourism undergraduate attitudes towards working in the tourism industry in Turkey. Unlike Barron (1997) they found that there was not a strong commitment to working within the tourism industry upon completion of the course. Furthermore, over half of the students surveyed had chosen to study tourism management on the basis of insufficient information about careers and working conditions in the tourism industry. However, Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) concurred with previous studies (Barron and Maxwell 1993; Barron 1997) that students negative

attitudes tended to form after completion of the practical work experience component. The creation of such negative attitudes and the lack of sufficient careers information often contribute to dissatisfaction amongst students with regards to entry into the tourism industry and motivational problems when students return from work experience to complete their education.

Cothran and Combrink (1999) investigated the attitudes of minority adolescents towards careers in the hospitality industry. Their work challenged some generalised assumptions due to differences between ethnic groups. They found that greater experience in the industry and more knowledge about hospitality jobs did not translate into a greater interest in jobs or careers within hospitality amongst Anglo students. Conversely, although they lacked the knowledge of Anglo students, the overall perceptions of minority students towards careers in hospitality were much more positive. Hispanic and Native American students were found to be more interested in hospitality work and in taking hospitality management programmes. Furthermore, they appeared to be more assured about opportunities for career advancement than the Anglo students. Hence, more knowledge does not necessarily equate to a more positive attitude. However, the absence of positive attitudes amongst Anglo students may be linked to the fact that learned attitudes, which are underpinned by beliefs and values, are acquired within particular social environments.

Ross (1991a; 1991b; 1992a; 1992b; 1994) has undertaken numerous studies, primarily based on the attitudes of school leavers in Australian high schools. He identified considerable interest among students regarding employment within the tourism and hospitality industries. Only a small proportion of respondents were found to be unwilling to consider possible careers within tourism and hospitality and these

respondents, generally, had definite ideas regarding careers in other areas. School leavers also appeared to consider formal qualifications and practical experience to be the most important criteria in tourism and hospitality job acquisition (Ross, 1991b). Further research (Ross, 1992b) indicated that management and administration positions were distinguishable as the preferred choice for many of the respondents, rather than other vocational areas. In addition, this preference tended to be enriched amongst those with friends or relatives in the industry or with personal experience of the industry.

In 1993, the HCTC investigated school pupils' views of a career in hospitality. They found that the potential for career development, personal satisfaction, work content, initiative and job role influenced the job expectations of pupils. Moreover, pupils had a narrow perception of the range of jobs and opportunities within the hospitality industry and the status associated with hotel and catering jobs was significantly lower than that associated with non-hotel and catering employment. Therefore, if pupils perceive hospitality employment to be of low status, they may choose an alternative career path simply because actual behaviour often depends upon how others perceive that behaviour. Hence, even if individuals have a predisposition towards a hospitality career, how they perceive the social pressures upon them will subsequently determine their behaviour.

Remaining research tends to predominantly concentrate on training and other human resource issues, such as labour turnover, low job satisfaction, poor employment conditions and the absence of motivating factors. Thus, centring upon employees who are already 'in the system', rather than potential employees (Zacarelli 1985; Pavesic and Brymer 1990; Hotel & Catering Training Company, 1994; Choy 1995; Purcell and Quinn 1996). Ross (1994:62) forcefully makes that point that:

“..relatively little research has thus far been conducted on the perceptions and intentions of those individuals who are likely to enter the tourism/hospitality workforce”.

This is surprising given the fact that the quality of the workforce is paramount to the successful development of tourism and hospitality projects.

In 1995, Airey and Frontistis undertook comparative research into the views of young people, in Greece and the UK, about careers in tourism using interviews with industry employers; focus groups with pupils, parents and teachers; and a questionnaire with pupils. CEG within the UK was established to be better structured and developed than in Greece and UK pupils were more realistic about their career options, whilst Greek pupils were still at the ‘fantasy’ or ‘lottery’ stages (Ginzberg 1951; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1997). The research found that the UK pupils were far more hostile than their Greek counterparts in their attitudes towards tourism as a career option, with the Greek pupils possessing a more unrealistic view of tourism careers. However, it is likely that differences in contracted, derived and delegated images of the tourism industry in the two countries has contributed to the formation of these attitudes. Variations were also found in the pupils’ perceptions of what constituted a tourism job. The researchers believed that the low levels of identification in both countries of many jobs in the accommodation and catering sector as being part of tourism was surprising and contained important messages for the provision of careers information about tourism. Additionally, it highlighted the invisibility aspect of adult world jobs. The research concluded by stating that:

“...at a time when tourism is held as one of the world’s major industries and sources of employment it would be timely to know more about what potential recruits think about it, in order to provide a basis for attracting the best possible workforce.” (Airey & Frontistis, 1997:157).

Similarly, Ross (1991a:1082) stated that:

“The tourist industry has now become one of the world’s major industries, employing large numbers of people in many economies. A greater understanding of the beliefs and behavioural intentions of potential employees may assist not only in the area of labour-force planning, but also in career guidance wherein the supply of more accurate industry information can result in a greater success in job attainment or the choice of alternative career paths.”

2.3.5 Summary

Ultimately, negative attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries are likely to result in the industry’s failure to recruit and retain qualified tourism and hospitality employees, which will have an adverse effect upon the quality and sustainability of the tourism and hospitality product. This section has served to illustrate the underpinning theory on attitudes, behaviour and attitude change. These are concepts which those attempting to change attitudes towards career in tourism and hospitality must appreciate, as well as ensuring that those who influence understand the career decision-making process and the reality of tourism and hospitality employment, rather than a misinformed image. Concepts identified within the attitude, career and tourism and hospitality literature sources are applied to the primary data in the discussion chapter and serve to provide explanations for the results obtained. The following chapter addresses the specific research methods adopted in order to achieve the aim and objectives of this research project, together with a discussion of the interdisciplinary nature of tourism and hospitality research, consideration of the debates regarding qualitative and quantitative research methodologies and an outline of the theoretical approach adopted within this research project.

2.4 Key Issues Emerging from the Literature Review

The following points demonstrate how the three sections of the literature review can be drawn together and highlight key issues in relation to the discussion chapter and the research propositions articulated within Section 3.8.

With regards to the career literature, the following issues have been investigated further in relation to the discussion and research propositions:

- Changes to the traditional careerpaths;
- Perceptions of what a career actually is;
- The complexities of career choice and decision-making, as opposed to the traditionally accepted sociological or psychological perspective;
- The disparities in the delivery of CEG.

Key issues relating to the tourism and hospitality literature which are considered within the discussion and research propositions, include:

- The problems created by the lack of universally accepted definitions of the tourism and hospitality industries, which contribute to the lack of understanding of the industries;
- The image and status of the tourism and hospitality industries.

The review of attitude literature, highlighted key issues that have been investigated further and demonstrate the link between the research propositions, discussion and literature review:

- Concepts of persuasive communication and how they need to be integrated into promotional messages regarding careers within tourism and hospitality;
- The Theory of Planned Behaviour and the need to change behaviour, in addition to changing attitudes, as attitudes are only one determinant of behaviour.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will identify and justify the specific research methods adopted that will achieve the aim and objectives of this research project. The interdisciplinary nature of tourism and hospitality research in relation to the disciplinary dilemma that exists is also addressed. Consideration is also given to the theoretical perspective of this research project, in order to investigate attitudes in Wales towards careers within tourism and hospitality and the debates surrounding qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. In order to achieve the aim and objectives, this research project has adopted an interdisciplinary approach, within which specific qualitative and quantitative research methods have been integrated, justified by the assertions of authors such as Hammersley (1992), Crotty (1998), Philip (1998), Silverman (1998) and Finn *et al.* (2000).

3.2 Disciplinary Dilemmas

The disciplinary dilemma of tourism and hospitality research serves to extend the debates regarding whether tourism and hospitality are separate or combined industries. As discussed within the literature review, the development of tourism and hospitality studies has been impeded by the absence of clear definitions. Therefore, the focus of tourism and hospitality and their location within a broader system of academic enquiry may not be distinctly apparent.

Tourism and hospitality data which is unreliable or inconsistent, due to a lack of clarity in definition and interpretation, cannot readily facilitate the generation and testing of relevant theory. Weaver and Oppermann (2000:6) asserted that:

“Theory is essential to the development of a academic field because it provides coherent and unifying explanations for diverse phenomena and processes that may

otherwise appear disconnected or unrelated. In other words, theory provides a basis for understanding and organising certain aspects of the real world and is therefore central to the revelation and advancement of knowledge in any field.”

The absence of indigenous tourism and hospitality theory may also be associated with the lack of strong academic traditions in the field of tourism and hospitality studies. Prior to the development of specialised departments, researchers were dispersed throughout a variety of traditional disciplines, notably social sciences such as geography, anthropology, economics, sociology, psychology and politics (Jafari and Ritchie 1981; Slattery 1983; Weaver and Oppermann 2000). Przecławski (1993) extended this list of disciplines to include: pedagogics, marketing, law, architecture, physical planning, history, philosophy, ecology, biology and medicine.

Nevertheless, tourism and hospitality researchers still tend to pursue their research from their mainstream discipline perspectives (Echtner and Jamal, 1997). Furthermore, Ingram (1999) purported that whilst hospitality academia are developing their own industry researchers instead of relying on those from imported disciplines in the quest for a research base and professional credibility, research methodologies are being adopted which often fail to reflect the depth and complexity of hospitality. Others (Rogozinski 1985; Jovicic 1988; Comic 1989), who suggested that the study of tourism would continue to suffer from a lack of depth and totality as long as research is fragmented amongst various disciplines, support this argument. However, Jafari (1990) recommended that although tourism education and research should remain grounded within existing disciplines, cross-disciplinary research should be encouraged in order to facilitate a ‘knowledge-based platform’, which would locate tourism in a broader context.

These arguments (Rogozinski 1985; Jovicic 1988; Comic 1989; Ingram 1999) suggest that the diversity of tourism and hospitality demands research input from the various disciplinary approaches which are the most relevant in solving problems and providing new information. Gunn (1994) stated that whilst psychology and sociology are different disciplines, they have traditionally provided research insights into human behaviour and its organisation, generating new knowledge and solving specific problems. Therefore, this project has drawn upon concepts from both of these disciplines in order to address the research issue of attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality, as attitudinal aspects are integrated within the social context of career choice and decision-making. Hence, the thesis is atypical of studies in this area in that it is interdisciplinary.

3.3 The Case for Multidisciplinary and Interdisciplinary Research within Tourism and Hospitality

The following quote, taken from Graburn and Jafari (1991:7), can be applied to hospitality as well as tourism research:

“No single discipline alone can accommodate, treat, or understand tourism, it can be studied only if disciplinary boundaries are crossed and if multidisciplinary perspectives are sought and formed.”

A multidisciplinary approach incorporates information from other disciplines in the study of a specific area, whilst still retaining disciplinary boundaries, concepts and methods. Therefore, the results obtained may only be interpreted on the level of each separate discipline.

Weaver and Oppermann (2000) asserted that although the multidisciplinary approach has contributed to the furthering of knowledge, it has continued to inhibit the development of indigenous tourism theory, due to the retention of disciplinary boundaries. As a result, they suggested that the multidisciplinary approach is gradually

being superseded by an interdisciplinary approach that is more unified and concentrated than multidisciplinary research. Interdisciplinary research focuses upon working between various disciplines and integrating various philosophies and techniques, so that individual disciplines are not compartmentalised. In this way, given problems are examined simultaneously from different sides to take into consideration different aspects of the subject at the same time (Przeclawski, 1993).

Roper and Brookes (1999) purported that interdisciplinary research is not a new phenomenon. Indeed, Slattery (1983) stated that in a field such as hospitality management, the predominant approach to the social sciences is interdisciplinary. In other words, information is drawn from across the social sciences in order to explore, understand and interpret the hospitality industry. The diversity of the hospitality industry, the extent of macro-environment influences upon it and the internationalisation of the sector serve to illustrate the appropriateness of an interdisciplinary approach to hospitality research.

Furthermore, Roper and Brookes (1999:178) suggested that the interdisciplinary approach is a way of facilitating the accessibility and credibility of research, by enabling a holistic understanding of events.

“Achieving the interdisciplinary ideal could be seen as an evolutionary process..... Disciplinarity can be viewed on a continuum from a traditional single discipline approach to that of a fairly interdisciplinary one, with multidisciplinary approaches to research along the way.”

This quote is illustrated in the following diagram by Weaver and Oppermann (2000:7), who identified how tourism studies have evolved, generating indigenous theories and methodologies, in order to ultimately attain the status of tourism studies as an academic discipline in its own right.

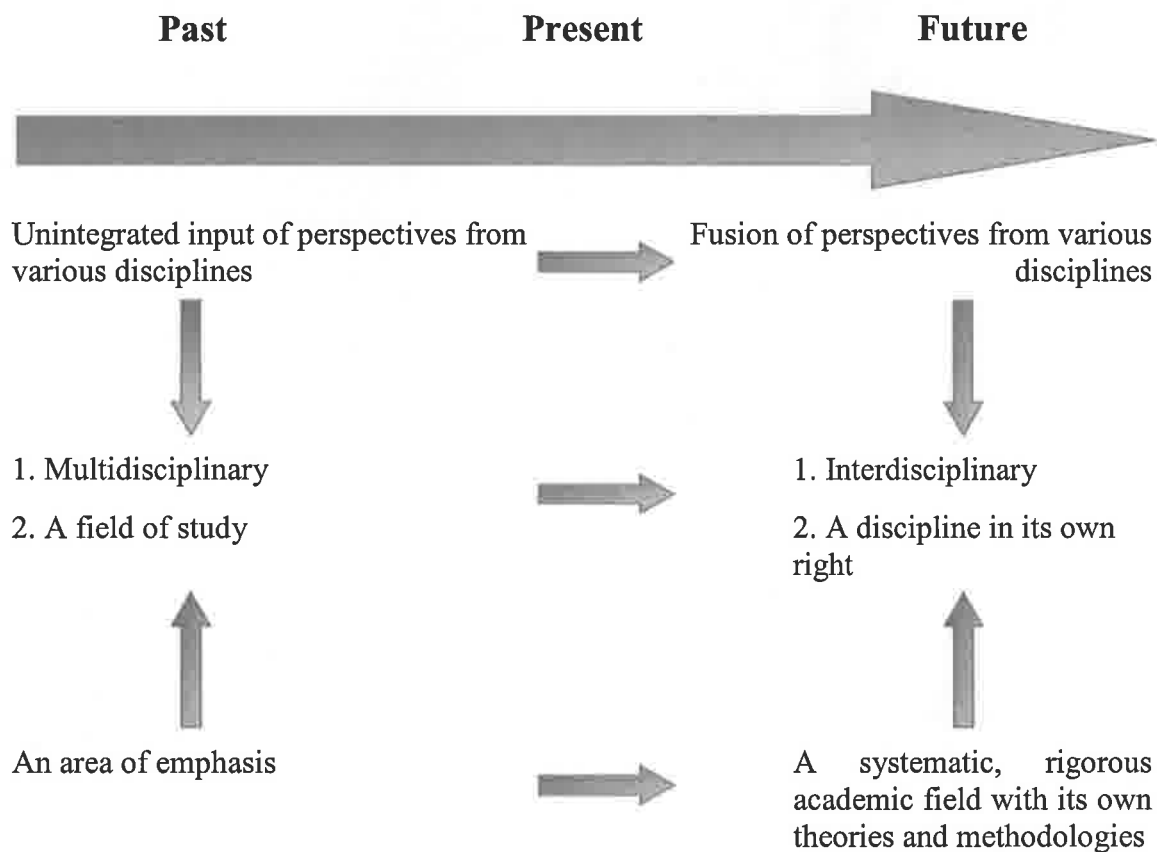


Diagram 7: Evolution of Tourism Studies (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000:7)

3.4 Theoretical Perspective & Epistemology

May (1997) purported that although a science is generally considered to be a coherent body of knowledge with respect to specific topics which retain varying perspectives amongst practitioners, different perspectives on specific phenomena and the alternative research and analysis methods used within specific topics appear to be problematic for some. This is illustrated by the work of Chalmers (1982 cited in May 1997:8):

“Scientific knowledge is proven knowledge. Scientific theories are derived in some rigorous way from the facts of experience acquired by observation and experiment science is based on what we can see and hear and touch, etc. Personal opinion or preferences and speculative imaginings have no place in science. Science is objective. Scientific knowledge is reliable knowledge because it is objectively proven knowledge.”

It would be unfounded to simply dismiss such an opinion, as it gains credence from the historical development of research, which has traditionally observed an objective scientific method:

“The methods and purposes of scientific enquiry have been moulded by countless generations of scientists who have collectively built a foundation of premises and beliefs, including an assumption of the validity of the utility of empiricism. This assumption holds that data must yield proof or strong confirmation, in probability terms, of a theory or hypothesis in a research setting..... Research is a systematic investigation to find answers to a problem.” (Burns, 2000:3)

May (1997) however, argued that the notion that science provides an unquestionable explanation of the social or natural world ought to be re-evaluated. Furthermore, he suggested that the methods and theories of science should be seen as the outcomes of disciplines, which are challenged by political and social value considerations, as the role of methods and theories of science within society should be to comprehend and elucidate social phenomena, whilst focusing on specific issues and contesting traditionally-held concepts. Crotty (1998:3) described a theoretical perspective as:

“..the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria”

And epistemology as:

“..the theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology.”

Ontology serves to inform theoretical perspectives in the same way as epistemology, although it is concerned with ‘*what is*’ as opposed to the ‘*what it means to know*’ of epistemology (Crotty, 1998). Bryman (1996) asserted that discussions about the epistemological underpinnings of quantitative and qualitative research are one area that has integrated philosophical issues and modern social research. The area of discussion revolves around the polemics of positivist positions and those of phenomenological / idealist / hermeneutic or interpretivist positions. The following sub-sections consider the epistemological stance of objectivism within the context of positivism and

subjectivism within the context of phenomenology, associating the two stances with the perspective of constructionism.

3.4.1 Positivism

Crotty (1998:18) asserted that the:

“Positivist perspective encapsulates the spirit of the Enlightenment, the self-proclaimed Age of Reason that began in England in the seventeenth century and flourished in France in the century that followed. Like the Enlightenment that gave it birth, positivism offers assurance of unambiguous and accurate knowledge of the world.”

The objectivity of cause and effect underpins the positivist perspective. Henderson (1990) outlined some of the characteristics of the positivist paradigm in leisure research, in that:

- the researcher is objective and value-free;
- mechanistic processes exist which explain social behaviour;
- behaviour is determined by an ‘external world’; and
- the truth has to be confirmed with empirical evidence.

The primary issue for positivism is to generate data that is valid and reliable and provides actual facts about the world, from which generalisations can be made using technical methodologies rather than interpretative methodologies. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1991 cited in Saunders *et al.*, 1997:71) identified eight features of positivism: independence; value-freedom; causality; hypothetico-deductive; operationalisation; reductionism; generalisation and cross-sectional analysis. Whilst individuals provide subjective meanings to objects within their world, science provides no meanings. Positivism simply discovers meaning through objectivism on the basis that objects have meaning prior to and independently of any consciousness. The obvious advantage of a structured scientific approach is the collection of a large amount of data in an economical manner, which is easily comparable and controlled by the researcher.

However, within this quantity of data, there may be a lack of quality, in terms of enabling the researcher to understand social processes, as the structure of quantitative research methods tends to restrict the opportunities for individuals to attach meaning to specific phenomena.

3.4.2 Phenomenology

As opposed to the objectivity of positivism, the subjectivity and interpretivism of social processes underpins the phenomenological approach. Phenomenology is characterised by a focus on the meanings attached to social phenomena by research subjects, specifically the context in which phenomena occurs (Saunders *et al.*, 1997). As a result, this perspective will often utilise a range of qualitative research methods to establish different opinions of such phenomena. Banister *et al.* (1994) asserted that many phenomenological approaches are not 'new' but have a longstanding history in sociology and anthropology, such as ethnography and action research. Henderson (1990) highlighted some of the distinct characteristics of the phenomenological paradigm:

- analysis is derived from the individual's own perspective;
- people define their own world in the context of human behaviour; and
- reality is the meaning attributed to experience and differs, therefore, depending upon the individual and their experiences.

Some of the main disadvantages of a phenomenological approach is that it is a time-consuming process, within which data analysis can be problematic and often regarded as less accurate and credible, compared to positivist approaches. Nevertheless, the benefits of this approach can supersede such issues, in terms of providing comprehension of social processes, enabling individuals to attach meaning to different

social phenomena they have experienced, which facilitates a deeper understanding of how and why for the researcher.

3.4.3 Constructionism

Constructionism rejects the simplistic objectivism of positivism and takes the view that there is no objective truth or meaning but that truth and meaning come into existence via the experiences of individuals in realistic environments. As such, meaning is constructed, rather than discovered as with positivism. Therefore, individuals may construct meaning in different ways, based on their own experiences, even with respect to the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998). Banister *et al.* (1994:9) asserted that the constructionist perspective considers that:

“..all forms of knowledge, including scientific knowledge, produce images of the world that then operate as if they were true. This does not mean that social constructionists are necessarily opposed to ‘science’, but it does mean that they have a more sceptical view of how science operates, and they will insist that there is always a moral aspect to research..... A social constructionist view, then, sees science as a form of knowledge which creates as well as describes the world.”

Hence, constructionists are concerned with documenting the way in which accounts are part of the world that individuals describe. In this way, individuals actively create meaning:

“..the subject behind the respondent not only holds facts and details of experience, but, in the very process of offering them up for response, constructively adds to, takes away from, and transforms the facts and details. The respondent can hardly ‘spoil’ what he or she is, in effect, subjectively creating.” (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997:117)

Furthermore:

“..answers and comments are not viewed as reality reports delivered from a fixed repository. Instead, they are considered for the ways that they construct aspects of reality..... The focus is as much on the assembly process as on what is assembled.” (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997:127)

Within the perspective of constructionism, therefore, meaning cannot be described as objective as with the positivist perspective, but as something constructed from the knowledge and experiences produced by research subjects. Yet, as such, the truth and meaning provided by constructionism cannot be simply described as subjective, as with the phenomenological perspective:

“Objectivity and subjectivity need to be brought together and held together indissolubly. Constructionism does precisely that.” (Crotty, 1998:44)

3.4.4 Specific theoretical perspectives applied to this research project

As a way of understanding and explaining how researchers know what they know, constructionism is an epistemology exemplified in many theoretical perspectives. Conversely, objectivism is the epistemology underpinning the positivist stance, in that things exist as meaningful entities, independent of experience. Such entities have objective truth and meaning and appropriate scientific research should uncover this truth and meaning. Crotty (1998:5) attempted to illustrate the relationship between the epistemology of objectivism, constructionism and subjectivism, their theoretical perspectives, methodologies and research methods:

Epistemology	Theoretical perspective	Methodology	Research methods
Objectivism Constructionism Subjectivism (and their variants)	Positivism (and post-positivism) Interpretivism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Symbolic interactionism • Phenomenology • Hermeneutics Critical enquiry Feminism Postmodernism, <i>Etc.</i>	Experimental research Survey research Ethnography Phenomenological research Grounded theory Heuristic inquiry Action research Discourse analysis Feminist standpoint research, <i>Etc.</i>	Sampling Measurement and scaling Questionnaire Observation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participant • Non-participant Interview Focus group Case study Life history Narrative Visual ethnographic methods Statistical analysis Data reduction Theme identification Comparative analysis Cognitive mapping Interpretative methods Document analysis Content analysis Conversation analysis, <i>Etc.</i>

Table 3: Relationship between epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and research methods (Crotty, 1998:5)

The constructionism paradigm was very dominant in the initial qualitative phase of this research project into the attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality, which involved focus groups, interviews and participant observations with school students and career professionals. The definition of constructionism provided by Crotty (1998:42) highlights the appropriateness of this paradigm to this particular research:

“..all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practises, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context.”

Riley and Love (2000:172) outlined the approach of constructionism:

Paradigm (theoretical perspective)	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Constructionism	Relativism: knowledge is socially constructed, local and specific	Subjectivism: knowledge created and co-produced by researcher and subject	Process of re- constructing multiple realities through informed consensus

Table 4: Model of Constructionism (Riley and Love, 2000)

A more positivist perspective followed this in the second stage of the research process, comprising a questionnaire to parents of Year 10, 11 or 12 school students. The second stage sought to test the specific, socially constructed, local knowledge produced in the first phase of the research process, as the attitude statements on the questionnaire were based on the realities produced by the subjects:

Paradigm (theoretical perspective)	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivism	Realism: truth exists and can be identified or discovered	Objectivism: unbiased observer	Hypothesis testing, quantification

Table 5: Model of Positivism (Riley and Love, 2000:172)

By adopting these theoretical perspectives any issues surrounding the credibility, subjectivity and accuracy of qualitative methodologies have been addressed by the

objectivity, quantification and generalisation of a quantitative methodology. Whilst the, often arrogant, claims that only positivist/scientific knowledge is completely objective, valid and accurate have been countered with the application of a number of different qualitative research methods, which facilitated the creation of rich in-depth data and triangulation. Furthermore, this theoretical perspective links and maintains the link between objectivity and subjectivity as suggested by Crotty (1998).

3.5 Research Methodologies: Qualitative versus Quantitative

Silverman (1993) identified a methodology as a general approach to studying a research topic, in terms of establishing how a phenomenon will be studied – by a qualitative or quantitative approach. Furthermore, as with theoretical perspectives, methodologies cannot be true or false, just more or less useful. Walle (1997) asserted that although social researchers are familiar with the concept of qualitative versus quantitative research, and both methods are generally accepted to be useful and legitimate, quantitative methods have tended to dominate.

This is supported by research based on the number of quantitative versus qualitative articles in specific tourism journals, which also established positivism as the dominant paradigm (Riley and Love, 2000). The subsequent implications for the main role of qualitative research has, therefore, been reduced to aiding the generation of hypotheses, which can be tested and refined using quantitative research methods. This is apparent within the complex field of hospitality research:

“The need for rigour encourages positivist and quantitative methodologies while the demand for breadth and greater understanding leans towards qualitative methodologies.” (Ingram, 1999:145)

However, Bryman (1996) stated that connections such as positivism-questionnaire or phenomenology-ethnography are simply assumptions that have become conventions.

Although, Crotty (1998) conceded that, given the contemporary association of positivism with quantitative research methods and the mathematical skills of the individual attributed with popularising the word 'positivism', assumptions that the essential features of the scientific method are founded in mathematical terms might be excused. Silverman (2001) contrasted features of quantitative and qualitative methods, in order to illustrate suggested imprecise and evaluative considerations with regards to qualitative and quantitative methods:

Qualitative	Quantitative
Soft	Hard
Flexible	Fixed
Subjective	Objective
Political	Value-free
Case study	Survey
Speculative	Hypothesis testing
Grounded	Abstract

Table 6: Qualitative and Quantitative Comparisons (Silverman, 2001:26)

The implication from this comparison is that quantitative research possesses objectivity in the reporting of reality, whereas qualitative research is vulnerable to the influences of the researcher. However, Walle (1997) asserted that rigorous scientific approaches might have limitations within tourism and hospitality research that involves the study of people, due to the fact that pure scientific research requires the researcher to avoid using insight, intuition and non-rigorous knowledge. As a result, in order to pursue important research questions, the range of legitimate research techniques has expanded to address the multiplicity of research problems. Hence, rather than simply aiding the generation of hypotheses:

“..purely statistical tools are being supplemented with more qualitative methods, quantitative/rigorous methods are being augmented because they are often incapable of dealing with vital problems...” (Walle, 1997:526)

The initial phase of this research project into attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality adopted a strongly qualitative approach, defined by Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) as:

“..multi-method in focus, involving an interpretative, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena, in terms of the meanings people bring to them. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials – case study, personal experience, introspective, life history, interview, observational, historical, interactional and visual texts – that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in an individuals’ life.”

Therefore, qualitative research provides an important perspective that enables the researcher to understand phenomena in an alternative way than simply the positivist perspective. However, the qualitative phase of this research project was extended to include a quantitative approach, defined by Silverman (1998:94) as:

“..a methodology in the social sciences that uses numerical data to reach its findings. Thus, any statistical techniques for the collection and analysis of material; any transformation of human behaviour into the form of numbers.”

This approach was adopted in order to build upon the phenomena discovered in the qualitative stage and gather data from a wider diversity of the relevant population, so as to enhance the research findings and produce Wales-wide data. This is reflected in the sampling frame for both the qualitative and quantitative stages of the study. Henderson (1990) argued for the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches in both the positivist and phenomenological paradigms, as she perceived multiple realities to be gained from multiple methods.

The following table illustrates the type of data obtained, the influencers and the research methods used in relation to the sampling frame. In addition, it identifies how specific objectives were achieved by these methods:

	Phase One	Phase Two
Data:	Qualitative	Quantitative
Research methods:	Focus Groups Individual Interviews Participant Observations	Questionnaire
Influencers:	Career Advisers (<i>Career Service Companies</i>) Career Co-ordinators (<i>Schools</i>) Peer Groups (<i>school students</i>)	Parents (<i>via schools</i>)
Sampling frame:	Mid Wales (Powys) <i>Powys Careers Guidance Service</i> <i>Caereinion High School</i> <i>Llandrindod High School</i> <i>Newtown High School</i> North Wales (Denbighshire) <i>The Careers Company</i> <i>Prestatyn High School</i> South Wales (Cardiff) <i>Careerpaths (Cardiff & the Vale)</i> <i>Bishop of Llandaff</i> <i>Cantonian High School</i> <i>Llanishen High School</i> <i>St Teilo's Church in Wales School</i> West Wales (Pembrokeshire) <i>Dyfed Careers Company</i> <i>Milford Haven Comprehensive</i> <i>Pembroke School</i> <i>Tasker Milward VC Comprehensive</i>	Mid Wales (Powys) <i>Caereinion High School</i> <i>Llandrindod High School</i> <i>Newtown High School</i> North Wales (Denbighshire) <i>Prestatyn High School</i> <i>Ysgol Glan Clwyd</i> South Wales (Cardiff) <i>Bishop of Llandaff</i> <i>Cantonian High School</i> <i>Llanishen High School</i> <i>St Teilo's Church in Wales School</i> West Wales (Pembrokeshire) <i>Milford Haven Comprehensive</i> <i>Pembroke School</i> <i>Tasker Milward VC Comprehensive</i>
Specific objectives achieved:	<p>3. To investigate the social influences school students in Wales are exposed to when forming their career decisions and to establish the current attitudes of school students towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries</p> <p>4. To establish and evaluate the current attitudes of those that influence school students in the career decision-making process towards careers in general and more specifically careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and to analyse how these affect the career decisions of school students with regards to tourism and hospitality as potential career areas</p> <p><i>*Objectives 1 and 2 covered within literature review</i></p>	<p>4. To establish and evaluate the current attitudes of those that influence school students in the career decision-making process towards careers in general and more specifically careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and to analyse how these affect the career decisions of school students with regards to tourism and hospitality as potential career areas</p>

Table 7: Research process adopted

Silverman (1998) purported that the quantitative-qualitative dichotomy is still open to debate, but the common aim of all social science research should be objectivity.

“The process of inquiry in science is the same whatever method is used, and the retreat into paradigms effectively stultifies debate and hamper progress.” (Hammersley, 1992:182)

Crotty (1998) argued for the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research at the research methods level, rather than a distinction at the epistemological or theoretical perspective levels. Therefore, asserting a distinction in terms of the techniques used to gather and analyse data related to the research question instead of a distinction between the two approaches in relation to the philosophical stance informing the methodology and the theory of knowledge embedded in both the methodology and theoretical perspective. Furthermore, he suggested that objectivist research associated with quantitative methods countered against subjectivist research associated with qualitative methods is not absolutely justified, as much qualitative research has been undertaken in a scientific manner, whilst quantification is not necessarily excluded within non-scientific research.

“Our research can be qualitative or quantitative, or both qualitative and quantitative, without this being in any way problematic.” (Crotty, 1998:15)

Similarly, Finn *et al.* (2000) asserted that quantitative and qualitative approaches should be viewed as complementary, rather than competing approaches, as combining the two approaches provides an opportunity to maximise the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of each approach. Furthermore, a combined approach can improve the validity of the research and facilitate triangulation within the research.

“..researchers should think beyond the myopic quantitative-qualitative divide when it comes to devising a suitable methodology for their research, and select methods – quantitative, qualitative or a combination of the two – that best satisfy the needs of specific research projects.” (Philip, 1998:273)

3.6 Phase One: Qualitative Research Methods

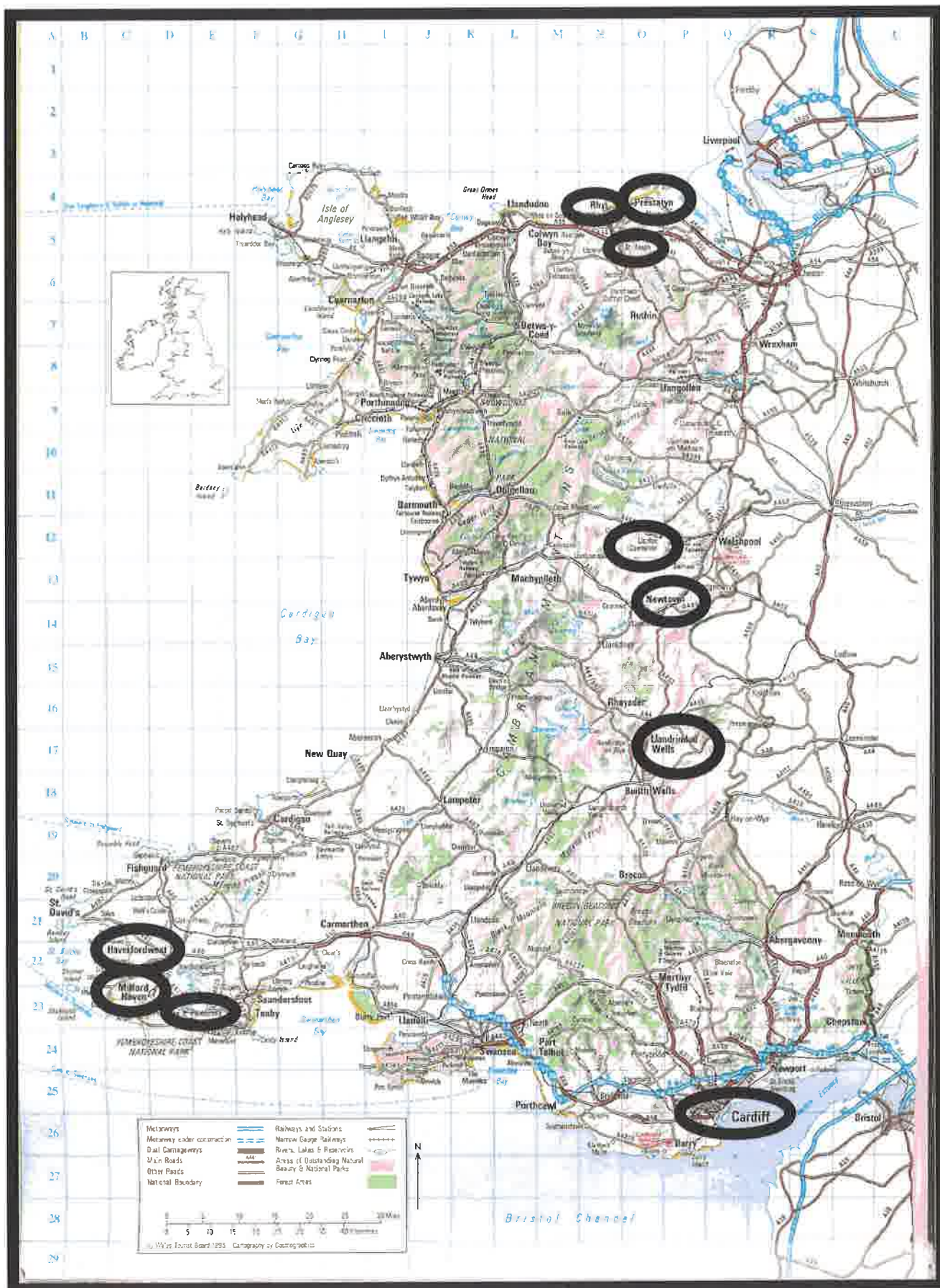
Research into the attitudes of young people, in particular school students, towards careers in tourism and hospitality has been extremely limited and generally founded in quantitative research methods (Airey and Frontistis, 1995; Getz, 1994). Getz (1994) carried out longitudinal research on high-school students work experiences, perceptions and attitudes towards careers in hospitality and tourism that involved detailed interviews and a survey with the local industry and two surveys of school students. Other studies have focused upon college students (Barron, 1997; Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000); ethnic minorities (Cothran and Combrink, 1999); and school leavers (Ross, 1991a; 1991b; 1992a; 1992b; 1994) and gathered quantitative data, whilst other research tends to concentrate on training and other human resource issues, such as labour turnover and employees who are 'in the system', rather than potential employees (HCTC, 1994).

Attitudes and perceptions cannot be fully understood merely by implementing a quantitative survey. To have any meaning and to provide clarification, responses need to be probed, with the goal being to develop extensive information from a few people (Peterson, 1994). Qualitative research facilitates the collection of elaborate data and provides a depth of understanding, in addition to providing more flexibility for data collection. Therefore, a qualitative approach was adopted in the autumn of 1999, which included focus groups, in-depth interviews and participant observations on a Wales-wide sampling frame to reflect the title of the study. Four counties were selected to enable regional contrasts in attitudes from Mid, North, South and West Wales to be drawn out. Cardiff was one county, Pembrokeshire, Powys and Denbighshire were the other counties, representing urban, coastal, rural and suburban catchments. The counties were chosen to provide significant contrasts in both contemporary socio-economic conditions and economic and social history. Cardiff had a recent economic

history based on manufacturing and shipping, but a high proportion of current employment is now in the service sector, whilst the other counties, particularly Pembrokeshire and Powys, are predominantly rural areas with agriculturally based economies.

This qualitative stage formed phase one of the research, which led directly into phase two – a questionnaire. Phase one was important for a number of reasons. Firstly, to establish the attitudes of important influencers within the remit of careers education and guidance and the career decision-making process towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries, and secondly, to identify the attitudes of the school students as potential employees in the tourism and hospitality industries. Furthermore, phase one was also significant in terms of corroborating whether career professionals were actually the most important group of influencers in the career decision-making process, as assumed due to the statutory requirement to provide careers education and guidance in secondary schools as a result of the 1997 Education Act. Additionally, the fact that the subsequent quantitative tool operationalised the rich qualitative information gathered during phase one and from the literature tended to remove researcher bias from the questionnaire, as the questions were formulated from the data gathered from respondents in phase one. The purpose of the second phase of the research was to investigate parental attitudes towards careers within tourism and hospitality using the data obtained in phase one, but using a much larger sample.

The locations selected within the four counties and regions of Wales, for both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the data collection are circled on the following map of Wales (diagram 8).



Within the qualitative phase of this research project, eleven school-based career co-ordinators were interviewed using open-ended questions. Four career co-ordinators were located in South Wales, within the Cardiff area; three were from schools in West Wales; three were from schools in Mid Wales; and one was from a North Wales school. Four focus groups were also held with career advisers from a career company based in each of the four regions: South, West, Mid and North Wales, using the same questions. Finally twelve focus groups were held for each of Years 10, 11 and 12 in one school located in each of the four regions of Wales, with the school selected in each region having previously been visited when undertaking the career co-ordinator interviews. The schools within the sample offered a variety of subjects and academic qualifications, although all schools contained a sixth form. Some schools encompassed GNVQ courses as well as the traditional GCSE and A-level courses, whilst others offered only GCSE and A-levels. Two schools were Church in Wales schools and one Welsh medium school was included. Not all schools offered tourism or hospitality related subjects. Some participant observations were also undertaken at CEG relevant events, normally staged by Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru.

	Career Co-ordinators Individual Interviews (Number in each region)	Career Advisers Focus Groups (1 in each region)	Year 10, 11 & 12 School Students Focus Groups (1 school in each region; 3 focus groups in each school)
Mid	3	✓ (3 Advisers)	Llandrindod High School
North	1	✓ (3 Advisers)	Prestatyn High School
South	4	✓ (6 Advisers)	Cantonian High School
West	3	✓ (2 Advisers)	Tasker Milward VC Comprehensive
TOTAL	11	4	12

Table 8: Number of interviews and focus groups

3.6.1 Focus Groups

The use of focus groups as a method for eliciting respondents' perceptions, attitudes and opinions has grown in recent years. Wilson (1997) suggests that although the use of

focus groups by market researchers to explore consumers' perceptions is a common example of their application, focus groups have their origin in the social sciences. There are various definitions of a focus group, sometimes referred to as a focus group interview (Oppenheim, 1992). Carey (1994:226) broadly conceptualised a focus group as:

“a semi-structured group session, moderated by a group leader, held in an informal setting, with the purpose of collecting information on a designated topic”.

The most significant aspect that differentiates focus groups from other interview techniques is that they encourage and utilise group interactions. Each individual has the opportunity to argue, disagree, question and discuss issues with others within the room. Thus, the discussion becomes most useful when investigating a broad range of attitudes, due to the wealth of data generated (Peterson, 1994). Ryan (1995:118) identified the advantages of focus groups, as a means of obtaining views which arise from the social dynamics of the group, as: “synergism; snowballing; security; spontaneity; and stimulation.” As a result, focus groups facilitate an originality of insight and a richness of data not usually forthcoming from individual interviews.

“Focus groups provide the best illuminative data on the way respondents interact with each other outside naturally occurring events” (Wilson, 1997:221).

Justifications for selecting focus groups within phase one of this research project are:

- the generation of rich subjective data, which was crucial to the preliminary research process; and
- the facilitation of data collection within a group setting is a less directive approach than individual interviews, and is therefore, less threatening and likely to develop more data and ideas due to the social interactions that occur.

A total of sixteen focus groups, using semi-structured questions, were held throughout the four regions of Wales. These comprised four separate groups with career advisers from one career service company from each of the four regions of Wales (mid, north, south and west Wales) and twelve separate focus groups with Year 10, 11 and 12 pupils from one school in each of the four regions. Career advisers participated voluntarily, with the only criteria for their participation being that they were a career adviser within a secondary school in that particular area. Year 10, 11 and 12 school student focus group participants were recruited by the schools' career co-ordinator, after obtaining permission from the head-teacher. The only selection criterion was their Year Group and in most cases both genders were equally represented. Participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity outside of the focus group. The choice of these age groups was made to provide a cross-sectional view across the educational system and to focus on school students actively engaging in choice in relation to key transitions in the system.

- Year 10 students were in the process of beginning to consider post-16 choices and were receiving a general CEG programme;
- Year 11 students were facing key decisions about remaining within the education system or making the transition into the workplace, following their work experiences, and were at the stage of formulating career action plans with the external career advisers;
- Year 12 students were able to reflect upon their transition to post-16 education and beginning to engage with initial ideas regarding post-18 education and training in the light of their work experiences and the results of their first formal external examinations (GCSEs).

Each focus group comprised six individuals of both genders and was chaired by the researcher, who followed a specific topic guide (copies in appendices 1 and 2), in order to ensure that a scripted enquiry process was maintained, whilst allowing spontaneity from individuals in the groups through the use of open-ended questions. The questions had previously been piloted on a group of Year 12 school students and career advisers, who were not included in the final sampling frame. Following the pilot stage, some questions were revised or removed. All focus group discussions were recorded, with the permission of the group, for later transcription. Each focus group took approximately one to two hours to conduct. The focus of each discussion related to the following specific areas of enquiry:

Area of enquiry	Career Adviser	School Student
Provision and delivery of CEG within schools	✓	
Perceptions of the CEG programme experienced at school		✓
Participation in further and higher education	✓	✓
Influencers in the career decision-making process and their role	✓	✓
Current and previous career aspirations and interests		✓
Typical questions asked in relation to CEG	✓	✓
What school students want from a career	✓	✓
Fashion cycles and the influence of the media	✓	✓
Parents .v. Offspring in the career decision-making process	✓	✓
Prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices	✓	✓
Image and status of tourism and hospitality	✓	✓
Levels of understanding with regards to tourism and hospitality	✓	✓
Tourism and hospitality employment: nature of the work and range of job types	✓	✓
Personal characteristics of those working within tourism and hospitality, entry pathways and minimum qualifications	✓	✓
Positive and negative aspects of the tourism and hospitality industries	✓	✓
Promotion of career opportunities within tourism and hospitality	✓	✓

Table 9: Area of Enquiry – Focus Groups

There were some limitations in terms of the number of participants in each region. South Wales, particularly Cardiff, is the most densely populated area studied, therefore more career advisers were available and they were all based in one central office. Whereas in Mid Wales, the career advisers tended to be based in different schools due to geographical factors and the region is less densely populated, so the number of available career advisers was considerably reduced. Slight problems occurred in North

and West Wales with the career adviser focus groups. In both cases, a member of the career service company had arranged the focus group sessions. Some advisers failed to turn up, therefore, in both regions only two career advisers were present, which may have limited the scope of the discussion in relation to the research topic, however, it was decided not to reschedule the groups owing to the distances involved. With regards to the school student focus groups, the researcher had no control over the participants selected by the career co-ordinator and was not aware of the academic abilities of the school students, although it had been requested that students of all academic abilities be represented.

3.6.2 Individual Interviews

“Interviewing is undoubtedly the most widely applied technique for conducting systematic social inquiry” (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997:107).

Mason (1996) refers to the term ‘qualitative interviewing’ as in-depth, semi-structured forms of interviewing. Hence, interviews are often deemed to be special forms of conversation. Banister *et al.* (1994) state that one of the advantages of interviews is that they allow the exploration of complex issues which may prove difficult to investigate through quantitative research. In addition, an approach that is less structured than a questionnaire enables responses to be probed and questions to be tailored to the responses. As a result, semi-structured interviews are an open and flexible research tool, which allow “the respondents to say what they think and to do so with greater richness and spontaneity” (Oppenheim, 1992:81) and thus applicable to this research into attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality. The interviews took the form of exploratory interviews, the purpose of which is to develop ideas and research hypotheses, rather than to simply record facts and statistics as with standardised interviews.

Eleven in-depth, semi-structured interviews were held with school-based career co-ordinators throughout the four regions of Wales using the same questions as the focus groups (copy in appendix 3). This ensured that a scripted enquiry process was maintained, whilst allowing spontaneity from individuals through the use of open-ended questions. Therefore, the specific areas of enquiry included:

Area of enquiry	Career Co-ordinator
Provision and delivery of CEG within schools	✓
Training	✓
Student participation in further and higher education	✓
Influencers in the career decision-making process and their role	✓
Typical questions asked in relation to CEG	✓
What school students want from a career	✓
Fashion cycles and the influence of the media	✓
Parents .v. Offspring in the career decision-making process	✓
Prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices	✓
Image and status of tourism and hospitality	✓
Levels of understanding with regards to tourism and hospitality	✓
Tourism and hospitality employment: nature of the work and range of job types	✓
Personal characteristics of those working within tourism and hospitality, entry pathways and minimum qualifications	✓
Positive and negative aspects of the tourism and hospitality industries	✓
Promotion of career opportunities within tourism and hospitality	✓

Table 10: Area of Enquiry – Individual Interviews

As with the focus groups, the interviews, which lasted approximately 40 to 60 minutes, were recorded for later transcription. The schools included: four in Cardiff; three in Pembrokeshire; three in Powys and one in Denbighshire. On the advice of the career service companies it was decided that focus groups with this group of participants would have been logistically impossible. Therefore, individual interviews were selected as the most appropriate method of data collection for career co-ordinators due to the time constraints of the career co-ordinators. The only criterion for their selection was that they had to be the schools' designated career co-ordinator. Following the advice provided by the relevant career service companies, initial contact was made with the head-teacher in order to gain permission. Once permission had been obtained, the

career co-ordinator was contacted directly and the interview was arranged at the convenience of the participants, with confidentiality and anonymity being assured outside the interview situation.

The justifications for selecting individual interviews within phase one of this research project are:

- they were identified as being more convenient for career co-ordinators as a specific sample;
- they are a flexible method of data collection, which can be tailored to individuals and generate in-depth data, which was significant to the preliminary stage of data collection; and
- they are a familiar method, which puts the participant and researcher at ease and facilitates the development of a relationship between the two.

The focus groups and individual interviews were all recorded and later transcribed. The use of computer packages, such as NUD*IST, in the analysis of the qualitative data was considered but eventually rejected. Although it is accepted that such packages can aid in the indexing and retrieval functions of qualitative data management, as well as assisting in the exploration of relationships between data sets, it was felt that:

“..computers cannot perform the creative and intellectual task of devising categories, or of deciding which categories or types of data are relevant to the process being investigated, or what is a meaningful comparison, or of generating appropriate research questions and propositions with which to interrogate the data, and so on.” (Mason, 1994:108)

Furthermore, the researcher did not wish to become isolated from the qualitative data obtained during phase one of the research process, especially as statistical computer packages were going to be essential within the quantitative phase two of the research process.

3.6.3 Participant Observation

Participant observation is the primary technique used by ethnographers to gain access to data. Mason (1996) refers to the term 'participant observation' as a method of generating data which requires the immersion of the researcher in a research setting, in order to observe the setting, interactions, relationships and events. Denzin (1970:186) defined participant observation as:

“...a field strategy that simultaneously combines document analysis, respondent and informant interviewing, direct participation and observation and introspection.”

Unlike quantitative research where the emphasis is on the testing of theory, the ethnographic researcher has a more focused concern with generating and developing theory (Burns, 2000). There is interplay between observations and theory, which leads to decisions about what might be useful to observe and what questions it might be relevant to ask. As a result, this qualitative method demands flexibility and a willingness to change. The justification for selecting participant observation as a method within phase one of this research project are:

- as a means of triangulating the data obtained in the focus groups and individual interviews;
- participant observations yield data that pertains directly to typical behavioural situations (Burns, 2000); and
- it is less demanding of active co-operation from participants than focus groups and individual interviews.

Participant observations at numerous events have been undertaken to ascertain how various organisations are promoting career opportunities in tourism and hospitality. In the period following attendance at such events, data was recorded in terms of the nature and purpose of the actual event; what happened and what was discussed; together with a

reflective analysis of the event. An example of one such event was a Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru 'Influencing the Influencers' event, where influencers from a variety of backgrounds were invited to an informative event. During this event, the researcher facilitated workshop discussions based on semi-structured questions taken from the focus group and interview sessions. Within the overview chapter, significant findings are reinforced through triangulation of the data obtained in phase one of the study.

3.6.4 Ethical Considerations

The likelihood of detailed subjective data being generated through qualitative research methods means that ethical factors are an important issue for qualitative researchers. Therefore, the qualitative research settings must allow a secure and supportive environment for individuals to express their true feelings. As a result, focus group participants were encouraged to keep the material content of the focus group confidential. In addition, procedures were taken to protect the anonymity of all the participants. Hence a coding system has been used in the discussion chapter, which only indicates the region and status of the participant, i.e.: mid, north, south or west Wales; career adviser, career co-ordinator or school student.

3.6.5 Triangulation, Validity and Reliability

Burns (2000:419) asserted that:

“Exclusive reliance on one method may bias or distort the researcher’s picture of the particular slice of reality being investigated. The researcher needs to be confident that the data generated are not simply artefacts of one specific method of collection..... The more the methods contrast with each other, the greater the researcher’s confidence. If, for example, the outcomes of a questionnaire correspond to those of an observational study of the same phenomena, the researcher will be more confident about the findings.”

Denzin (1970) was an early advocate of triangulation and Banister *et al.* (1994) suggested that triangulation facilitates richer and potentially more valid interpretations. Decrop (1999) highlighted the problems surrounding the use of qualitative research in tourism, as opposed to the prevailing quantitative research, based on the fact that qualitative researchers often fail to explain the soundness of their methods. He proposed triangulation as a way of implementing the criteria of trustworthiness in qualitative research. It implies that a single point is considered from three disparate and separate sources. Triangulation enables:

“..illumination from multiple standpoints, reflecting a commitment to thoroughness, flexibility and differences of experience.” (Banister *et al.*, 1994:145)

Decrop (1999) outlined the foundation of triangulation, which was initially introduced as a synonym for convergent validation (Campbell and Fiske, 1959) and cultivated (Webb *et al.*, 1966; Jick, 1979) to advocate combining qualitative and quantitative methods as complementary rather than opposing research methods. Later triangulation received more attention as a way to establish the acceptance of qualitative approaches (Denzin, 1978; Rossman and Wilson, 1985). Decrop (1999) argued that triangulation can limit personal and methodological biases and enhance the generalisability of a study because information is derived from different angles. Silverman (1993) also discussed two forms of validation suggested as being appropriate to qualitative research. Firstly, a comparison of different data and methods to identify any corroboration, namely triangulation. Secondly, respondent validation, which was rejected within this research project, due to time and contact limitations.

The issue of reliability within this research project was addressed by the use of standardised methods of writing fieldnotes and preparing transcripts (Silverman, 1993). Reliability was also assured through the consistent use of specific tools, such as focus

groups or individual interviews. In either case, the researcher used the same scripted enquiry process, although the nature of the open-ended questions allowed spontaneity in the responses from the participants. Hence, the same questions to a reasonable sample determine more trustworthy answers and provide verification. The reliability of tape recordings is also a strength. Furthermore, the reliability of the research can be verified by establishing whether the results consistently yielded the same findings within and between research methods. The pilot focus groups also ensured reliability by testing the chosen measuring tool and addressed validity issues by ascertaining that the tools measured what they were designed to measure.

Additionally, the flexibility of the qualitative approach adopted in this research project facilitated the use of method and data triangulation, which has satisfied the issues of reliability and validity. Decrop (1999) identified method triangulation as being the use of multiple methods to study a single problem. Banister *et al.* (1994:147) suggested that all methods have their limitations and “a danger of using only one method is that the findings may merely be an artefact of the method.” They argued that using different methods could help ensure that the material is more than a product of the method. “Using multiple methods paves the way for more credible and dependable information” (Decrop, 1999:159). Method triangulation has been applied in the qualitative phase of this research through the use of focus groups, in-depth interviews and participant observations.

Data triangulation involves collecting accounts from different participants involved in a study. Banister *et al.* (1994) suggested that insights which rely on one source of data are limited and whilst accounts from different participants are unlikely to fit neatly together, they will enable extension and depth of description. Griffin’s (1985) research

was cited as an illustration of data triangulation. During explorations of the experiences of young working-class women in their transition from school to work, accounts from a range of different participants (school heads, careers officers, form and career teachers and young women) were acquired. The participants were drawn from a variety of schools (co-educational, single sex, catholic, Church of England and non-denominational).

Within the course of this particular research project on attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality, data triangulation was obtained in the qualitative phase of the research process through the inclusion of career advisers, career co-ordinators and school students across the four regions of Wales. Furthermore, this encompassed coastal, rural, urban and suburban locations, ensuring a variety of schools, such as Church in Wales, non-denominational, Welsh medium and schools offering GNVQ subjects, in addition to those with traditional academic routes, i.e.: GCSE and A-level subjects.

However, the findings from qualitative research should be regarded as informed hypotheses, rather than proven facts (Peterson, 1994). The inherent weaknesses of qualitative research is that the samples used are generally small and selected using a purposive rather than probability-sample procedure. Additionally, analyses of qualitative findings may possibly be subjected to researcher bias. Therefore, numerous authors (Peterson 1994; Walle 1997; Ingram 1999) have suggested that the inferences made based on qualitative research should subsequently be evaluated using quantitative procedures. This suggestion was incorporated into this research project, as the second phase of the data collection process involved a questionnaire, based on findings from

the qualitative phase of data collection and theories identified within the literature review process.

3.7 Phase Two: Quantitative Research Methods

Marsh (1982 cited in de Vaus, 1996) argued that a survey is not synonymous with a particular technique of collecting information. Although questionnaires are predominantly used, other techniques such as structured and in-depth interviews, observation and content analysis are also appropriate. However, de Vaus (1996:3) asserted that surveys are characterised by:

“a structured or systematic set of data....we collect information about the same variables or characteristics from at least two (normally far more) cases.. For each case, we obtain its attribute on each variable. Because questionnaires are the easiest way of ensuring this structured data, they are the most common technique used in survey research.”

Following the qualitative phase in the autumn of 1999, a quantitative stage ensued in December 2000, with a bi-lingual questionnaire being distributed to 1860 parents of Year 10, 11 and 12 pupils in the schools used in the qualitative stage, plus an additional school in the North Wales region. Analysis of the focus groups and interviews with career professionals and school students clearly demonstrated that parental influence was perceived to be extremely significant within the career decision-making and career guidance process. Therefore, parents were a group of influencers that had to be approached in relation to this research project.

However, previous discussions with the career professionals from schools and career service companies made it apparent that accessibility to parents was likely to be extremely difficult in terms of organising focus groups or individual interviews. Hence, a consensus was reached in deciding that the schools used in the qualitative phase of the research could be used as a vehicle for accessing parents with a specific survey

instrument, namely a questionnaire. This was believed to be the most appropriate method, as good relationships had already been established with the schools during phase one of the research. Furthermore, the structure of the educational system provides a ready-made sampling frame in terms of age, gender, and geographical area (Oppenheim, 1992). Thus, via the twelve secondary schools, the school students delivered self-administered questionnaires to their parents, with the questionnaires being returned to the schools for collection by the researcher.

Quantitative research provides different advantages to those of qualitative research. Ryan (1995) asserted that the primary benefit is reassurance about the validity and reliability of findings. Furthermore, quantitative research obtains data from large numbers of people at a very low cost and the application of computer packages can improve the sophistication of the data analysis. Attitude questionnaires are a method of obtaining research data in both qualitative and quantitative research (Burns, 2000) and were therefore selected as being appropriate to this research project. Attitudes are predispositions to react positively or negatively to a specific social object. Attitude scales involve the application of standardised questionnaires to enable individuals to indicate their degree of favourability towards an object in question on a dimension.

For this survey instrument, the Likert (1932) method of attitude measurement was selected owing to the fact that it produces more homogenous scales and increases the probability that a unitary attitude is being measured – hence validity and reliability are relatively high. Additionally, the Likert method is based on empirical data regarding subjects' responses rather than the subjective opinions of judges (Burns, 2000). The researcher selected a varying range of attitude statements gathered from respondents in the qualitative phase and from theories identified in the literature review. The

questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement to each statement arranged along a five-point Likert scale. Some statements were worded to convey inverse meanings and placed randomly to prevent respondents filling in the scale with little thought, by simply ticking one column. This approach can increase reliability and validity by forcing respondents to read and judge the statements carefully.

Oppenheim (1992) outlined the sensitivity of parents and schools to the presence and activities of social researchers. To some extent, this issue was overcome by the relationship already established between the researcher and the school. However, the questionnaires were piloted in October 2000 with a sample of the researcher's work colleagues, who were parents of Year 10, 11 or 12 school students. The pilot stage considered question and questionnaire development, which incorporated an examination of flow, redundancy, non-response, meaning, timing and question skips. Following the pilot stage, the questionnaires were sent to the head-teacher and career co-ordinator of each school for their approval. Letters were also attached to the questionnaires, which outlined the aims and justifications of the research and specified that the research was being carried out with the co-operation of the individual school.

Specific requests from individual schools were also adhered to, such as school policies on all communications with parents being provided bi-lingually. Therefore, both the letter and questionnaire were translated into Welsh (copies included in appendices 4 to 7). Assurances of confidentiality and anonymity were also provided. The questionnaires were distributed to the schools at the end of November 2000 / beginning of December 2000, with a return date of fourteen days clearly indicated on the accompanying letters. Incentives, in the form of regional prize draws for electronic

equipment were offered, in order to attempt to generate a good response rate. The researcher returned to all the schools in the week proceeding the Christmas 2000 holiday period to retrieve the completed questionnaires. This time-scale was selected as being the most convenient for the schools involved, as examinations tended to be scheduled for January, the half-term breaks in October and February were avoided and CEG programmes were fully operational.

Thus, four schools within the Cardiff area, three schools in West and Mid Wales and two schools in North Wales were used as vehicles to access parental attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality. The questionnaire was predominantly based on findings from the qualitative stage, plus some theories from the literature, which were explored in order to establish general attitudes amongst parents towards careers. Results from the parents in the quantitative stage were used to underpin the findings from the career professionals and school students in the qualitative stage. A response rate of 25% was achieved within phase two of the research process and SPSS was used to analyse the data. Each school was given an individual code to enable comparisons between and within regions. The questionnaire sought to establish the following:

- Year Group and gender of child
- Parental awareness of CEG received and compared between Year Groups, i.e.: greater awareness in Years 11/12 than 10? May also compare between genders, i.e.: more aware if child is female rather than male?
- Parental influence in the career decision-making process and how parents rate other various 'influencers'. Which are the most and least influential groups of influencers against those identified in the literature and phase one of the data collected from career professionals and school students?

- If parents feel their influence to be high – in what career area would they try to direct their child?
- Identification of whether the career choices of their child have changed over time in relation to their age and if so, rate statements related to literature as to why. Compare to awareness of careers education and guidance and question on influencers.
- Parental opinion on what is a 'career'? Do their responses relate to steady, linear, spiral or transitory career paths, as identified in the literature?
- Parental opinions on the importance of a variety of aspects when choosing a career. How does this compare to the data obtained from career professional and school students in the qualitative phase?
- Identification of parental career area and the first, second and third career choices that they would be happy with their child entering. How prominent are tourism and hospitality as career choice selections? If tourism and hospitality are selected, how does this relate to parents' personal experience of working in the tourism and hospitality industry?
- Do the parents have any personal experience of working in the tourism and hospitality industry and how does this relate to their responses for the question on what a career in tourism and hospitality would provide? Do they select tourism and/or hospitality as career choices for their child if they have personal experience of these industries?
- Parental opinions relating to aspects provided by a career in tourism and hospitality. Do they tend to agree or disagree with the positive/negative aspects identified in the qualitative phase?

3.7.1 Statistical Analysis of the Data

The questions on the questionnaire were pre-coded with numerical values prior to distribution, in order to create a data file and the information was entered into SPSS for Windows Version 9 for analysis. A missing data code was also used to indicate missing or non-responses, which was applicable primarily to 'skips' generated by filter questions, where data was not required. A sample size of 1860 questionnaires was distributed between the twelve participating schools, which meant that each school had a sample size of 155 distributed questionnaires, in accordance with the sample size of at least 100 suggested for subgroups (de Vaus, 1996). In total, 463 completed questionnaires were retrieved from the participating schools, providing a response rate of just under 25%.

Burns (2000) asserted that, in general, the larger the sample the better, as large samples tend to have less errors, although it is accepted that a large sample is not sufficient to guarantee accuracy of results. De Vaus (1996) made a number of points in relation to sample size and accuracy. Firstly, when dealing with small samples a small increase in sample size can lead to a substantial increase in accuracy, yet with larger samples increasing the sample does not have the same effect. The rule is that to halve the sampling error, the sample size must be quadrupled (de Vaus 1996; Veal 1997). As a result, beyond a certain point it is not cost-effective to increase the sample size in order to achieve a small amount of extra precision:

“Many survey companies limit their samples to 2000 since beyond this point the extra cost has insufficient payoff in terms of accuracy.” (de Vaus, 1996:71)

Furthermore, many (de Vaus 1996; Veal 1997; Burns 2000) argue that the size of the population from which the sample is drawn is less important than the representativeness and size of the absolute sample. In terms of representativeness, all the respondents to

the questionnaire on attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality were parents of Year 10, 11 or 12 school students within the participating schools, which was the only criteria for the sample population. Veal (1997) provided figures that give the confidence intervals for various statistics for various sample sizes ranging from 50 to 10,000, which demonstrate how the confidence intervals get smaller with larger samples, thereby increasing the level of accuracy and confidence within a finding.

Sample size	Percentages found from sample					
	50%	40/60%	30/70%	20/80%	10/90%	5/95%
50	13.9	13.6	12.7	11.1	8.3	*
80	11.0	10.7	10.0	8.8	6.6	*
100	9.8	9.6	9.0	7.8	5.9	4.3
150	8.0	7.8	7.3	6.4	4.8	3.5
200	6.9	6.8	6.3	5.5	4.2	3.0
250	6.2	6.1	5.7	5.0	3.7	2.7
300	5.7	5.5	5.2	4.5	3.4	2.5
400	4.9	4.8	4.5	3.9	2.9	2.1
500	4.4	4.3	4.0	3.5	2.6	1.9
750	3.6	3.5	3.3	2.9	2.1	1.6
1000	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.5	1.9	1.3
2000	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.0
4000	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.7
10000	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.4

* Confidence interval >5.0

Table 11: Confidence intervals related to sample size (Veal, 1997:211)

Therefore, for a sample size of 500, if 20 per cent of the sample are found to have a particular characteristic, there is an estimated 95 per cent chance that the true population percentage lies in the range 20 + or – 3.5, i.e.: between 16.5 and 23.5 per cent (Veal, 1997).

With regards to this research project on attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality, over 84% of parents that responded were aware that their child had received CEG in school. By applying the given rule of thumb, if 80% of the sample are found to have a particular characteristic (positive awareness of CEG), there is an estimated 95 per cent chance that the true population lies in the range 80 + or – 3.9

(sample size rounded down to 400), i.e.: between 76.1 and 83.9 per cent. Hence, the sample size was appropriate in terms of being large enough to provide reasonably accurate data and to enable factor analysis to be applied to some questions. The questionnaires generated nominal and ordinal data, therefore, the following non-parametric tests were applied.

3.7.2 Chi-Square

Chi-square is a simple non-parametric test of significance, suitable for nominal data (categorical variables) where cases can be classified into discrete categories, which detects whether there is a significant association between two categorical variables. In order to measure the original themes of the questionnaire, the chi-square test for independence was used to explore the relationship between two categorical variables in the following situations:

- the year group of the child and parental awareness of CEG;
- the gender of the child and parental awareness of CEG;
- the school and parental awareness of CEG;
- parental selection of career areas for their child and personal experience of employment within the tourism and hospitality industries;
- parental awareness of CEG and the number of times parents thought their children would change their career areas; and
- the number of times children were thought to be likely to change career areas and whether the child's career choices had changed with their age.

3.7.3 Spearman's Rank Order Correlation

"A correlation is the measure of the linear relationship between variables" (Field, 2000:71)

If interest exists as to whether two variables are related, then interest also exists as to whether changes in one variable are met with similar changes in the other variable. The main requirement of research into the relationship between variables is that the cases arise from the same source, so that the extent to which scores on one variable are related to scores on another variable can be examined (Burns, 2000). A positive correlation provides evidence that, as one variable increases, so does the other, whilst a negative correlation demonstrates the opposite effect. When data is ordinal, the Spearman Rank Order correlation should be applied (Foster 1998; Field 2000).

In order to measure the original themes of the questionnaire, Spearman's Rank Order was used to calculate the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables in the following situations:

- the influence of parents and the influence of the career choices of family member;
- the influence between a) career advisers, b) career co-ordinators, c) subject teachers and d) career literature and school students finding out more information about the different career opportunities available to them;
- the influence of parents and higher aspirations and increased ambition as a reason for school students changing their career choices;
- the influence between a) career advisers and b) work experience and school students becoming more realistic about the career opportunities available to them;
- the influence of work experience and the experiences gained through work experience as being a reason for school students changing their career choices;
- the influence between a) television and b) newspapers/magazines and school students finding out more information about different career opportunities as a reason for school students changing their career choices;

- a career being thought of as a) 'a job for life', b) 'a lifetime's commitment to an occupation', and c) 'a series of promotions in one particular occupation' and job security as being an important factor when choosing a career; and
- a career being thought of as a 'frequent change of career areas with variation being the main motivation' and job security as an important factor when selecting a career.

3.7.4 Kruskal-Wallis

The Kruskal-Wallis test is a non-parametric one-way analysis of variance (Pallant, 2001). It allows the comparison of scores on continuous variables for three or more groups. As it is a 'between-groups' analysis, different people must be in each of the different groups. This test was appropriate to this research project, as some comparisons were required between the three different Year Groups and the sample was formed from the parents of Year 10, 11 or 12 school students.

Kruskal-Wallis tests were carried out on the following variables:

- the factors deemed by parents as important when selecting a career; and
- the factors parents believed to be provided in a career within tourism and hospitality.

3.7.5 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique used to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of underlying factors that summarise the essential information contained in the variables (Coakes, 1999). Responses to each question on a questionnaire will differ - variance is a measure used to assess the degree of differences amongst responses to a question. The higher the variance the more individuals differ in their responses to a question. Factor analysis tries to form factors that explain why there is variance amongst responses to the questions on a questionnaire.

For example, a set of questions that relate to depression and a set of questions that relate to happiness might exist. Therefore, factor analysis might be expected to produce a two-factor solution - factor one = depression, factor two = happiness. What researchers want to know is does grouping items in this way help to account for the differences amongst responses to the two sets of questions? That is, can the differences amongst responses to questions be put down to one set being related to how depressed somebody is and the other set of questions being related to how happy somebody is.

'Percentage of variance explained' indicates how well the factor solution chosen (e.g. two-factor solution) accounts for (or explains) the differences (variance) between responses. The higher the percentage of variance explained the better the solution - social science projects normally accept about 60% variance as a good percent. If a low percentage of variance explained is evident, e.g. 25%, then the two-factor solution does not explain why individuals give different responses to questions. Whereas, if the percentage of variance is higher e.g. 56% then the two-factor solution does help to explain why individuals give different responses to the questions.

In many cases, factor analysis is used as an exploratory technique to summarise the structure of a set of variables by grouping variables that are moderately or highly correlated with each other to form a factor. However, if testing a theory about the structure of a particular domain, confirmatory factor analysis is appropriate (Coakes, 1999). An example of the application of the latter within this research project is the analysis of parental responses to the attitude statements relating to the question 'What is a career?' Confirmatory factor analysis was used to support the finding that general parental attitudes towards careers tended to conform to the dated but traditional idea of a career, rather than a more *flexible* approach towards the concept of a career.

Factor analysis was also applied to the following:

- the factors that parents believed to be important when choosing a career; and
- the characteristics parents believed would be provided in a career within tourism and hospitality.

Factors can be imagined as being the axis of a graph, upon which variables can be plotted. The co-ordinates of variables along each axis represent the correlation between the variable and each factor. Hence, the position of a specific variable depends upon its correlation to the factors. The co-ordinate of a variable along an axis is known as a 'factor loading' (Field, 2000). Initially, a matrix is created, which represents the relationships between variables. The linear components (factors) of the matrix are then calculated by determining the eigenvalues of the matrix. These eigenvalues are used to calculate eigenvectors, the elements of which provide the loading of a particular variable on a particular factor.

Not all factors are retained in analysis. Cattell (1966) advocated plotting a graph of each eigenvalue against its associated factor to create a 'scree plot'. The purpose of the scree plot is that the cut-off point for selecting factors to be retained should be at the point of inflexion of the curve on the scree plot. Logically, Kaiser (1960) recommended retaining all factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1, as the eigenvalues indicate the substantive importance of particular factors, therefore, the greater the eigenvalue, the more important the factor. Furthermore, as the eigenvalues represent the amount of variation explained by a factor, an eigenvalue of 1 represents a substantial amount of variation (Field, 2000). SPSS uses Kaiser's criterion by default to extract factors.

Once factors have been extracted, the loading of the variables on to each factor can be calculated. Generally, variables will tend to have high loadings on the most important factor and small loadings on other factors. This aspect can affect clear interpretation of the data, so factor rotation is applied to distinguish between factors. Rotation maximises the loading of each variable on one of the extracted factors, whilst minimising the loading on other factors. In this way, it is much easier to detect which variables relate to which factors. Varimax rotation attempts to high-load a small number of variables onto each factor by maximising the dispersion of loadings within factors. This generates a much clearer interpretation of clusters of factors. Typically, researchers take a loading of an absolute value of more than 0.3 to be important. However, the significance of a factor loading is dependent upon the sample size (Field, 2000).

Stevens (1992 cited in Field, 2000:440) established a table of critical values against which loadings can be compared. He recommended:

Sample size	Loading considered significant
50	0.722
100	Greater than 0.512
200	Greater than 0.364
300	Greater than 0.298
600	Greater than 0.21
1000	Greater than 0.162

Table 12: Table of Critical Values (Stevens, 1992)

Therefore, in very large samples, small loadings can be considered statistically meaningful. Hence, in this particular research project, with an absolute sample size of 463, smaller loadings can be accepted as being statistically significant.

In addition to consideration of factor loadings which may be regarded as statistically significant, the reliability of factor analysis is also dependent upon the sample size. A common rule is that the number of respondents should not be less than 100 (Foster 1998; Coakes 1999), with 300 being more appropriate (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996) and 1000 as excellent (Comrey and Lee, 1992). Field (2000:443) asserted that: "a sample of 300 or more will probably provide a stable factor solution". However, Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988 cited in Field 2000:443) found that:

"..the most important factors in determining reliable factor solutions was the absolute sample size and the absolute magnitude of factor loadings. In short, they argue that if a factor has four or more loadings greater than 0.6 then it is reliable regardless of sample size. Furthermore, factors with 10 or more loadings greater than 0.40 are reliable if the sample size is greater than 150. Finally, factors with a few low loadings should not be interpreted unless the sample size is 300 or more."

Hence, the absolute sample size of 463 with regards to this particular parental questionnaire is an appropriate size for factor analysis and some of the low factor loadings are appropriate for interpretations due to the size of the absolute sample.

Field (2000) outlined the two different approaches to locating underlying dimensions of a data set. Factor analysis can only estimate the underlying factors, relying on various assumptions for these estimates to be accurate, whilst principal components analysis is concerned with establishing which linear components exist within the data and how a particular variable might contribute to that component. He asserted that principal components analysis is a more psychometrically sound procedure, less complex than factor analysis, usually yields identical results and "..to non-statisticians the concept of a principal component is identical to that of a factor" (Field, 2000:434). This is supported by others (Guadagnoli and Velicer 1988; Kline 1994) who claimed that the solutions generated by principal components analysis differ very little from those produced by factor analytic techniques. Nevertheless, as factor analysis is mainly exploratory, its

predominant application within this research has been to inform the researcher about patterns within the data sets.

3.8 Research Propositions within the Research Project

The following table articulates how the various research propositions draw together key issues from the three sections of the literature review and the different research methods in order to inform the discussion:

Proposition	Sources of Propositions			
	Literature	Career Professionals	School Students	Parents
Different groups have various levels of relative influence	✓	✓	✓	✓
Family members have been shown to be of considerable importance as they represent a credible information source	✓	✓	✓	✓
Family members are not always best equipped to offer advice as their occupational experience may be restricted and their attitudes towards work may be biased or out-dated	✓	✓	✓	✓
Occupational choice is restricted even if a range of different occupations are available, when an individuals choice is impeded by an inherent obligation to work in the same occupation as predecessors	✓	✓	✓	✓
School student's career choices reflect those of family members	✓		✓	
School students career choices change in relation to age (lottery/fantasy/high status/tentative/customary/realistic)	✓	✓	✓	✓
Children from homes of low socio-economic status who aspire to occupations at a higher level than their parents will find no suitable role models within the family and few family activities related to their aspirations	✓	✓	✓	
Those who develop educational and occupational aspirations not shared by their family may adopt the school or their peers as their primary reference group	✓	✓	✓	
Qualifications offer the potential for upward mobility	✓	✓	✓	✓
Qualifications and knowledge are a means of improving and expanding the career opportunities of an individual.	✓	✓	✓	✓
Benefits of post-compulsory education, as a way of improving job prospects is common knowledge amongst people of all ages.	✓	✓	✓	✓
The majority of young people do not make a personal choice of career direction on the basis of employability, where pupils are providers of skills and employers are consumers in the labour market. Enjoyment of a job is an important consideration. School students have particular interests that they want to incorporate into careers.	✓	✓	✓	✓
What is a career?	✓	✓		✓
Careers in tourism and hospitality. Visibility of a career structure? Career progression?	✓	✓	✓	✓
Provision of careers education and guidance? Roles? Awareness?	✓	✓	✓	✓
Participation in post-16 full-time education	✓	✓	✓	
Descriptions of tourism and hospitality? Terminology?	✓	✓	✓	
Types of jobs available in tourism and hospitality?	✓	✓	✓	
Links with industry. Advantages of external speakers and work experience placements?	✓	✓	✓	✓
Migration issues. More academically able students move away from rural areas.	✓	✓	✓	

Table 13: Research propositions within the research project

3.9 Summary

This chapter has provided a discussion of the disciplinary dilemma of tourism and hospitality research, together with justifications for an interdisciplinary approach to research within the field. Consideration has also been given to the theoretical perspective adopted by this research project and the specific research methods utilised in order to achieve the aim and objectives of the project. The debates surrounding the use of quantitative or qualitative research methodologies has also been addressed within this chapter, with the project adopting an integrated approach in order to provide as accurate a picture as possible with regards to attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality. The following chapter integrates the results and subsequent discussion for both the qualitative phase and quantitative phase of this research project. The structure of the discussion chapter is illustrated by a flow chart, which demonstrates how the discussion progresses from the provision and delivery of CEG to how attitudes towards careers are shaped. A discussion of the important questions about careers and the formation of attitudes towards tourism and hospitality follow this, which leads into specific attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries.

4.1 Discussion Flowchart

4.2 Introduction

4.3 Provision & Delivery of CEG

- 4.3.1 Variance
- 4.3.2 Problems
- 4.3.3 Training
- 4.3.4 External Speakers
- 4.3.5 School Student Perspectives
- 4.3.6 Parent Perspectives

4.4 Shaping Attitudes towards Careers

- 4.4.1 The Role of Influencers: Who do school students listen to?
- 4.4.2 School Student Perspectives
- 4.4.3 Fashion Cycles and the Influence of the Media
- 4.4.4 Parent .v. Offspring
- 4.4.5 School Student Experiences
- 4.4.6 Parent Perspectives on the Influencers

4.5 Building the Picture I: Important Questions about Careers and the Formation of Attitudes towards Tourism and Hospitality

- 4.5.1 Typical Questions
- 4.5.2 School Student Perspectives
- 4.5.3 Parent Perspectives
- 4.5.4 Educational Routes and Migration
- 4.5.5 Understanding Hospitality?
- 4.5.6 School Student Perspectives
- 4.5.7 Tourism and Hospitality: Separate or Combined?
- 4.5.8 School Student Perspectives

4.6 Building the Picture II: Exploring Specific Attitudes towards Careers within the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

- 4.6.1 Prominence of Tourism and Hospitality as Career Choices
- 4.6.2 School Student Attitudes
- 4.6.3 Parent Perspectives
- 4.6.4 Image and Status of Tourism and Hospitality
- 4.6.5 School Student Attitudes
- 4.6.6 Tourism and Hospitality Employment
- 4.6.7 School Student Perspectives
- 4.6.8 Positive and Negative Aspects of Tourism and Hospitality
- 4.6.9 School Student Perspectives
- 4.6.10 Parent Perspectives

4.7 The Solution? Promoting Career Opportunities in the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

- 4.7.1 School Student Attitudes

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

4.2 Introduction

This section integrates the results and subsequent discussion for both the qualitative and quantitative stages of the research. Initial discussions focus on the basic empirical information that was gathered in order to establish the reality surrounding the provision and delivery of careers education and guidance. The provision and delivery of careers education and guidance determines how the attitudes of school students towards careers are shaped and the role of various influencers. These influencers shape attitudes towards careers by conveying beliefs and values about the important aspects of careers and different career areas to school students. Further discussion centres upon the investigation of specific attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries. If levels of comprehension regarding tourism and hospitality are found to be questionable and misinformed, it is likely that specific attitudes will be misdirected and negative or overly positive and optimistic. If the aspects deemed important to a career are not evident in specific attitudes towards tourism and hospitality, it provides a strong indication as to why the tourism and hospitality industries are not perceived to provide first-choice careers. Finally, those that influence school students, who are also those who have a low esteem about their influence in the career decision-making process, and the school students, offered suggestions as to ways of moving the tourism and hospitality industries forward in terms of being seen to offer first-choice careers.

4.3 Provision and Delivery of Careers Education and Guidance within Schools

Fundamental empirical information was gathered in order to identify the parameters in terms of the amount of time allocated to Careers Education and Guidance and the methods of delivery. All the career co-ordinators were asked the same questions, which produced some very interesting and significant results. One of the most important

findings with regards to the provision of Careers Education and Guidance (CEG) is that although the provision of CEG is statutory under the 1997 Education Act, the method of delivery is not and this varied on a local and regional basis. The findings in relation to the provision and delivery of careers education and guidance in Wales serve to illustrate that intervention through the careers education and guidance curriculum in Wales, for those organisations attempting to promote the tourism and hospitality industries, is an arduous method of intervention. There is no homogenised system for providing and delivering careers education and guidance throughout secondary schools in Wales. This challenges literature which defines careers guidance as a “process of structured intervention” (Ginzberg, 1971:4). The career service companies have no direct control on how careers education and guidance are delivered in each school, as a result, organisations such as Springboard Wales cannot intervene purely by targeting the career service companies. Intervention is required at ‘ground level’, in each individual school, possibly encompassing individual teachers.

4.3.1 Variance in CEG Delivery Methods

In general, careers education and guidance was found to be delivered by a variety of methods:

- ♦ as part of the Personal Social Education or Development (PSE/PSD) programme where a small group of teachers can have responsibility for specific PSE topics, such as careers, sex education, politics, drugs, etc. The following quotes illustrate this particular type of CEG delivery and the use of team-teaching:

“..in Years 10 and 11... we have one lesson a fortnight. I organise it but there’s a team of us who deliver it because we’ve got ten groups - it’s a big school..” (WWCC1, 1999).

“...delivered as part of the PSE programme. Up until Year 9, I would provide a PSE module, as one of five maybe six modules in PSE. There’s a team of staff who would all teach each of the modules, so six staff would teach the careers module, six staff would teach the IT module and so on. It runs that way up until

Year 9, then in Years 10 and 11, we have a 'carousel model', where the students come to me for their careers module and then move on to somebody else for the other modules." (SWCC2, 1999).

- ◆ as part of the PSE programme where all form tutors have an input on the complete

PSE programme:

"Careers education is delivered through the one-hour, weekly IPD (individual personal development) programme, alongside a wide-range of other topics such as; sex education, drink driving,..... The school no longer has a dedicated career teacher Year [form] tutors "follow" their group from Year 7 through to Year 13; therefore, every form or year tutor has input on the IPD programme." (SWCC1, 1999)

- ◆ not as part of the PSE programme, but where school students are taken out of

compulsory lessons, such as Scripture, a tutor group at a time:

"Careers not through the PSE. It's mainly into Years 10 and 11 that I have input and they all have a compulsory Scripture lesson. What I tend to do is to take Year 10 out for about six weeks at a time and I deliver aspects of work experience guidance that has to be done in Year 10 and then the second part of that is usually general guidance on career education. With Year 11 I just take them out a tutor group at a time." (NWCC1, 1999)

- ◆ CEG is treated as a separate non-examination subject area, which has its own curriculum and timetable. Where CEG is treated as a separate subject area, the career co-ordinator appears to have a much greater involvement in the delivery and organisation of CEG:

"Career lessons not delivered through PSE. We've got a different Head of PSE....in other schools PSE and careers it's usually one person who does it all, but not here and it's never been like that here. We've always been quite distinct and quite separate. So PSE has an hour a fortnight throughout the school year and careers has an hour a fortnight as well on the school timetable, so it's probably about 16 or 17 hours that I see a Year 9 child or a Year 10 or 11, so it's quite a fair chunk of time really." (SWCC4, 1999)

- ◆ One career co-ordinator was found to have a reduced teaching load because of his responsibilities in relation to CEG, in fact his role was very similar to that of the traditional 'careers teacher'.

"I'm on, an approximately half-timetable, co-ordinating careers. Much of that involves interviewing students, from year 9 through to 12 and 13 subsequent to UCAS applications. I'm the link person between the school and the careers service and I also teach a module within modular core, so I will see year 10 for six fifty minute sessions throughout the year and then I will see the same students in year 11 for another five sessions and those concentrate particularly on career-type activities, careers library, how to find information, a little bit about self – but a lot of that is covered in PSE, which is on a different rolling programme throughout the year anyway. Careers is separate but inter-links with PSE – although some of the careers delivery is within PSE, it's not that much because our PSE system is one session every four weeks with a follow-up session of about half an hour, so it's a very tight schedule." (MWCC3, 1999).

Hence, the role of the career co-ordinator can vary dramatically from complete control and involvement to a more detached role, described by one respondent as a "...paper shuffler.." (SWCC1, 1999), incorporating the co-ordination and delivery of career activities, as well as being the link between the school and the local careers company, "it is just a link person really" (MWCC2, 1999). Although these descriptions contradict the role as outlined by the National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers (Andrews, 1999:11) who described post-holders as "a manager and leader of careers work."

4.3.2 Problems Experienced in the Delivery of CEG

There are obvious implications regarding the disparities between the roles of the career co-ordinators and the delivery of careers education and guidance. In some cases it was felt that CEG is relegated and the time allocated to CEG reduced to a bare minimum. This appeared to be a large problem, especially in schools with compulsory subjects, such as Welsh and Religious Education – the school day has not been extended, therefore, the time apportioned to non-examination subjects, such as CEG is reduced:

"..being a church school we do have problems as opposed to state schools because we've got a much stronger religious education input, where kids do take it through to GCSE, which they don't have to do in state schools, and because of the headmaster, who has just left, we also have Welsh running right through. So we've got quite a heavy input, so careers lessons as such have been relegated to

...well, it's treated more as an extra-curricular activity, although we provide all that is necessary..." (SWCC3, 1999).

"Year 10 now have to do the compulsory Welsh, so that time from PSE is allocated to Compulsory Welsh, so the only time they have available is their tutorial lesson.." (MWCC2, 1999).

The appropriateness of a large number of teachers having input on the CEG programme should be questioned, especially where all form tutors have an input on CEG within the PSE programme. If only a small cohort deliver CEG, it is possible to eliminate, or at least reduce, bias and ensure appropriate standards of delivery, CEG knowledge and an awareness of the diverse range of career areas. However, if all form tutors have an input on CEG the information administered to the school students cannot be monitored, nor is it possible to ensure that all form tutors have a specialist knowledge of the various career areas, some of which can be quite diverse. Hence, the awareness and understanding of CEG and different career areas by form tutors might be questionable. However, this is an issue that form tutors raise themselves:

"...this causes some dissatisfaction amongst the staff, as they don't feel confident or sometimes knowledgeable enough to deliver such a diverse programme." (SWCC1, 1999).

Furthermore, in situations where all form tutors have input on CEG, they must all be regarded as influencers, not just the actual career co-ordinator, hence this has important implications for organisations attempting to promote careers in tourism and hospitality, as well as for the industry itself. Additionally, the role of the career co-ordinator is made more demanding by having to support teachers that are not fully confident in delivering CEG.

CEG delivered in schools, whether by the career co-ordinator, group of teachers or every form tutor, appeared, in most cases, to be very general and rarely tailored to

individuals. However, it could be argued that this is understandable, given the fact that some class sizes can be quite large, sometimes in excess of thirty pupils.

"I basically teach groups of somewhere between eighteen to thirty-six pupils in one session, so it's basically how to write CV's, how to speak to people on the telephone, how to fill in job applications, as well as self-assessments, self-reviews and so on. Basically it's to make them aware what's available.." (MWCC1, 1999).

"I deliver basic things on careers guidance, application forms and then, obviously, things like curriculum vitae and all those sort of things, but that is just on a one lesson a week basis." (NWCC1, 1999).

"Year 10 get a general talk at the start, then if there's anybody that has specific wants for information, we have a couple of lunch-time periods, which we use as a 'clinic'." (SWCC3, 1999).

A supplementary problem that was highlighted was that tutor groups tend to be of mixed ability. Therefore, not only are some groups large in size, they may also contain a wide range of academic abilities, hence, highlighting disparities, as well as making it even more difficult to deliver specific careers advice:

"When it gets to Year 10 and 11, some of the classes are a little large, so we form extra groups by extracting a small number from each of the registration groups and having a mixed group. This is another drawback because it's a mixed ability careers lesson and of course, careers, unless we're talking about courses which they can dip in and out of, we're talking very much about streamed ideas because not everyone is going to go to do A-levels..." (SWCC2, 1999).

Generally, career co-ordinators see the school students on a group basis, whilst the career adviser from the local careers company see them on individual basis to provide subject specific careers advice and guidance and to facilitate careers interviews. In the main, the career advisers tend to be based in local offices within their region, except in Powys, Mid Wales. Powys is the most sparsely populated area of Wales and suffers from infrastructure deficits due to the physical geography of the area. As a result, the career advisers in this region tend to be based in the schools, although they are independent from the schools. Hence, as with the disparities in the delivery of CEG within the school curriculum, disparities also exist between career service companies.

Although career advisers tended to be primarily involved with individual interviews and possibly specific occupational talks, access to career advisers may be more difficult in schools where the advisers are not on-site. Furthermore, one career adviser appeared to be much more involved than any of the other respondents, although this could reflect the personality and commitment level of that individual:

“Essentially it is advice and guidance and around that is built basically a curriculum where I am very involved in careers education and the planning of careers education as well..” (WWCAd, male, 1999)

It would appear that the career co-ordinators attempt to offer general and supposedly unbiased advice to school students, otherwise it is perceived that they are encroaching on the role of the career adviser. Additionally, many admit that they do not possess the required specialist knowledge to advise a pupil on specific career choices.

“I never see pupils as individuals to provide careers guidance, that’s up to the career adviser.....possibly it’s passing the buck a little bit, but I feel that that is the jurisdictional area of the careers adviser because I think it would be unfair for me to advise a pupil specifically on something about career choices and things, when I don’t know enough myself.” (MWCC1, 1999).

“I’ve got this supposed school responsibility for the input into careers lessons with the children and then the other side to it is the guidance aspect of it, we rely more and more on [local career company] for supplying that, so I co-ordinate and link [local career company] into the school.” (SWCC2, 1999).

“I rarely see them on an individual basis. We use [the local careers company] for that purpose, so they do all the interviewing on an individual basis. They do some group work as well. Occasionally, I will see people on an individual basis, if there’s something pressing, something urgent, but in the main it’s [the local careers company] – we feel that they offer the more specialist advice. I mean I can offer them general advice, but because they’re doing the job day in day out throughout the year, we feel that perhaps they are better equipped to offer the individual interviews than I can.” (NWCC1, 1999).

One career co-ordinator highlighted problems associated with the career advice given to some school students by the career advisers, although it was noted that this situation had improved. However, this illustrates the need for career advisers to possess detailed and specialist CEG knowledge coupled with an expert understanding of pupil capabilities:

“The Careers Service has improved....We used to find that five or six years ago, pupils would have their careers interview, would come back with lots of paper work, but would be totally unsuited to their level of ability. Simply because they haven't considered the setting of the pupils, so somebody would come back with totally wrong impressions of what they are capable of doing...” (MWCC2, 1999).

4.3.3 Training Provision for Career Co-ordinators and the Delivery of CEG

Hayes and Hopson (1971) stressed the importance of a sound understanding of the dynamics of the career choice process to those providing vocational guidance. Furthermore, the practical implications of the CEG sections within the 1997 Education Act demand that the identification of student learning needs and the continuous evaluation of practice are fundamental to the provision of quality CEG. As a result it is highly recommended that career co-ordinators continuously address their professional development needs. The research identified that, generally, all the career companies provided training for career co-ordinators:

“Yes, we have training - they're [local career company] excellent. I go on a lot of courses - in fact it's a lot of time off actually but they're brilliant.” (WWCC1, 1999).

However, training provision varied and was not necessarily provided prior to the individual undertaking the role of the career co-ordinator. A number of career co-ordinators interviewed had only recently taken on the role and had not received any training and were not aware of any future training dates. As a result, some of these career co-ordinators could well complete part of or all of the school year without having had any specific careers training.

“I've probably had the equivalent of one day's INSET training, but it wasn't specifically because I was coming into the post.... I haven't been trained specifically and, as far as I'm aware, there's nothing in the pipeline either. Basically all I've done is inherited what the previous co-ordinator did with the pupils....” (MWCC1, 1999).

“I think there is something, but I haven't come across anything yet, I am waiting to see what transpires.” (MWCC2, 1999).

As a result, gaps in CEG training and professional development could obstruct the aims and objectives of CEG and prevent it from being a “process of structured intervention aimed at helping individuals to take advantage of the educational, training and occupational opportunities that are available” (Ginzberg, 1971:4). Andrews (1999) stated that the career co-ordinator provides leadership and direction for CEG and should ensure that it is managed and organised effectively. In addition, the career co-ordinator supports staff involved in the delivery of CEG and evaluates the effectiveness of CEG provision. Furthermore, Andrews (1999) argued that in some cases, the role of a career co-ordinator may be more demanding than that of the head of subject. The National Association of Careers and Guidance Teachers are “..keen to ensure that careers work in schools is well led by teachers who have the expertise to fulfil the role” (Andrews, 1999:11). Thus, the effective and efficient integration of CEG within some schools in Wales may be questionable due to the absence of training. Ultimately, a lack of CEG training for career co-ordinators could adversely affect the way in which the attitudes of young people are shaped towards careers, as if they are not perceived to be experts or knowledgeable, the status and credibility of the message source may be questioned by the recipients.

4.3.4 Enhancing CEG: The Use of External Speakers

It is generally presumed that the industry voice is an important and valuable aspect in CEG delivery and preparation for work, as well as compensating for a lack of specialist knowledge amongst career professionals. However, this work found very little coherent evidence of the ‘industry voice’, particularly in relation to the tourism and hospitality industries. This raises questions over the value and importance of the industry voice within the career decision-making process and illustrates the reliance of all career areas, not just tourism and hospitality, on a third party, namely career professionals to convey

their message. The attitudes that career professionals hold regarding various career areas, coupled with a lack of accurate and specific knowledge and a lack of CEG training, strongly suggests that the messages conveyed to school students has the potential to be misinformed and misdirected. This suggestion is supported by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986). They stated that the usefulness of perceived behavioural control in determining the extent to which an individual believes they can perform the necessary behaviour in any given situation, will be limited if the individual's perception of the object is unreliable or inaccurate. This research also identified regional and local variations with regards to the input of external speakers on the CEG programme. It was established that some schools were very enthusiastic about consolidating industrial links and inviting external speakers into the school to provide an input on the CEG programme:

"I'm in charge of industrial links [as well as careers], so monitoring industrial links....I think it's reasonably easy to get people in to speak to them.....you've just got to be in the know and when things land on your table you've got to grab them, otherwise it's hard work doing cold calls.....Staff are trying. Industrial links this past year have been much better than they've been in previous years." (SWCC4, 1999).

"....invited if requested, if we get a lot of interest....and where we see a need we will get them [external speakers] in for talks." (SWCC3, 1999).

However, it was the case that not all schools facilitated the use of external speakers on their CEG programme. However, this was often due to time and space constraints, as well as the location of the school, which tended to place limitations on the availability and nature of external speakers, rather than a lack of commitment on the part of the career co-ordinator:

"Not on that regular a basis. The constraints of the National Curriculum now prevent us. We used to do a few years ago, when the system was a bit more flexible, but now it's all about results and sadly it [external speakers] has declined substantially in the number we are able to get in." (NWCC1, 1999)

"....when I've got the time to organise it. I'm having a big thrust on that this term. It's not difficult to get people to come in and do it - they're very willing to

do it, it's just me finding the time in the timetable when it's possible..." (WWCC1, 1999)

"There's a difficulty in Years 10 and 11 for bringing people in to talk in as much as the space available for speakers. The hall is a multi-purpose area and it is utilised by the PE and music departments and others as well, so we try to minimise the amount of time a whole year group will be spoken to...." (WWCC3, 1999)

Paradoxically, schools in large urban environments with a host of potential organisations also had problems to contend with in terms of inviting external speakers to contribute to the CEG programme. Although there is an assumption that such schools may be in a more advantageous position than schools in rural locations, schools in urban locations tend to be more densely populated, therefore, suffer from problems associated with pupil numbers and wide-ranging interests in different career areas:

"...we, most recently, had a company coming in to give mock interview activities. That became very difficult, because in Year 11 we've got ten groups and to get a couple of people, from the same company to come in ten different times in the year is an awful lot, so it's something we're looking to do now, to get a number of different employers to input to that kind of activity. In terms of specific job areas, we often get offers to speak to a whole of the year assembly. I don't let that happen because any course, any job interest is going to be an extremely small minority of any mixed group, so we have had, particularly in during the January-February time, speakers coming in to talk to interested groups – caring professions, engineering, that kind of thing – where we get twenty or thirty students turning up in the lunchtime to hear more about what they are interested in." (SWCC2, 1999).

One career co-ordinator berated the demise of local 'Career Fairs'. These tend to be organised by the relevant careers service company, who invite schools and colleges to attend, in order to access a range of public sector bodies and industry representatives. Such events are deemed to be important in providing school students with an alternative insight into various career opportunities, rather than just relying on family members, friends and the CEG system, by facilitating access to potential employers:

"Unfortunately, the careers service, locally, has dropped the idea of 'Career Fairs', which is a big disappointment for us. We had them up to two years ago and the youngsters valued them. I think what the careers service may have missed out on is the fact that, for a youngster aged fourteen or fifteen, who only has

family or extended family groups as role models in terms of work, they don't look much beyond that. So although the careers service fairs, locally, were not hugely well-attended, you did get the county council, police, fire, ambulance, the standard type public sector jobs that are in this area - because they are the main employer and they're local." (MWCC3, 1999)

Previous research (HCTC, 1993) also unearthed issues relating to education and industry. Contacts between education and industry were found to be limited, with schools dependent upon the hospitality industry to take the initiative with regards to promoting career information. Much of this dependence is often due to the time restrictions of teaching staff with responsibility for careers education and guidance.

4.3.5 School Student Perspectives on the Delivery of CEG

When asked, school students spoke of receiving CEG from sources such as career advisers and career co-ordinators. However, much of this appeared to be 'housekeeping' advice, particularly with Year 10 pupils. Some school students were unaware that this type of information had been related to CEG and thought that it was simply 'common-sense':

"How to dress when you go for interview. How to speak....." (SWPGYr10, male3, 1999) "What to expect. To say yes and know answers, dress smartly and all things you knew...." (SWPGYr10, male6, 1999) "Tell us where to look in the library for books and that....."(SWPGYr10, male4, 1999)

"We've had an introduction to the careers library and been shown how to use that" (MWPGYr10, female1, 1999)

"We've been told by Mr Wood and our reg teachers that you should dress nice or if you do like a mechanic or something, that you wear overalls or stuff like that. But the careers advisers tell you what you are in for and what you have to do and what you have to learn and stuff like that" (NWPGYr10, female1, 1999)

This type of CEG contrasts with that received by Years 11 and 12, who need to make choices about leaving or continuing full-time education. These school students had also completed their individual career interview with the career adviser. However, many of these respondents were not particularly endearing about the information received:

"We have career advisers that come in. They ask you what you want to do and then they say you are capable of doing that" (SWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

"Doesn't matter to me, I know what I want to do and how to do it. She [career adviser] doesn't know much about it." (WWPGYr11, male, 1999)

"Very limited I think. I don't think they research enough, they could do a little bit more. If you want to find out about universities and things, they would help you a bit, but you are more likely to go to the Head of the Sixth Form because they would have loads of books and things. It is very limited what they can give you." (NWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

Lawrence (1992) identified tension in the role of career officers between providing a professional service to young people and meeting oftentimes opposing objectives. The following exchange raises questions about impartiality and whether the approach adopted by the career adviser was for the benefit of the student or the school, in terms of encouraging the student to remain in school rather than enrol at the local further education college:

"We have had individual career interviews with career advisors from college. I don't know, I didn't find it that helpful...." (MWPGYr12, female3, 1999) "I wanted to do [GNVQ] Business Studies and she said no you have to do A levels, you are too brainy to get Business Studies. But I thought, I really want to do it, but she was really negative. She pushed me towards A levels and that is the reason why I chose to do it also. She doesn't know I have taken A levels at the moment, she still thinks I am doing Beauty Therapy. I don't see the point [of telling her], because she wouldn't do anything anyway about it anyway....." (MWPGYr12, female1, 1999). "She is really unhelpful I think....." (MWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

In some cases, interaction between the career adviser and school students appeared to be infrequent:

"I haven't been for a while. I went about three or four months ago, but plan on going again in a couple of weeks just to get some information on it and see what qualifications I need" (NWPGYr11, male2, 1999)

A minority of respondents spoke positively about CEG but it was generally the case that the career professionals had simply provided information on the specific request of the student:

“You can have a careers session whenever you want.” (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

“Career adviser was really helpful. She told me what qualifications I needed to do hair and beauty and sent all the information about courses to me.” (WWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

“She [career adviser] gave me stuff on nursery nurse courses.” (WWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

These responses illustrate concerns as to whether school students appreciate the importance of CEG to their future, but more importantly, it raises the question of whether school students are receiving relevant career guidance or merely information on demand. Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) also found that young people perceived their CEG experiences to be a system of ‘information on demand’. Additionally, although a wide range of career information is accessible and available to school students, they are unlikely to request information on careers that they have not considered or are not aware of. As a result, careers that are ‘invisible’ are unlikely to be considered by school students as potential areas, as a system of information on demand will do little to facilitate the dissemination of information about the invisible areas of adult world careers. Hence choice is restricted rather than expanded. The insignificant role that CEG appears to occupy from the students perspective and the system of information on demand challenges the careers literature which discusses the process of relating development to the opportunities and options available and defines educational and vocational guidance as ‘a pivotal intervention’ (Ginzberg, 1971). Other issues related to the apparent lack of awareness of the significance of CEG include the source and recipient variables of persuasive communication.

The lack of any personal link in the delivery of CEG may explain the limited impact of CEG as reported by many school students. Careers information that is isolated from their own reality may simply appear to be cold and detached information. Previous

research has demonstrated that information on careers where there are no personal links has little or no impact upon a young person's understanding of jobs (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998). Furthermore, Ginzberg's advanced development theory (1951) accentuated that effective vocational guidance is based upon the ability of an individual to understand their personal values and goals. If students within schools in Wales are unaware of the significance of CEG and are not receiving a coherent and integrated CEG programme, possibly due to a lack of training for career co-ordinators, the effectiveness of CEG provision may be questioned.

4.3.6 Parent Perspectives of CEG within Schools in Wales

Over 84% of total parent respondents were aware that their child had received CEG in school. This figure demonstrates that parents had a much higher awareness than the school students about the provision of CEG and may very well appreciate the significance of CEG. Hence, reflecting the fact that either school students do not fully appreciate the significance of CEG or that CEG is not distinguishable as such through its delivery and provision.

A significant relationship was found to be present between the year group of child and parental awareness of CEG, with chi square = 14.134, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, in that parents of Year 10 pupils had a much greater awareness of CEG. Thus suggesting that CEG provision has a greater impact amongst younger pupils and their parents. A greater awareness would have been expected amongst parents of Year 11 and 12 pupils, given the significant choices they have to make with regards to their future careers. However, a higher number of overall responses came from parents of Year 10 pupils.

No significant relationship was found between the gender of the school student and CEG awareness amongst the parents. However, a significant relationship was found between schools and CEG awareness amongst parents, with chi-square = 32.782, $df = 11$ and $p = <.05$, possibly reflecting the different delivery methods. Nevertheless, in all schools, the numbers of parents aware of CEG provision were much higher than those unaware (as demonstrated by the following table). This demonstrates that the schools and career service companies are generating more of an influence and creating a greater impact through the various delivery mechanisms than they might appreciate.

School	Awareness of CEG		Total
	Yes	No	
Bishop of Llandaff	22	0	22
Llanishen	14	9	23
St. Teilos	16	2	18
Cantonian	15	2	17
Pembroke	21	4	25
Milford Haven	49	7	56
Tasker Milward	18	5	23
Caereinion	52	3	55
Newtown	49	1	50
Llandrindod	18	1	19
Prestatyn	86	10	96
Glan Clwyd	31	8	39
Total	391	52	443

Table 14: Parental awareness of CEG by school

Career choice is the focus of the following sections. Schein (1986) purported that career choice concerns the nature and process of choice, particularly by young people, generally reflecting aspects of the social class and static personality differences approaches (Sonnenfeld and Kotter, 1982). In order to address the nature and process of career choice, the role of various influencers in shaping school student attitudes towards careers is explored, followed by opinions on the important aspects of careers and attitudes towards tourism and hospitality.

4.4 Shaping Attitudes towards Careers

In terms of shaping school students attitudes towards careers and the role of various influencers, the findings focus on the formal and informal social contexts surrounding career decision-making, which challenges the policy of high profile media campaigns adopted by some organisations, such as Springboard. Hodkinson (1995) also established that career decision-making is context-related and cannot be separated from the family background, culture and life histories of school students. This demonstrates the conflict that exists within career decision-making. Hodkinson and Sparkes (1997) found that sociological literature emphasises the dominance of socially structured pathways whilst policy-making operates on the assumption that individuals are 'free agents'.

The original assumption of the research project that career co-ordinators and career advisers were the most influential groups in terms of career decision-making, due to the statutory requirement of the 1997 Education Act to provide careers education and guidance in secondary schools, was strongly challenged, as a variety of influences were found to shape attitudes towards careers. Furthermore, the research illustrated the low-esteem amongst those who provide careers education and guidance in Wales with regards to the influence they exert over school students, which may be a result of lapses in CEG training and a lack of awareness about the dynamic career choice process. However, although career professionals and school students had a low regard for formal CEG methods of delivery, parents rated such formal methods quite highly compared to other informal methods. Obviously, this finding raises questions with regards to how influential groups are prioritised and targeted in order to raise awareness and displace negative attitudes about career opportunities in the tourism and hospitality industries.

4.4.1 The Role of Influencers – Who do school students listen to?

The research discovered that there was almost complete agreement amongst the careers professionals throughout the four regions when asked whom they felt the school students listened to. They felt that school students listened predominantly to parents and peers, but not to the career professionals. Only one career co-ordinator presumed that the school students listened to the career professionals with regards to career advice:

“I think they do listen to us actually because I mean it’s so specific, what we offer. I mean the careers company are actually telling them what’s available and where they can go, so they’re helping them to make a decision, so I feel they’re taking it on board, yes, they’re listening very carefully. Well they have to because it’s their future.” (WWCC1, 1999)

This career co-ordinator appeared to be of the opinion that the schools students would automatically and exclusively listen to the career professionals simply because they **had to** in order to make decisions about their futures. This lack of consideration given to other external influences that the school students are consciously or unconsciously subjected to contradicts the work of Hayes and Hopson (1971). They stated that those providing vocational guidance should have a sound understanding of the dynamics of the career choice process, which should incorporate an awareness of all potential influences. One career adviser felt that triangulation existed between groups of influencers and spoke positively about the role of the career advisers. However, this response did appear to focus more on transparent communication with parents with an inferred transfer through to the children, rather than the career professionals being the main group of influencers:

“...I would really say it is a combination of parents, teachers and career advisers, I think we have got a much higher profile now than we ever had. I really do think we have got a presence at parent's evenings, the action plans are sent home to parents, we correspond with parents and we are constantly on the phone and encouraging them, so I would think our influence is quite positive.” (WWCAd, female, 1999)

These opinions can be contrasted against the comments of other career professionals, who felt that school students took very little notice of careers education and guidance:

“.....when you try to give them information and advice that you know is going to help them, they tend to be perhaps a little ‘anti-school’, they think they know better. The feeling I get is that, careers in general, in this school, they don’t consider it as important...” (MWCC1, 1999)

“I find that often they don’t take in what we say, and I find that it is true of any subject, that it is like a spiral you seem to have to go around it several times before they actually take anything in.....they listen to a lot of people. They are influenced by other things. Influenced by television, by what their friends are doing, by what the teachers say....” (MWCA1, 1999)

Other career co-ordinators believed that influential groups differed depending on the academic ability of the school student:

“...you might say that those going into higher education are more inclined to perhaps listen to staff within the school, careers advice, parents. Whereas the ones who are more likely to leave at the end of Year 11 tend to be a little bit more inclined to follow peer group or other people perhaps not associated with the school or parental advice.” (NWCC1, 1999)

“I think it depends on the intelligence of the child, the ability of the child and how sensible the child is to be honest and at the end of the day, what they like doing, so it is a very personal thing. They all listen to parents to a certain extent, and listen to friends to a certain extent.” (MWCC2, 1999).

However, the majority of the career co-ordinators and career advisers questioned effectively discounted themselves as influencers. The research indicates that the career professionals believed the pressure and influence in the career decision-making process to be derived from the parents, who are often perceived to have very high expectations, peers and other family members:

“They listen to their parents.....I did a little bit of research of my own a couple of years ago and it showed quite clearly that parents have the greatest influence over the pupils, far more than we do in school” (SWCC2, 1999)

“..The decisions, I think, are made between peer group pressure, there’s a lot of that, and parents. They only come to us for guidance and information that the parents or they haven’t got.... I think that the child is guided very much by the parents into their way of thinking....” (SWCC1, 1999)

"I think it's still heavily sort of parental influence and peer group influence. One of the things I try to do in Year 9.....is to get them to think about who does influence them and different ways of decision-making. In Year 9 they don't understand the difference between objective and subjective advice.....but parental or elder brother, they're always going to influence them more.....that sort of stuff is so hard to put in it's place....." (SWCC4, 1999)

You will find that a lot of kids, they talk amongst themselves and then somebody will say '*Oh my Dad is this, my Uncle is that....*' and they can glean information from that sort of area and will come to you looking for confirmation, rather than looking for the initial information. It's not a bad way because in many cases the people in the family who talk about their job have got a more realistic impression of what it's about than what we've got in books and on paper..." (SWCC3, 1999)

"Parents have a big influence and families generally" (SWCAd3, female, 1999)

"....short term planning, things like hobbies, the way I dress, the music I listen to, they listen more to peers, but when it comes to long term career planning, parents are the biggest influence" (SWCAd4, female, 1999)

"Parents and friends. In that order. Parents first 89-90% influence on career decisions, then it is peer pressure, then it is probably general society pressure, bottom of the pile is probably the Careers Adviser!! I mean some of them do actually take on board what you tell them about their chosen career but the greatest influences are the parents, definitely." (NWCAd, female, 1999)

"Peer group pressure is probably the greatest pressure for the majority. You will have a group of higher education students who are, generally, very focused.... The average kids in the middle put a lot of emphasis on where their mates are going – at their cost, I guess, in many cases, because I think a lot of them are drifting into college courses, they're not looking at employment with training with any serious thoughts..... They assume they just get a job. There's still a certain amount of parental influence. Parents, back in the seventies, could swap jobs relatively easily or a lot of them are still in the same place, but for the new generation it's [that attitude is] not helping them..... Then at the lower end of the ability scale, those with GCSE grades below C, they often have a much clearer perception of their abilities and will find work relatively easily. They probably won't stay in any one place for long, but they've got an attitude and enthusiasm that will take them most places. So it's the middle band that you worry about because the high flyers are always going to be high flyers and the ones at the other end are always going to be realistic..." (MWCC3, 1999)

This last quote illustrates a finding from previous research that compared Anglo-Greek attitudes towards careers in tourism (Airey and Frontitis, 1997). They found that, in the UK, the lower socio-economic groups expressed a greater certainty about their future careers and suggested that this may be because those who perceive fewer choices have a

clearer idea about their future. Furthermore, the comment relating to parental attitudes about the “easy” transition from school into employment was supported by a career co-ordinator from another region, who suggested that this was an attitude held by some school students as well:

“..talking to kids they still have a perception that there are jobs there for them – when I leave school there’s a job for me or Dad can get me one or whatever, they don’t seem to realise that they have to have GCSEs.....the attitude of boys is that they don’t care, everything will be alright on the night.” (WWCC3, 1999)

These responses correspond with previous work (Hemsley-Brown, 1998), which found that family members represented a credible source of information. However, some responses illustrate reservations that family members are not always best equipped to offer advice. Their occupational experience may be restricted and their attitudes to work and career areas may be biased or out-dated, particularly if the cognitive component of their attitude which comprises of beliefs, opinions and knowledge is misinformed. Similarly, in families with second or third generation unemployment, school students may simply not have access to the world of work, which makes formal CEG all the more essential to their future:

“ because that’s what they know about and what their parents think they know about...” (MWCC3, 1999)

“We’ve got a reasonable number of pupils now who just don’t know what work ethic is. If they come from a home background where nobody works.....We can give them advice but they don’t want to do anything, just sit around at home – simply because nobody in the family works” (NWCC1, 1999)

“I think it is like one in four are unemployed.....some kids at the lower end with families that are not working....their aspirations are going to be lower because they see their parents as not actually attaining much in their lives....” (WWCC2, 1999).

As a result, the provision of an integrated and coherent CEG programme may be difficult if school students approach family and friends for CEG advice rather than

career professionals. This is a problem supported by previous research (Hodkinson 1991; Taylor 1992)

Some career co-ordinators also illustrated the influence of role models or people that school students can relate to and subject teachers, as well as the influence of peer groups:

“Very often somebody who they have not met before, a person in business, doing the job. Somebody who is perhaps only two or three years older than them who have actually done this course or done this job, their peers as well.You have to watch them at the end of Year 9 when they make their option choices. They pick a subject because they like the teacher or drop one because they dislike the teacher....they are not thinking far enough ahead of what they need for the future, because at that age they don't know what they want. It is to do with likes and dislikes and what they feel they are good at.” (WWCC2, 1999).

“....we work through a booklet which asks the kids to identify their strengths and weaknesses and then point out who the external factors are and who may try to change the decisions [re: Year 10 options], things like teachers, subject teachers, and why they may want them in or may suggest that they do other things because they may not want them in the class and the effect of parents, who have delusions of grandeur for their children and expect them to do certain things..... There is still a huge pressure put on them by subject teachers, either to do or not to do their course, there's also peer group pressure – that's still huge and so is the thought behind being taught by certain members of staff who they like....”(WWCC3, 1999).

These findings are substantiated by a larger study of 1,100 Year 11 school students, undertaken in South Yorkshire by Lifetime Careers. The ‘1998 Attitudes and Aspirations Survey’ established that parents were the most popular group of people for school students to talk to about their career ideas, nearly three quarters of school students cited their parents. One third of school students in the South Yorkshire study did not cite either career advisers or career co-ordinators as people that they talk to about their career ideas (Lifetime Careers, 1999). This indicates that students are gaining much of their careers information and guidance from non-specialist sources, hence, illustrating the importance of providing non-specialist deliverers of careers

information with accurate, up-to-date and understandable careers information, whether they are parents, family friends or teaching staff.

4.4.2 School Student Perspectives on their Influencers

The majority of school students cited their parents or other family members as being the people that they are most likely to listen to with regards to career advice. This is hardly surprising, as Super (1953) suggested that the nature of the career pattern is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic level, mental abilities, personality characteristics and the opportunities to which they are exposed. However, although parents were recognised as a fairly credible source of career advice, there was no strong indication that pupils specifically wanted to follow the career pattern of their parents. This is supported by previous studies (Hodkinson 1995; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1997), which found that young people's career choices were unrestricted by social class divisions, parental occupations and traditional stereotypes. Some respondents also mentioned asking role models, with direct experience of specific careers:

"Your mum and dad. The one that does the work as well." (SWPGYr10, male3, 1999)

"I would talk to my brother." (SWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

"Parents. People who are doing the job at the moment" (SWPGYr12, male1, 1999)

"People that are already in work in sort of what you want to do" (MWPGYr10, male1, 1999)

"My dad.....I would ask my brother as well, he's an electrician" (NWPGYr10, male1, 1999)

"Probably I would ask my mum and dad first and probably ask one of the teacher's maybe, the PE teacher or something, what would be the best advice.....Probably my uncle about the army or something like that, because he is there, he could give me the best advice" (NWPGYr11, male2, 1999)

"Parents really.....and they know you the most don't they?" (NWPGYr12, female1, 1999)

Previous studies into the attitudes of young people towards hospitality careers also identified parents (and family members) to be the most influential force. Friends, teachers and counsellors were found to be much less important in determining student attitudes and career choices (Cothran and Combrink, 1999)

Nevertheless, career advice from parents and other family members has the potential to create a positive or negative effect and in some cases was shown to guard against school students taking a particular career path:

“I don’t want to be like my auntie, because she works in a factory.....” (MWPGYr12, female2, 1999).

“Same with me, my own sister. She works in a takeaway. That’s what I mean. I don’t want to be like that” (MWPGYr12, female1, 1999)

This challenges the assumptions that children who identify with their parents or sub-cultures are likely to develop preferences for careers with the same values, but demonstrates the aspiration and ‘up-ward mobility’ factor.

Only a few respondents stated that they would ask their friends or subject teachers:

“Well I have got friends that are older and would speak to them, to see the score, to see what is important, take this course or that course.” (SWPGYr11, male3, 1999)

“My friend who lives up the road from me is doing exactly the same course that I want to do, so I would go up and ask her” (SWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

“Some teachers are useful as well. They tell you their jobs, what they have done...” (MWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

Hence, it would appear that, from the school student perspective, peer group pressure is much less influential than assumed by the career professionals.

Some school students highlighted the problem of gaining career information and guidance from non-specialist sources:

“...my mum and dad, they didn’t really have any career opportunities if you know what I mean. They didn’t have all the sort of things that we have got.” (MWPGYr10, male1, 1999)

“...if my dad tells me something I don’t know if it’s true or off the top of his head. If you look on the computer [internet] and look on the proper site, they know what they are talking about” (MWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

This supports the view of Lifetime Careers (1999) that accurate and comprehensible careers information should be made accessible to non-specialist deliverers of careers advice. In addition, although the career professionals discounted themselves as influencers, at times, school students did cite the career professionals or subject teachers as being influential in their career decision-making process. However, this could be a reflection of the individual and in some cases the influence could be regarded as negative. Lifetime Careers (2000) suggested that school students could benefit from discussing their career plans with a range of people, and that different people can help in different ways. However, although these different perspectives may be beneficial for individual school students, the inference is that those people providing advice, whether formally or informally, should have an understanding of how effective career decisions are made and the relative influence of a variety of factors, thus supporting the literature on career decision-making (Hayes and Hopson 1971; Hodkinson 1995; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1997; Hodkinson and Sparkes 1997).

“All members of teaching staff should have some insight into the careers education and guidance curriculum. Parents should also have some understanding of the process and be provided with sufficient information about the options open to their son or daughter, as well as the progression routes from these options” (Lifetime Careers, 2000:17)

This is particularly salient in Wales, where disparities exist in the provision and delivery of CEG.

4.4.3 Fashion Cycles & the Influence of the Media

There was much agreement and evidence of 'fashion cycles' in career choices. Only one career co-ordinator responded negatively to the idea of fashion cycles in career choices. However, from her subsequent response, it became apparent that although career choices did not appear to vary considerably, there were some traditionally popular career areas amongst the school cohort:

"Not terribly, no. The army is always popular down here because of the limited range of employment. The computer side of careers has become more fashionable I think, but no, I haven't seen any major cycles really. [Law? Medicine?] They're just the same. There's always a lot of interest in them.." (WWCC1, 1999)

It appeared that in some regions and/or schools, various career areas were historically dominant, oftentimes reflecting high aspirations, although whether these aspirations were a result of parental or peer pressure, or simply the choice of the individual is a matter for consideration. In other schools, career choices seemed to be representative of the culture and traditional industries of the region:

"..the law is very fashionable in this school, people also go into medicine, paramedic careers...there's a lot of that. The vast majority are aiming for what I term the professions....They're very academic, very purposeful and, of course, their parents are behind them 100% as well..." (SWCC1, 1999)

"They tend to stick here and there's no doubt that farming, or agriculture, has quite an influence on some pupils because we talk to them in careers lessons and we try to organise work experience for Year 10 and 11 and a majority say they want to go into farming because they live on a farm, or they want to do something associated with agriculture...." (MWCC1, 1999)

"Nursery nurses, physiotherapists, the army, and the police force.....Certain schools tend to produce a lot of army candidates, a lot of police force candidates, anything to do with the police, that is one school in particular... The other seems to produce a good selection of nursery nurses..." (NWCAd, female, 1999)

'Fashion cycles' in career choices were also linked to the ability of the Year Group. One career co-ordinator suggested that dominant career areas varied depending upon whether particular Year Groups were academically or practically orientated:

“..You’re always going to get those who want to fuss with hair and make-up, those who always want to work with children. You’re always going to get groups within a Year Group who want to do those basic things and then it depends on whether we’ve got a very able Year Group or a low, because some Year Groups are much lower. The last Year 11 we had, I mean the bottom end, it was your tilers, your electricians and your plumbers and you could see that and it didn’t matter what you said they are the tradesmen, ‘cos you could see it you know? Practically-minded, mechanical, working with their hands, that’s all those boys wanted – so it depends on the ability of the group as well...” (SWCC4, 1999)

In the majority of cases the media, in particular television, was found to be extremely dominant in creating ‘fashion cycles’ within career choices:

“..Usually television-led. Law, LA Law used to be very popular. Everyone wanted to be a fire fighter at one time. Medicine, here [at this school], is particularly popular, but it’s [the school] in an area served by middle-class professionals...” (SWCC2, 1999)

“In a very simplistic way it’s very much what is on TV – I want to be a policeman, fireman, detective, security person, it’s the media images that are the main focus...” (MWCC3, 1999)

“...It depends what programmes are on television at the time. It’s amazing just how many people want to be interior designers at the moment - ‘Changing Rooms’ has got a lot to answer for.....” (SWCC3, 1999)

“...Very much influenced by what they see on the television.... The ongoing veterinary programme is a good example. The law is extremely popular because of the ongoing series that you see both from a solicitor’s point of view, barrister’s point of view, but also from the police. Interest in the police is very, very high. A decline in the armed forces, simply because they don’t take so many as they used to....” (NWCC1, 1999)

“It depends what is on TV.....especially when cruise ships, Airport, Vets.....(SWCAd7, male, 1999) They actually say, I want to do that because I saw it on the telly. They specifically say I watch Airport, I want to do that (SWCAd3, female, 1999). There was a programme not so long ago with these couriers travelling abroad, tour reps, Oh! my word, that was very popular (SWCAd2, female, 1999). They don’t realise that they won’t certainly be travelling at 16 or 17, they don’t take that on board do they? (SWCAd4, female, 1999). They have no idea of the maturity you need for going into the travel industry. They think you go straight from school and you can see their crest fall when you tell them you have probably to do another course or do some employment or something, until you reach at least 20” (SWCAd7, male, 1999)

“It was forensic pathology when that..... ‘Silent Witness’ was on and then when that Michelle Collins was the holiday rep in Cyprus. These sort of programmes are good because they give kids an insight, but it’s very glossy. They do come in, sort of TV-type, faddy things....” (SWCC4, 1999)

This research illustrates that the media, television in particular, is a significant tool in terms of influencing and informing career choices. However, it was the opinion of some of the career professionals that the images portrayed in the media can often encourage some students to make unrealistic choices and, in some cases, even acted as a deterrent to considering tourism and hospitality as career choices:

“I don’t know how much they listen to us. I think they’re influenced a lot by what they see going on around them, what they see on the television, role models.... Work experience is a classic example, every year the vets are usually one of the first groups of employers to be filled up, because it is extremely popular – I would suspect, largely through the television programmes. Again, sadly, very few are actually able to achieve that potential....” (NWCC1, 1999)

“..Some careers follow ideals....vets. I have interviewed kids in Year 9 and lots want to be vets and by Year 11 reality has hit in, just by qualification levels.....the travel programmes, they just see the travel glow, they don’t see the travel rep working through the night, meeting aircraft in Spain. With the flight attendant, why they think that is glamorous I am not sure.. (NWCAd, male, 1999) “.....That is what we try and tell the kids...The competition to actually work on board in any airline is severe, as that is where the benefits are, that is where the bonuses are. You get better paid for doing on-board plus the fact that you are staying in 4/5 star hotels for two nights, so like I say to them, you may stay in a five star hotel, but you will have chronic jet lag, you really are not going to party all night. So, their ideals and realities are quite separate.....We explain that it is not a job that most people would do for the rest of their lives, so they need something to fall back on, they’ve seen it on TV but are not aware of the downside of it.” (NWCAd, female, 1999)

“I think the hotel one put people off. The manager of the hotel in Liverpool, as good as she was at her job, would have scared our kids to death..” (MWCC3, 1999)

In addition, there is the potential for the media to distribute misinformation.

“..the army they [television] make it look like a doddle but it’s not.” (MWPGYr10, male1, 1999)

This is reinforced by the Foskett and Hemsley-Brown study (1998) on perceptions of nursing as a career. They found that although young people did not know what the salary was, or what it was equivalent to, they heard media reports stating that it was low. Furthermore, the majority of young people they interviewed were unaware of the

salaries of most jobs, except those with extremely high incomes, such as television personalities or professional sportspeople. This is illustrated by the following comment:

“Nurse, Paramedic [TV programmes], it’s loads of money..” (SWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

In addition to misrepresentation, the ‘glamour’ factor portrayed by the media was also apparent:

“..the one about holiday reps.....it attracted me even more because it looked fun” (WWPGYr11, female3, 1999)

“..it glamorises it doesn’t it? Even though they are supposed to be true to life, they still put a bit of fiction in I reckon.....On the airline all these people seem to meet famous people, so you think that looks good but do many meet them? Probably not.” (MWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

Many school students reported that some of the ‘fly-on-the-wall’ television documentaries deterred them from even considering tourism and hospitality as a career choice:

“Did you see the one about the chef? It was awful and that hotel in Liverpool..” (MWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

“It shows all the downside doesn’t it? ...People tell you all the good stuff, but you don’t actually know until you get into it yourself. There’s a lot more to it than they say” (MWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

“It has put me off being a airhostess.....What you hear on the news, when you get attacked” (NWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

“They show you the good things, but they don’t show you the bad things that go on. They show you the odd person complaining, but don’t really go into much detail so they can’t really influence you at all” (NWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

Hayter (2001) suggested that the fundamental objective of ‘fly-on-the-wall’ television documentaries is to attract high viewing numbers. Therefore, the focus is on the exploitation of kitchen and hotel life in order to attract the attention of viewers, rather than consideration of the impressions provided of working conditions within the industries. Additionally, the influence of such programmes can be selective, which

reinforces the findings of Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) that school students only look for information on careers that they have actually considered:

“...some of them are quite interesting and good. It depends on whether you would want to do it in the first place I think.” (MWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

With regards to awareness of career choice, Argle (1989) reported that young people are, generally, aware of the range of occupations available and of what the jobs entail. However, he also stressed that in addition to information on the reality of careers, there exists a large amount of misleading information, mainly derived from the media, which oppresses school students when they are considering their future occupations.

4.4.4 Parents .v. Offspring?

The responses derived from the career co-ordinators, in relation to whether they had experienced differences between parents and school students in terms of career desirability, were quite evenly split. However, those career co-ordinators, who felt that such differences between parents and school students either did not exist or they had not experienced them, consistently referred to parental control and influence or obligation. Thus, suggesting that in such cases career desirability differences might not be apparent, as the school student may not be allowed or encouraged to express their individual career preferences or intentions, due to the influence of their parents. Furthermore, the strongly perceived parental influence illustrates the ‘dependent’ career decision-making style suggested by Phillips *et al.* (1984 cited in Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1997), whereby the individual repudiates responsibility for decision-making and assumes other individuals or circumstances will dictate.

“I think the students, often, are unrealistic - they want more than they can achieve and sometimes the parents are as well. It often takes until Year 11 for them to be realistic about their ability and what they can do. I think the parents, in many cases, are very good at controlling the kid’s dreams and ambitions....” (WWCC1, 1999)

“I think that the child is guided very much by the parents into their way of thinking.....” (SWCC1, 1999)

“..sometimes the parents are just so frightened that their child will set off on a path that will lead to nowhere, that they would rather settle for something safer rather than something unknown..” (MWCA1, 1999)

The following response illustrates the work of Hayes and Hopson (1971) and that of Middleton and Loughhead (1993). The former emphasised that occupational choice can be restricted even if a range of different occupations are available, especially if an individual's choice is impeded by an inherent obligation to work in the same occupation as predecessors. Whilst the latter suggested that parents in the 'non-involvement' category control and dominate their children, who often pursue careers that their parents have selected for them:

“...there's no doubt that farming, or agriculture, has quite an influence on some pupils..... We try to explain that farming is in decline in the area.....but they're adamant that they're going to be in farming for the rest of their lives. You try and tell them that they might look at tourism as a diversification to improve their income, but no, they're very set in their ways and I think they get that from their parents to some extent,..... If a pupil tends to come from a farming background and is academic then they would tend to go for courses which are to do with farming or agriculture or forestry at university as well. Maybe they feel obliged that they have to [continue with the family farm] rather than maybe what they want to do.....” (MWCC1, 1999).

Similarly, the career professionals who believed that such differences clearly did exist and had experienced them, tended to refer to the unrealistic expectations of both school students and parents:

“Sometimes parents have expectations of their kids that are unrealistic, sometimes the kids have unrealistic expectations...” (MWCA2, 1999)

“....a lot of parents have these expectations about their pupils....I think quite a lot of parents do have greater expectations of pupils than their academic ability would suggest. Also, a lot of them look at career areas and they have this one goal. They don't realise of course that if they don't achieve that academic potential, that there are quite a few instances where there are other ways into that particular career area – albeit at lower levels – which may give them the opportunity to work their way up..... ” (NWCC1, 1999)

“Yes, enormous [differences]. In earlier years, the kids are not fully aware of their own abilities. As they get up to Year 10 and 11 they become more aware - in many instances when their parents don't, so their parents often have aspirations which are above the kids level that they don't like to accept, so that is something that we have to deal with. Often parents who wanted to be something try to push their kid in that direction, whereas the kids have got their own ideas - it just doesn't work.” (SWCC3, 1999).

“Sometimes in certain schools they actually invite the parents into the careers interview and you do find that on occasions, the parent will overtake the interview and the child can't get a word in edgeways. Try and put their view across what their young child should do or shouldn't do, whereby obviously our main purpose in the interview, is the young client and impartiality..” (SWCAd4, female, 1999)

“Yes.....there is definitely. Middle-class parents have middle-class ideas for the pupils and if you have a non-achiever or a poor achiever in the middle-class bracket, then it's difficult sometimes to get it all together because the parents will not accept the fact, they insist that they can do this and why can't they do this and the school's not doing it's job.....It [that attitude] comes out more in work experience in particular....high ideals and expectations....” (WWCC3, 1999).

Many of the above responses that are related to the reality of career choices illustrate previous research (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997) that identified three types of careers: lottery jobs; high status jobs; and customary jobs. Many career professionals referred to how a career choice made by school students becomes more realistic as they progress and become more aware of their abilities. This finding gains credence in the traditional belief that the number of occupational choices made by children between the ages of 11 and 17 steadily decreases until a child fixes on their chosen career (Hoult and Smith, 1978). Furthermore the findings support Ginzberg's advanced development theory (1951), which distinguished three stages in the occupational choice process, commencing with 'fantasy choice' and concluding with 'realistic choice'. Additionally, from the responses of the majority of the career professionals it appeared that they believed the parents wished their offspring to emulate or exceed their own careers, even if this involved making unrealistic career choices on the part of the school student. Hence, emphasising the extent of parental influence and the desire by many parents to fulfil their dreams through their children.

This finding challenges many of the traditional views on the aspirations of young people and their parents, in terms of conforming to societal role expectations and restricting career choice by social class divisions. For example, Sonnerfeld and Kotter (1982) and Roberts (1981) who argued that careers are governed by a person's position in the social structure and that individuals view their career in ways consistent with their social class origins. Furthermore, they maintained that the distribution of career opportunities is a function of the manner in which a stratified occupational system, education and the family interlock. Responses from the career professionals obtained within this study indicate that parents, generally, have high expectations for their children, which appear to correspond with the view that the effect of socialisation is not to produce individuals as carbon copies of their parents, but as innovative individuals capable of bringing change to society (Chinoy, 1961).

However, the concept of habitus is also illustrated. Habitus "encapsulates the ways in which a person's beliefs, ideas and preferences are individually subjective but also influenced by the objective social networks and cultural traditions in which that person lives" (Hodkinson, 1995:6). An example of this being that provided by one Mid-Walian career co-ordinator, who talked of the influence that agricultural backgrounds have upon many school students. They tend to be heavily influenced by the close social networks and strong cultural traditions within the environment and region that they live in – often feeling 'obligated' to enter the agricultural industry to fulfil the expectations of their parents. Conversely, some school students mentioned their desire to aspire to something greater than family members. Thus, rather than conforming to social networks and cultural traditions they are reacting against them. Therefore, although career decision-making has been found to be context-related and difficult to separate from family background, culture and life histories of individuals (Hodkinson, 1995) and

social class maintains an influential role in terms of socialisation and habitus, there is no guarantee that career choices made on the basis of social class will be satisfying and rewarding for an individual, especially if the career does not suit their personality or individual aspirations and expectations.

4.4.5 School Student Experiences

Many of the school student respondents cited examples of parental influence, whether direct or indirect:

“...parents can be quite forceful sometimes. My dad wanted me to be a plumber and then we were going to a partnership thing, and I sort of told him that I didn't want to, so he gets quite stroppy and will say you are wasting your time doing all that, so you sort of are getting pressure from your parents but then other people say you do what you want to do, so it can be quite confusing.” (MWPGYr11, Male1, 1999)

“They don't want me to go into the army, because of war or something like that.” (NWPGYr11, Male1, 1999)

“I think mum is quite sort of interested in what I want to do. She's pushing me towards doing it” (MWPGYr12, Female1, 1999)

“They said I haven't got the right temperament and patience [for teaching], but I have.” (SWPGYr11, Male2, 1999)

The following quote further illustrates the problems associated with non-specialist sources of advice having a limited or lack of appropriate CEG information, as this may serve to confuse the career decision-making process:

“My mum says that is okay but whatever I say, she says it would better if you go that way to do..... Because if say I wanted to have an apprenticeship, sometimes she would say it would be better if you went to college, and if I say I want to go to college, she would say it would be better to have an apprenticeship. That is stupid.....” (SWPGYr10, Male1, 1999)

However, a large number of respondents felt that their parents simply provided support and were content to leave the career decision-making up to the individual child:

“My mum supports me in whatever I want to do.....I mean she offers advice and puts her opinion in, but she basically lets me get on with it, because I know what I want to do.” (NWPGYr12, Female2, 1999)

“My mum just told me if you want to do this, just go ahead and try.” (NWPGYr10, Female2, 1999)

“They want me to have a job that I’m happy with” (WWPGYr11, Female1, 1999)

These latter responses demonstrate several of the factors that were outlined as being important to the process of career decision-making (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997):

- Self-awareness. Individuals must have an accurate appraisal of their own strengths and weaknesses. The importance of examining emotions as well as thoughts and negative experiences as well as positive ones is generally emphasised. However, if pupils do not appreciate the significance of CEG or if CEG is not coherently integrated into the curriculum due to a lack of career co-ordinator training and other limitations, this factor may not be facilitated.
- Knowledge of occupations; and
- Assimilating self-knowledge and occupational knowledge. These may also be difficult to facilitate, particularly if the pupils and the career professionals have a limited awareness and knowledge of different occupations. It is precisely this reason that illustrates the extreme importance of CEG training and a coherent, integrated CEG programme, which is enhanced by the use of external speakers and other methods to ensure that gaps in occupational knowledge are satisfied and the invisible aspects of career areas are promoted. Furthermore, in a study of the tourism industry, Ross (1991a) established that greater familiarity with the industry, either through friends, relatives or work experience appeared to equip students with a more realistic understanding of employment criteria.

4.4.6 Parent Perspectives on the Influencers

Parents rated themselves the most influential group in terms of influencing career choices. 20.5% of total respondents rated themselves as 'highly influential' and 53.6% felt that they were 'influential', compared to 18.1% and 4.5% who ranked themselves as 'slightly influential' and having 'no influence' respectively. These figures support the findings obtained from the career professionals and school students in the qualitative stage, as well as previous studies (Super 1953; Hodkinson 1995; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1998; Cothran and Combrink 1999; Lifetime Careers 1999).

Furthermore, the findings appeared to support responses from those school students who stated that their parents were content to leave the career decision-making up to them. Seventy-five respondents out of a possible 274 who rated themselves as 'influential' or 'highly influential' stated that they would allow their child to choose any career area which they were interested in and/or likely to enjoy. The remaining 199 stated that they would be likely to direct their child towards skilled/trained professions (89); science/engineering/technology careers (38); working with the public (19); armed forces/police (19); art/design/fashion careers (15); skilled/trained trades (11); and continuing in full-time education (7). Only 5 respondents who identified themselves as influential/highly influential stated that they would deter their child away from a particular career, such as teaching.

The career area that parents who rated themselves as influential or highly influential were likely to direct their children towards was cross-referenced with the year group of the children. Parents of Year 10 and Year 12 pupils were more likely to direct their child towards skilled/trained professions, demonstrating high aspirations for their children at the beginning of their GCSEs/A levels and the likelihood of progression to

further study. Parents of Year 11 pupils who identified themselves as influential or highly influential were more likely to allow their child to choose any career that they were interested in or likely to enjoy. This suggests that, as parents of Year 11 pupils entering the last year of GCSEs, they may be more realistic about the opportunities available to their child.

The following were rated as being 'influential' in their children's career decision-making process by parents:

- Subject teachers: 37.8%
- Careers literature: 36.7%
- Work experience: 36.7%
- Career co-ordinators: 36.1%
- Career advisers: 35%

In terms of being 'highly influential', parents rated the following:

- Work experience: 24.6%
- Themselves: 20.5%
- Subject teachers: 14.5%

The following influencers cited within the qualitative stage and also within the literature appertaining to career choice and the formation of attitudes towards careers, were rated by parents as:

	Slightly Influential %	No Influence %
Brothers/Sisters	20.5	32.8
Newspapers/Magazines	32.4	26.1
Family members	30.5	24.2
Family friends	27.6	30.9
Schoolfriends	32.2	19.9
Television	30	21.8

Table 15: Parental attitudes towards influencers

Hence, it would appear that parents have a much higher regard for the influence of the formal methods and specialist sources of CEG, such as career co-ordinators, career advisers, subject teachers, careers literature and work experience. Parental opinions regarding the influence of less formal and non-specialist sources, such as family members, friends, television and newspapers/magazines was much lower. The parents attributed television, in particular, much less status in terms of influence on their children. This possibly indicates that too much emphasis is placed upon the glamour of the media, rather than the influence of social and educational contexts, particularly as individuals often only search for specific information on particular careers if they have a predisposition towards that career.

These figures demonstrate that, in terms of the message source, the status and credibility of the career professionals is placed much higher than that of less formal and promotional media sources. The figures also illustrate the fundamental importance parents place upon the career professionals in terms of influencing the career decision-making process. Thus emphasising the explicit need for structured and integrated CEG within schools and the importance of training for career co-ordinators, in order to ensure that those providing CEG have a sound understanding of the dynamics of the career choice process and their role within that process. Furthermore, it highlights the need for career professionals to acquire specialist knowledge about various career areas, which reinforces the benefits of fostering closer relationships with industry, in order to enhance the CEG programmes and acquire more in-depth knowledge.

4.5 Building the Picture I – Important Questions about Careers and the Formation of Attitudes towards Tourism and Hospitality

The various influencers directly or indirectly shape attitudes towards careers in general. An attitude can be viewed as an integration of beliefs and values. Beliefs are representative of the information individuals possess about the world, which may be inaccurate or incomplete, whilst values relate to an individual's sense of what is desirable, good and worthwhile (Gross, 1996). Therefore, influencers shape attitudes by generating beliefs about the important aspects of a career and values about the various types of career areas and professions. This section seeks to investigate general attitudes amongst the respondents towards careers, followed by basic levels of understanding with regards to the tourism and hospitality industries.

4.5.1 Typical Questions asked about Careers

Although regional differences were evident in some of the responses, the research has distinguished issues upon which respondents were fairly unanimous. All the career coordinators and career advisers were asked about typical questions which school students tended to ask with regards to careers. The majority of those interviewed stated that questions about qualifications were the most common, in particular the qualifications required for specific jobs or courses and how far that qualification would enable them to progress:

“Main thing is qualifications, I would say..... The pay factor and the holiday factor are a little bit lower down on the list.....” (NWCC1, 1999).

“Qualifications, definitely” (SWCAd1, female, 1999)

“....in Year 11, they're coming to ask *do I need to go to college to do this?, or can I get on a Traineeship to do that?, or do I need to come back to do A-levels?* and so on.” (WWCC1, 1999).

“The majority of kids who come to see me are basically *where can I study this course? Which is the best university? Why is it the best university?How good is the course? What sort of qualifications do I need?*” (WWCC3, 1999).

“What qualifications they need and how far that qualification will take them.....” (SWCC1, 1999).

“How many GCSEs, that’s always the one or which is the best A-level or GNVQ? Those would be the two really. They don’t tend to ask like what jobs are out there for me? They don’t tend to think about the local labour market at all....” (SWCC4, 1999).

Therefore, it would seem apparent that routes for career progression within the tourism and hospitality industries should be highlighted to school students, as the career co-ordinators felt that they put much more emphasis on this than any other aspect.

Another important finding was that some career co-ordinators called for career advice to be less qualification-orientated, to accommodate and include those students with strong practical abilities and skills but weaker academic capabilities. This has an application to the tourism and hospitality industries, as the majority of job roles demand communication and interpersonal abilities, whilst other job roles also demand a high level of practical skills:

“.....they are all ‘qualification-orientated’, they think that without that they can’t go any further.....It’s got to be said that too many teachers think that education is the only route, which I’m afraid is not the case....Because people are so examination-orientated, you’ve got great practical kids, who are going to be useless on their qualification level, but if you wanted them to be a carpenter or a motor mechanic they’re going to be damn good people. They’re good practical steady people, but they just don’t do exams. So many companies now look first at what qualifications they’ve got - although in many instances it’s the least relevant.....” (SWCC3, 1999).

This perceived problem was illustrated by a comment from a different career co-ordinator:

“You try and push things.....the more qualifications they get the more they get paid.....” (SWCC4, 1999).

Not only does this highlight the pressure to obtain qualifications but also the perception that to obtain a well paid job an individual has to be highly qualified and a well paid job

is deemed to be an occupation that is seen to be a “..profession..” (SWCC1, 1999). Qualifications and knowledge are believed to be a means of improving and expanding the career opportunities of an individual, rather than enhancing job performance. This sort of response also illustrates studies featured in the literature (Willis, 1977) that suggested that qualifications offered the potential for upward mobility and that occupation can be defined as “the principal determinant of social status” (Super, 1957:18). Furthermore, it illustrates that general attitudes towards careers are linked with components of other attitudes and with deeper levels of an individual’s value system (Oppenheim, 1992).

Conversely, one career co-ordinator expressed concerns over pupil’s motivation and his role as a career co-ordinator in response to this issue of typical questions asked by school students. He felt that they were more likely to ask the career adviser specific questions, although this could be a reflection of his lack of experience as a career co-ordinator and an unwillingness to encroach upon the role of the career adviser. His response also relates to later comments about pupil’s being “anti-school” and unaware of the importance of CEG:

“What I find the most difficult thing is to get pupils motivated in anyway or form. Because they view it [CEG] as a non-exam area and therefore they come in and think that the work is not important. Maybe because I’ve only been doing it for a limited time, there’s nothing apparent which they would ask, I think they might ask the careers adviser specific questions.....most of them are quite happy to fill out questionnaires without really questioning why they are doing it.” (MWCC1, 1999)

Career co-ordinators and advisers tended to be of the opinion that school students put very little emphasis on salaries:

“No, if I mention it [salaries] they become interested, normally they don’t ask about it.....Their perception of money and earnings is completely cock-eyed really. The main comments I get is that teachers are very well-paid, they have wonderful lives and holidays and things because that’s what they know about and

what their parents think they know about..... their perception of income is just amazing!..." (MWCC3, 1999)

"I find that a lot of them are not interested in pay and conditions. It seems to be the last thing they think of." (MWCA1, 1999)

Some career professionals felt that salary perceptions depended upon a variety of factors, such as the academic ability of the school students, their socio-economic backgrounds and their levels of maturity:

"...more academic children will certainly be aware of salaries..." (MWCC2, 1999).

"...in one of my schools, which is an independent school, they do seem to come out with things like pay and whether it will be a suitable job for them to do and I think it is because of the family attitude." (MWCA1, 1999)

"More with A-level students than GCSE, probably because they are older and they know more about it, that is when you get the interest in pay and conditions" (MWCA3, 1999)

One career adviser actually distinguished between genders in terms of an awareness of salary levels compared to a desire to work in a particular field:

"...Without being sexist, the boys are more interested in the salary, girls especially when they are talking about child care, just want to work with children, that is their main objective..." (NWCA, female, 1999)

This response is supported by Firby (1990:733) who stated that:

"Girls are more likely to choose occupations that involve meeting and caring for people.....They appear to find the intrinsic nature of the work more important than salary and conditions"

However, although questions related to salary levels and career choice were said to have a much lower priority, low salary levels were cited by the career professionals as one of the most negative factors about working in the tourism and hospitality industries. This strongly suggests that career professionals accord salary levels a far higher priority than school students when considering careers. The beliefs and values that the career professionals possess about various careers culminate in attitudes, which are likely to be

conveyed to school students. If the information the career professionals hold is biased, inaccurate or out-dated, this will only serve to perpetuate negative perceptions towards career areas, in particular tourism and hospitality.

Previous research (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998) identified that the knowledge school students possessed on salaries was based on parental attitudes and their cultural and social surrounding, including peers, family and media images, especially television. This is illustrated by the following response:

“I’m not happy with the people dealing with sport because they say there is no money there. You say that is what I want to do and they just look at you....”
(NWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

Furthermore, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) established that salary perceptions were based on two main factors: simplified promotional messages via the media and an assessment of the amount of manual work to be carried out. Media reports of poor pay, attempts to circumvent the minimum wage and exploitation of asylum seekers do little to promote the image of the industry (Hayter, 2001) and Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) purported that low pay is associated with manual labour and low status is associated with domestic manual labour.

4.5.2 School Student Perspectives

Some school students mentioned salaries as being the attractive aspect of various careers, although they tended to be in a minority. However, older students in particular, associated salaries with other aspects, such as job prospects and security, whilst others appeared to be just ‘money-orientated’, which might reflect their unrealistic perceptions of salary levels.

“It’s the money isn’t it?” (NWPGYr10, male1, 1999)

"Probably money. But I don't want a hard job just a really easy one" (MWPGYr10, male 2, 1999)

"Mainly money I would think. If I didn't like it, it wouldn't matter, because just for the money, it wouldn't bother me.." (WWPGYr12, male2, 1999)

"Job prospects. Like doing that job. Money and security" (SWPGYr12, male1, 1999)

The majority of the peer groups cited interest and enjoyment as being the most important aspects of careers:

"I would prefer something that I enjoy it and less money, than something I didn't enjoy" (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

"You have got to be interested in it..." (MWPGYr10, female1, 1999)

"I would rather do a job that I enjoyed and get less pay, than do a job that I didn't enjoy but got more pay" (MWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

"I would enjoy the job " (WWPGYr12, male3, 1999)

"Has to be a fun job and outdoors, not stuck in an office.." (WWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

"Being able to travel and interesting" (WWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

"...If you like what you are doing, you are going to stick to it aren't you?" (SWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

"It's better to like something you are doing, instead of hating it. Having a job you hate, it is better if you have a job you really like" (SWPGYr10, male4, 1999)

This finding corresponds with previous studies (Hodkinson 1995; Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1997) who found that young people believed that interest and enjoyment of a job was an important consideration and tended to base their career choices on this rather than on maximising their employment opportunities. Finally, some also mentioned a desire for responsibility as being important in a career. It is possible that the perception school students have of responsibility may lead them to accord a higher status to some career areas:

“Responsibility...a surf instructor has to be very responsible, especially when you’re working with kids. Also need to know about the tides and stuff like low pressure, you know, commonsense things.....”(WWPGYr11, male, 1999)

“Also responsibilities. You have to know what to do if something goes wrong or if they’re ill, like First Aid and stuff..” (WWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

4.5.3 Parent Perspectives: What is a career and what are the important aspects?

Parents were presented with statements from literature on career theory, in order to ascertain what they believed a ‘career’ to be. They rated the statements as follows:

		%			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	A route with direction & purpose	31.5	60.7	1.1	-
2	<i>A frequent change of career areas with variation being the main motivation</i>	1.7	20.3	39.5	6.7
3	A job for life	10.6	29.4	38.4	6.9
4	<i>A pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a persons life</i>	11.4	57.2	8.9	0.6
5	A lifetimes commitment to an occupation	7.8	32.4	37.1	4.1
6	Social mobility/Moving up the ‘social ladder’	8.2	37.1	26.1	6.9
7	A series of promotions in one particular occupation	9.9	45.8	22.9	1.9
8	<i>A series of different occupations that build upon past skills and experience</i>	10.2	52.1	16.4	1.3
9	A vocation- matching personality with an occupation	22.2	54.2	7.8	0.6

Table 16: Parental attitudes towards ‘a career’

These responses illustrate the assumption that general parental attitudes towards careers tend to conform to the dated but traditional idea of a career, rather than a more *flexible* approach towards the concept of a career. Confirmatory factor analysis supported this. The nine variables were reduced to two factors and the variables that were moderately or highly correlated with each other were grouped together to form each factor. Hence illustrating the emergence of two factors in relation to the concept of a career: traditional approach and contemporary/flexible approach. The nine items of the ‘Career is’ scale were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS. Prior to performing PCA the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of

the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was .68, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

PCA revealed the presence of two components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, which accounted for 26.6% and 17.5% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the second component. Using Cattell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain the two components for further investigation. To aid in the interpretation of these two components, Varimax rotation was performed, which adjusts the distribution of the variance between the two components. The rotated solution, presented in the following table, revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone 1947) with both components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component. The two-factor solution accounted for a total of 44.1% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 26.4% and Component 2 contributing 17.7%. The results of this analysis support the use of the traditional attitude towards career items and the contemporary/flexible attitude towards career items as separate scales.

Career is.. Items	Components	
	1 Traditional approach	2 Contemporary approach
A lifetimes commitment to an occupation	.77	
A job for life	.76	
A series of promotions in one particular occupation	.72	
Social mobility/Moving up the 'social ladder'	.59	
A route with direction & purpose	.45	
A vocation- matching personality with an occupation	.31	
A series of different occupations that build upon past skills and experience		.73
A frequent change of career areas with variation being the main motivation		.68
A pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a persons life		.52
% of variance accounted for	26.4%	17.7%

Table 17: Varimax Rotation of Two-factor Solution for 9 'Career is...' Items

The results also demonstrate the prevalence of the traditional approach to careers amongst parents, as factor 1 accounted for 26.4% of the total variance, with large loadings (>0.50 , Stodolska 1998) occurring for four variables, namely lifetime commitment, job for life and linear progression. The more traditional views of a career involve the 'steady state' and 'linear' career paths, which represent a lifetime's commitment to an occupation and achieving a series of promotions in one particular occupation respectively. Furthermore, 45.3% of parents agreed or strongly agreed that a career would provide 'social mobility'. Driver (1982, 1988) asserted that a more flexible approach is required, due to the pace of societal and technological change, which tends to favour spiral and transitory career paths. A 'spiral' career path refers to a person who remains in an occupation for 7-10 years and then chooses another occupation which builds upon past skills and experience, whilst a 'transitory' career path involves a frequent change of career choices, with variation being the main motivation for individuals.

These latter career paths have not been traditionally accepted as normal or legitimate career patterns, although many (Nicholson and West 1988; Inkson and Coe 1993; Lankard Brown 1996) argue that the more 'traditional' definitions of career paths are no longer appropriate to contemporary organisational career systems. Alarming, in the current economic climate, 40% of parents agreed or strongly agreed that a career was 'a job for life'. Prior to the 1960s, vocational guidance was a specialist advisory service that matched the talents and interests of school leavers against what was known about jobs. Yet, over 76% of parents agreed with this outdated statement that a career is 'a vocation – matching personality with an occupation'. Spearman's Rank Order Correlation found a positive correlation between a career being a 'job for life' and job security being an important factor when choosing a career ($p = .000$). Conversely, a

negative correlation was found between a career being a 'frequent change of career areas with variation being the main motivation' and job security as an important factor when choosing a career ($p = .170$). As anticipated, positive correlations were also found between the importance of job security when choosing a career and a career being 'a lifetime's commitment to an occupation' and a career being 'a series of promotions in one particular occupation'.

The qualitative responses obtained from the career professionals, many of whom were of the same generation as the parents, demonstrated a similar attitude towards the concept of a career. Conversely, the responses acquired from the school students portrayed a more contemporary and realistic understanding of the concept of a career, which is discussed in further detail under the positive and negative aspects of the tourism and hospitality industries.

70% of parents reported that their child's career choices had changed as the child had matured, which corresponds with qualitative responses obtained from the career professionals that career choices become more realistic as the school students mature. Furthermore, it supports previous research (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997) that established three types of careers: lottery, high status and customary jobs and identified that young people pass through each stage at different ages, becoming more realistic about the opportunities available to them as they develop. In addition, the results support Ginzberg's (1951) advanced development theory, which also asserted that there are distinct stages within the occupational choice process. As to reasons why their child's career choices had changed as the child had matured, the parents agreed or strongly agreed with the following statements:

- 62.9% *'They want to obtain formal qualifications to improve their career prospects'*. This supports the parental responses that agreed or strongly agreed that a career provides social mobility. It also supports qualitative responses obtained from the career professionals that typical questions asked about careers focused upon the qualification required and that qualifications and knowledge are believed to be a means of improving and expanding the career opportunities of individuals, with qualifications offering the potential for upward mobility. A significant relationship was also found between wanting to obtain formal qualifications in order to improve career prospects and the importance of formal qualifications as a factor when choosing a career.

- 61.8% *'They have found out more information about different career opportunities'*.

- 59.9% *'They have become more realistic about the career opportunities available to them'*. These latter two responses demonstrate the maturity factor and possibly the longitudinal effect of CEG provision. Firstly, in terms of establishing the range of potential careers available, some of which may have been 'invisible', and secondly, developing the ability to make informed and realistic decisions about their abilities and the subsequent career opportunities available.

- 51.8% *'They want to incorporate particular interests and hobbies into their career'*. This supports the qualitative responses of the school students, who believed that interest and enjoyment were the most important aspects of a career. Hence, suggesting that the attitudes of the school students towards their future careers is being transferred to their parents, particularly as the career professionals tended to focus more on tangible aspects such as salary and promotion.

- 35.2% *'They have been influenced by experiences gained through their work experience'*. The percentage of parents that agreed or strongly agreed with this statement might appear to be rather lower than expected. However, given the high number of Year 10 parents as overall respondents, it is highly likely that many of the school students would not have completed any work experience at the time when this survey was conducted.

- *'They have been influenced by the career choices of family members'* and *'They have been influenced by the career choices of their friends'*. Responses to these two statements reinforced the fact that parents, unlike career professionals, do not believe friends and family members to be of much influence in the career decision-making process of their children. Only 22.5% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement relating to family members, whilst 29.6% disagreed or strongly disagreed. Friends appeared to have even less influence with only 12.9% of parents agreeing or strongly agreeing, whilst 35.8% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that career choices had changed due to the influence of friends.

Spearman's Rank Order Correlation was used to calculate the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables. A positive correlation was found between:

- the influence of parents and the influence of the career choices of family members ($p = .000$)

- the influence of a) career advisers ($p = .005$), b) career co-ordinators ($p = .003$), c) subject teachers ($p = .000$), d) careers literature ($p = .003$) and finding out more information about different career opportunities

- the influence of parents and higher aspirations and increased ambition as a reason for changing career choices ($p = .000$)
- the influence of a) career advisers ($p = .001$) and b) work experience ($p = .015$) and becoming more realistic about the career opportunities available to them
- the influence of work experience and the experiences gained through work experience as being a reason for career choice changes ($p = .000$).

However, insignificant relationships were found between the influence of a) television ($p = .103$) and b) newspapers/magazines ($p = .113$) on finding out more information about different career opportunities as a reason for changing career choices. This was anticipated, as parents had not rated television or newspapers/magazines highly as influencing their children's career decision-making process, however, television had been given a great deal of significance in the qualitative stage.

The survey figures show that 51% of parents believed that their children are likely to change career areas between 1 and 3 times in their working life and almost 8% believed that their children would never change career areas. Coupled with parent's previous responses on what they believe a career to be, this is, perhaps, a reflection of their outdated and inflexible attitudes towards the concept of a 'career'. These statistics also demonstrate the need for those formally providing CEG to ensure that those in informal positions of influence in the career decision-making process are provided with up-dated and relevant information.

However, a 2 x 5 contingency table analysis was conducted to determine whether there was an association between parental awareness of CEG and the number of times they thought their children would change career areas. A significant relationship was present with chi square = 15.847, $df = 4$, $p < .05$, in that a greater parental awareness of CEG reflected an expectation that their children were more likely to change their career areas during their working life. In addition, another 2 x 5 contingency table was conducted to determine whether there was an association between whether the child's career choices had changed as they had got older and the number of times the children were likely to change career areas. A significant relationship was present with chi square = 23.448, $df = 4$, $p < .05$, in that if children had been seen to change their career choices as they had got older, parents were more likely to expect them to change career areas more during their working life.

In terms of factors considered important when choosing a career, parents deemed the following as important and extremely important:

Career Factors	%
Responsibility	89.6
Language skills	50.5
Career progression	87.2
Initiative	87.7
Ability to deal with unplanned events	87.4
Job security	94.1
Training opportunities	94.1
High income	74.9
Variety	81.9
Social interaction	81.4
Work in a challenging and dynamic environment	72.6
Credibility	81.2
A 'profession'	72.8
Interest/enjoyment	99.4
Promotional opportunities	86.4
Teamwork	81.9
Formal qualifications	89.7

Table 18: Factors considered important to a career

'Interest/Enjoyment' of a career was given much significance by 99.4% of respondents in terms of being an important or extremely important factor when considering a career. This underpins previous parental responses with regards to career choices changing as a result of children wishing to incorporate particular interests and hobbies into their future careers. In addition, it also supports the qualitative findings that school students placed a great deal of importance on interest and enjoyment of a career.

The following were considered to be not very important and not important at all by parents as factors to consider when choosing a career:

Career Factors	%
International travel	54.2
Glamorous image	76
Working within an office environment	65.5
Working 9am – 5pm weekday hours	58.1
Working in an outdoor environment	57

Table 19: Factors considered unimportant to a career

The high percentage apportioned to international travel being not very important or not important at all to a career is slightly concerning. Travel was a frequently cited attribute of the tourism and hospitality industries within the qualitative stages, by both career professionals and school students, yet is not accorded a high priority with parents, who have the greatest influence on the career decision-making process. A glamorous image was also cited by respondents in the qualitative stage as being associated with particular aspects of employment within tourism and hospitality, such as cabin crew and travel agents, yet 76% of parents classed it as having very little importance as a factor when choosing a career. Working 9-5 weekday hours was not classed as a particularly important career factor, yet the fact that working within the tourism and hospitality industries is not a '9-5' job was often seen as a negative factor by the respondents in the qualitative stage, particularly amongst the career professionals.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was carried out on the factors deemed by parents as important when selecting a career, in order to compare the scores across the three different year groups. There was no statistically significant difference in any of the variables across the three different year groups. However, factor analysis of the responses relating to the factors parents believe are important when choosing a career clearly indicated six separate factors, which revolve around themes such as: status and occupational references, personality and employment characteristics, working conditions, emotional references, social mobility and financial references, and linguistic abilities.

The twenty-two variables were reduced to six factors and the variables that were moderately or highly correlated with each other were grouped together to form each factor. Thus, illustrating the emergence of six factors in relation to the aspects deemed important when selecting a career. The items on the 'important career factor' scale were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS. Prior to performing PCA the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .83, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

PCA revealed the presence of six components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, which accounted for 55.5% of the total variance, within which the six components accounted for 23.1%, 10.4%, 7.2%, 5.3%, 4.9% and 4.6% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the sixth component. Using Cattell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain the six components for further investigation. To aid in the interpretation of these six components, Varimax rotation

was performed, which adjusted the distribution of the variance between the six components. The rotated solution, presented in the following table, revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone 1947) with all components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component. The six-factor solution accounted for a total of 55.5% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 12.1%, Component 2 11.8%, Component 3 10%, Component 4 9.5%, Component 5 7.1% and Component 6 5% of that total variance. The results of this analysis support the use of the items relating to status and occupational references, personality and employment characteristics, working conditions, emotional references, social mobility and financial references, and linguistic abilities as separate scales. The first two components, labelled status and occupational references and personality and employment characteristics, accounted for almost 24% of the total variance. Large loadings occurred for all of the variables attached to each component, illustrating the importance attached to these aspects of a career.

Important Career Factor Items	Components					
	1 Status & Occupational References	2 Personality & Employment Characteristics	3 Working Conditions	4 Emotional References	5 Social Mobility & Financial References	6 Lingulstic Abilities
Responsibility	.71					
Recognised as a 'profession'	.67					
Credibility	.66					
Formal qualifications	.63					
Teamwork	.57					
Ability to deal with unplanned events		.75				
Initiative		.72				
Training opportunities		.70				
Career progression		.51				
Job security		.50				
Work in an office			.73			
9-5 Weekday hours			.68			
Glamorous image			.63			
Work in an outdoor environment			.54			
International travel			.51			
Interest/enjoyment				.27		
Social interaction				.69		
Variety				.68		
Work in a challenging and dynamic environment				.66		
High income					.80	
Promotional opportunities					.52	
Language skills						.58
% of variance accounted for	12.1%	11.8%	10%	9.5%	7.1%	5%

Table 20: Varimax Rotation of Six-factor Solution for 22 'Important Career Factor' Items

4.5.4 Educational Routes & Migration

Generally, the career co-ordinators were of the opinion that school students following or interested in the more vocational subjects, such as tourism, hospitality and catering, would be more likely to leave at the end of Year 11, in order to seek employment or proceed on to the local further education college:

"The GCSE Catering is quite popular. It tends to be that not so many of the more able do it.....Year 11 students that have done GCSE Catering tend to go out into FE or go into work. I can't think that they would be staying on for A-levels.....If they've done two years of catering course and they identify themselves as a caterer.....they see themselves in that role and that's what they expect to do when they leave." (SWCC2, 1999).

"I think that it is a point about as being seen as for people who maybe less academic and that comes over very strongly. Like for those who are thinking of leaving school now at 16, you know GNVQ's aren't something that they are thinking about, so a lot of them would do leisure and tourism if they're wanting to

work in travel and maybe being air cabin crews later. But it is seen almost as something you go into if you leave school earlier. I mean if they are staying on for their A levels a lot of them have quite different routes don't they?" (SWCAd3, female, 1999)

"GCSE Catering, unfortunately, only seems to attract less able pupils, for some reason....." (MWCC1, 1999)

Some of these comments reinforce the findings of an earlier investigation into the views of school pupils on careers in hospitality (HCTC, 1993). This earlier research found that pupils who would be leaving school either before or directly after taking their GCSEs were less ambitious in their job aspirations and viewed the hotel and catering industry more favourably than those planning to continue their education.

The career co-ordinators interviewed were also of the opinion that school students who were likely to progress onto tourism or hospitality courses at a higher level, within a university environment, would be likely to follow a different route. Rather than pursuing subject specific or vocationally related GCSEs or GNVQs in Years 10 and 11, the career co-ordinators believed that they would be more likely to undertake GCSEs and A-levels or Advanced GNVQs in subjects such as Business Studies or Accountancy, with the interest in tourism or hospitality occurring at a later stage in their development. This was the case in schools offering Advanced GNVQs in Hospitality & Catering and Leisure & Tourism, as well as schools only offering A-level and GCSE courses. Hence, such school students would be envisaging management positions within the tourism and hospitality industries, rather than entry at an operative level.

"If people looking at Leisure and Tourism, going into that industry and going on to university, they'd probably be looking at the management side of things and going through our Business Studies courses and going into the industry that way.." (SWCC2, 1999).

"Those really who are going to go on to UWIC – or wherever, sometimes are those who've come through different routes. Like, they may be very good in Business or very good in Accounts and really they hadn't thought about hotel or catering or that type of thing - it doesn't dawn on them until later that maybe

they've been quite sound academically, but over the sixth form they've developed an interest or they've looked at the local labour market and they've thought oh, loads of hotels going up, leisure complexes, whatever, and they've thought on from that sort of academic basis really. But lots of kids just like cutting, chopping, making, end product – you know.” (SWCC4, 1999).

This highlights the perceived difference between those students who might enter the tourism and hospitality industry at management level, i.e.: those who are academically sound, and those likely to enter at an operative level, i.e.: those who are practically minded. Similarly, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) found that young people are faced with the forceful message to obtain the best qualifications they can whilst still in the education system, in order to improve their career prospects. Furthermore, school students are expected to maximise their qualifications, which accounts for directional changes and aspirational adjustments whilst studying for GCSEs and A-levels.

“A student who embarks on A-levels would be unlikely to accept a further or higher education route which did not require the qualifications she/he could gain. Maximising on anticipated qualifications is part of the choice process and students are encouraged to ‘aim high’, which means selecting a route which ‘uses’ all the qualifications they can achieve.” (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998:77)

There was also a consensus amongst the career co-ordinators that the more academically able the school students were, the more likely they would be to move away from the local area.

“With regards to your higher education students, I would say a fair proportion of those tend to move outside the area. Perhaps some later point in their lives they may come back, but a greater proportion of those move on...” (NWCC1, 1999).

“The people who go to higher education rarely come back....Some will come back, certainly, I can think of about half a dozen youngsters over the last ten years who have come back to work in public sector jobs, normally the county council.” (MWCC3, 1999)

“They obviously want to stay in the area, but pupils who are more academic are the ones which are more likely to leave and go on courses or to university and so on.” (MWCC1, 1999)

“The majority wants to stay [in the area]. It is only going to be the top ten percentage that I would say migrate away to universities..... We are extremely

lucky here that the unemployment is very low. There is usually work.....” (MWCC2, 1999).

“People who are bright will go away to university and tend not to come back, because they are bored with Milford and what it has to offer and so on and you are left then with the less able student, who has the ‘Milford phobia’ who wants to stay here and therefore your employment base if you like, becomes somewhat limited.” (WWCC2, 1999).

Only one career co-ordinator reported a different scenario, although South Wales is an area that possesses a number of different universities offering a wide-range of courses that would allow local students to remain in the area:

“The only difference that I’m finding now is that more and more people are going to home-based universities. All my form [Year 13] are telling me that they are investigating home-based universities.....because of finances..” (SWCC1, 1999).

Meanwhile it was felt that those students who leave at the end of Year 11 and who are purported to be less academically able tend to remain in the local area, either seeking employment or training locally, or enrolling at the local further education college.

“ I would say that the ones perhaps who leave at the end of Year 11 are more inclined to stay locally.....simply because the ones who tend to leave at the end of Year 11 are usually the ones going into further education or if they are going into training then it’s likely to be with a local employer.” (NWCC1, 1999).

4.5.5 Understanding ‘Hospitality’

There was a consensus of opinion throughout Wales and from all career advisers and career co-ordinators that ‘hospitality’ is a term that is not understood by parents, young people or indeed career professionals themselves. Those that did profess to have some understanding of the term either focused upon the catering aspect of hotel employment, referring to it as the ‘hotel and catering industry’ or on the customer care aspect and obligation to ‘host’ and ‘look after customers’. Responses obtained from career professionals in relation to the term ‘hospitality industry’ included:

“I think it is being polite to people.....They don't follow it through as a career track.....I mean hospitality means to me the greeting you get when you walk in, whether it is Oakwood, whether it is a hotel or whether it is the TIC, you

are made to feel comfortable and welcome....Things like that is hospitality, isn't it?"(WWCC2, 1999)

"I don't think they understand what hospitality is. I mean hospitality can be when you're greeting somebody, where as hospitality is actually the food, isn't it? I think there is confusion there, absolutely.....that word 'hospitality', they don't understand it.....they think of hospitals first of all, but 'hospitality', they don't think of it in terms of hotel catering. I mean, yes, it's a nice word for hotel catering, but if they don't understand it.....hospitality is definitely a confusing word." (SWCC1, 1999)

"Not really [understand hospitality]...whether parents realise now that like customer care is so important, to retain your customer base – you've got to look after them otherwise you've got to go and find new customers and that's expensive – I don't know, possibly a confusing term. Perhaps people don't know the extent or perhaps what's meant by it." (SWCC4, 1999)

"..I think until there is a definite term that people are comfortable with, hotel and catering actually sums it up. I mean if you are Year 11 here and depending upon maturity level as well, you call a spade a spade in other words, they get terribly confused. There are no high-fluting terms that you can use with them..." (NWCAd, male, 1999)

"...the terminology is a bit nebulous. I mean because hospitality embraces entertainment and so many other industries well anything where there is a customer, well within reason.....I mean there is some confusion about the word....it tends to be allied with hotels, right, it tends to be very much perceptions of parents in terms of, they don't think that it could involve working in an airport, working in a situation where you may be promoting and marketing other products associated with tourism, you know. They don't get the connection.." (WWCAd, male, 1999)

Insensibility of the term 'hospitality' was frequently blamed on a resistance or unwillingness to change, in addition to the fact that any change is a gradual process, particularly in terms of attitudes.

"No I don't think they do [understand hospitality]. Buzz words or new words are slow to catch on in this part of the world. The hospitality sector isn't seen as accommodation and catering but more seen as what can we get for free?" (MWCC3, 1999)

"....people are set in their ways aren't they? It's very difficult to change their approach to something." (MWCC1, 1999)

"No, I think, as an overall umbrella for the catering, leisure and tourism and other things, it's a new term and I think they need to come to grips with it.... it takes time." (SWCC2, 1999)

"People don't understand the term [hospitality]. It takes a long time for anything to filter through." (SWCC3, 1999)

Only one career co-ordinator discussed the consequence of changing lifestyles on the terminology issue:

“..I think that it’s [hospitality] probably a bit more of a grey area. I think people tend to experience perhaps more of the catering side of it, because a lot more people now tend to eat out, whereas perhaps going and staying in a hotel they perhaps only do it for their holidays or at odd times.....I think the term hospitality still has people a little bit puzzled. I think people are becoming a little more aware of it, in particular with all the games on television and the reference to corporate hospitality, villages and boxes, so I think they are more aware of the term hospitality, but I don’t think they are aware of it as perhaps they should be. They perhaps still see it as pure catering or pure hotel work rather than perhaps one term which could be used to describe all those areas.” (NWCC1, 1999)

There is also a darker side to the term ‘hospitality’, which can be linked to attempts by the host to meet all the needs and wants of their guests, specifically in terms of giving sexual favours (White 1970; Guerrier and Adib 2000). Some career professionals cited examples that illustrate this perception of the hospitality industry. Although probably fuelled by media misrepresentation, it is very concerning that such perceptions exist amongst young people who have the potential to be future employees within the tourism and hospitality industries.

When we took the pupils up to the hotel, I briefed them and mentioned the word ‘hospitality’. One of the youngsters asked if that was like that programme on TV, about ladies of the night up in Bradford, ‘Band of Gold’, so there was that sort of seedy element there, which surprised me a bit, but again, it’s the TV influence and the misrepresentation of the word.” (MWCC3, 1999)

“...I was interviewing a lad - he was interested in working in hotel catering, we were looking it up together to do the research, and he said ‘hospitality’ I thought that was high class hookers! An escort service!....” (NWCAd, female, 1999)

The confusion, insensibility and misrepresentation towards hospitality terminology can only be compounded by the debates (Ingram 1999; Brotherton 2000; Lashley 2000) regarding a definition of hospitality. It is apparent that the term ‘hospitality industry’ still generates an image of hotels and catering, something which it was purported to replace. Hence, the expedience of the title “hospitality” as a replacement or substitute for the more established designation of “hotel and catering” should be questioned.

Wider research carried out at participant observation events has also identified that majorities of people, including “influencers”, do not understand the term “hospitality”. Therefore, much more needs to be done to clarify and explain the terminology related to hospitality and the hospitality industry, in particular illustrating all the aspects that hospitality encompasses, not just the catering aspect.

4.5.6 Terminology from the School Student Perspective

A definite trend is evident in terms of the confusion regarding the meaning of ‘hospitality’, as the responses obtained from the school students supported those of the career professionals. However, whilst it may be argued that some of the career professionals were on the ‘right track’, even if they did focus on the catering aspect, responses from school students were even more diverse. As illustrated by the following quotes, quite a few respondents mentioned ‘hospitals’ and ‘caring for people’ which is extremely perturbing. However, responses incorporating references to hospitals gains credence from literature that traced the origins of the word ‘hospitality’ and discussed the application of the concept of hospitality to health care operations (Christian 1979, Burgess 1982, Cassee and Reuland 1983, Hepple *et al* 1990, Betts and Baum 1992, King 1995).

“Making people better.....Caring for people” (SWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

“[Hospitality?] I couldn’t handle it. All those sick people. It’s just like nursing and that....Helping people” NWPGYr10, female1, 1999)

Reference was also made to the notion of hospitableness and the obligation of the host to provide comfort for the guest:

“The first thing that comes into your head is hospitality – people doing something for you to make you feel as good as possible” (SWPGYr12, male3, 1999)

This supports authors who assert that hospitality is a relationship based on the host and the guest with the host portraying a genuine desire to please, rather than a calculative economic relationship (Christian 1979; Lashley 2000).

One respondent created a distinction between hospitality and hotel and catering:

“A lot of things go under hospitality don’t they? Not just hotels and stuff...Hotel and catering is just like the cooking side, like the kitchen and stuff like that, the preparation part...[Hospitality?] Is like the customers and all that kind of stuff” (MWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

This response illustrated the fact that customers were seen to be an important aspect within hospitality, but not necessarily within hotel and catering. The latter was perceived to comprise simply of the production element. The notion that customers are an important element within hospitality can be supported by literature that identified four distinct characteristics within hospitality (Hepple *et al.* 1990 cited in King 1995:220):

1. It is conferred by a host on a guest who is away from home
2. It is interactive, involving the coming together of a provider and receiver
3. It is comprises of a blend of tangible and intangible factors
4. The host provides for the guest’s security, psychological and physiological comfort.

4.5.7 Tourism and Hospitality: Separate or Combined Industries?

As the literature suggests (Horner and Swarbrooke, 1995) it is difficult to purposely divide tourism and hospitality into two distinct industries, primarily due to the changing industrial structures and prominence of integration. However, many (Olsen and Blank 1987; Brotherton 1999) dispute this approach and view tourism and hospitality as two distinct industries. Data obtained from the career professionals tended to reinforce and

support this latter assertion, with the cynosure of hospitality being catering whilst the discerning feature of tourism was thought to be travel and interpersonal skills.

"I think it's viewed as different...with hospitality, what comes to my mind is things like hotels, restaurants, that type of thing, whereas with tourism it's obviously a larger area. It would cover things like watersports, amenities - you're basically working with the same customers but I would have thought that it was slightly different because tourism covers a whole blanket of things, behind the scenes things as well, while we're the ones at the front with hospitality I would have thought." (MWCC1, 1999)

"Different I would say, because one would involve the catering side and the other would be the personal skills with the travellers on the other side." (SWCC1, 1999)

"I see it as separate. I see the hospitality as being more of the catering side of it and the leisure side of it. Tourism tending to have two aspects to it, the home tourism in which you've got the hospitality coming in to it as an overlap, but then you've got the other aspect of tourism, which is away from here." (SWCC2, 1999)

"I would think hospitality to me personally, whether it would be the same to anybody else, is more food and beverage side and hotels sort of side, whereas tourism is courier, promoting holidays sort of, that would be the distinction for me.." (MWCA3, 1999)

"I think they've been lumped together because it's easier to do that. Now that I know more about it myself, I can see that there are differences in it. Hospitality could be going on throughout the year, by staging lots of events or taking advantage of events that are going on. The tourism is inter-linked into that because if you can get people to come to the events then so be it...." (WWCC3, 1999)

One respondent suggested that, due to their very nature, tourism and hospitality were intertwined but that their basic components were different.

"They're linked.....I don't think you can separate them.....The tourism side people perhaps still see as going away on holiday, hospitality that's more, people tend to think of the eating side and all that sort of area, fast-food restaurants – those sorts of areas. So I suppose some people might see it as separate things, but I think they are inevitably intertwined – you can't separate them completely." (NWCC1, 1999)

A career adviser, also from North Wales, suggested that whether tourism and hospitality were separate or combined industries depended upon their actual location, i.e., whether

the industry was based in a tourism or urban environment, as this would have a bearing on the seasonality issue:

“Around here [Rhyl] one feeds off the other definitely. If it wasn't for the tourism industry, I think quite a lot of the pubs and hotels around here would definitely not exist. Simple. Whereas you go out into the more rural, I mean, this is very much tourist area, you go to the inner city areas or outer city areas near the places like Crewe.....Macclesfield, Manchester as well, they are independent, they are stand alone, they support themselves quite happily on a huge population, so they don't need to worry about seasonal flux because it doesn't exist.” (NWCAd, female, 1999)

A minority view tended to favour the arguments (Horner and Swarbrooke 1995, Ingram 1999) that tourism and hospitality are the same and are, therefore, a combined industry. However, one was not a particularly cogent response and the other referred to the distinction being made by those with an in-depth knowledge of the subject areas.

“Possibly the same, although I suppose if you were to ask them [pupils] that question at a glance they would say the same, but if you were to ask them to give a fuller, they may sit down and think, no, they're not. One is sort of different to the other.” (SWCC4, 1999)

“GNVQ students know it is separate, perhaps others not.” (WWCC2, 1999)

A predominant observation from the comments made by many of the respondents is that discernible differences between tourism and hospitality would become more apparent if there was more thought given to the nature of the industries, coupled with a greater understanding of the terminology.

4.5.8 School Student Attitudes

As with the responses from the career professionals, the school student's responses tended to support the literature that views tourism and hospitality as two distinct industries (Olsen and Blank 1987; Brotherton 1999). In the main, the students tended to associate tourism with travel, whereas hospitality was perceived to be much more static, involving home-based activities.

“Separate [Why?] Because like tourism you go around the world and that and hospitality is really staying in one place.” (SWPGYr10, male3, 1999)

“Two separate...tourism is like getting you to the place, that sort of thing. Hospitality is putting you up when you are there, that sort of thing..” (SWPGYr11, male2, 1999)

“Two [separate] because one is more for the caring side of things as far as looking after people when they come to hotels and stuff and the other is more on giving information, for example working in those holiday companies that give people information on where they can go.” (MWPGYr10, female2, 1999)

An interesting distinction was made by one respondent on the basis of her perception of job roles within the tourism and hospitality industries. Hospitality was seen to be providing a service, but more detached from the consumer, whilst tourism was felt to be more of an interactive role with the customers. This is quite possibly a reflection of the individuals’ personal experiences and derived images of certain job roles, particularly as the example given focused on Club 18-30, where the involvement and interaction of the holiday representative forms part of the overall holiday experience.

“The hospitality seems more of a job, whereas like tourism is more laid back. You get in with the people, you know, it is not like with hospitality – if somebody asks you to do something *‘I will bring it up right now, I will do it right now’*, it is like that. With tourism, like the 18-30 Clubs, you get in with all the people, you take them on trips, you have fun with them, it is more like that.” (SWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

One respondent provided quite a reflective account of his perceptions of the differences and similarities between the tourism and hospitality industries:

“In some ways they are similar and in other ways they are different.....they’re similar because they are both looking after people or tourists coming into the area, but they’re different because things like bars and catering are open all year round....not just for the tourists, so maybe hospitality is a bit different.” (WWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

Unlike some of the career professionals, who favoured the view that tourism and hospitality were the same, the school students who did not think that the industries were separate believed them to be at the very least linked. The following quotes illustrate

these opinions but may be explained by experiences derived as an indirect consumer of tourism and hospitality products:

“It kind of follows on doesn’t it? Tourism, then you have hospitality. Like you go on an aeroplane and then onto a hotel. They do join.” (MWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

“They work together. They are linked together, very closely linked. You can’t have tourism without hotels, you can’t go on holiday without hotels. You wouldn’t know the hotel unless you had the tourist industry to advertise and things. They work together don’t they?” (MWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

4.6 Building the Picture II: Exploring Specific Attitudes towards Careers within the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

The preceding section constructed the first part of the picture regarding attitudes in Wales towards careers in tourism and hospitality. It explored the important aspects of careers as perceived by career professionals, school students and parents. Furthermore, it considered the formation of attitudes towards tourism and hospitality, specifically levels of understanding relating to the terminology and the tourism and hospitality industries in general. If levels of comprehension are questionable, it is likely that specific attitudes, based on beliefs and values, will be misinformed and possibly negative.

This section progresses by investigating the specific attitudes of career professionals, school students and parents towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries. If the aspects deemed important to a career are not evident in their specific attitudes towards tourism and hospitality, it provides a strong indication as to why careers within the tourism and hospitality industries are not seen as first-choice careers, which is a prime objective for organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru. Furthermore, it demonstrates that levels of understanding need to be addressed in order to eradicate misperceptions and negativity.

In his longitudinal study of the Spey Valley in Scotland, Getz (1994) asserted that tourism and hospitality has become the predominant industry in many rural areas where there are few alternative employment opportunities. Moreover, he discussed the importance of cultivating local young people as potential employees, in order to ensure the long-term sustainability of tourism and hospitality in such rural areas and to guard

against in-migration and transient workers. Getz (1994b:25) also raised the following dilemma:

“Where tourism and hospitality have become dominant, one might expect that part-time and seasonal job opportunities for youth would expand considerably and that exposure to the industry through such work.....would result in a higher propensity to seek careers in this sector. Alternatively, it could be argued that exposure to the industry would likely generate negative attitudes..”

Ultimately, this study also seeks to explain a similar paradox that emerged from this data: why, when many rural and coastal areas are particularly reliant upon tourism and hospitality and there are few alternative career areas, are school students not interested in tourism and hospitality as career choices?

4.6.1 Prominence of Tourism and Hospitality as Career Choices amongst School Students

The majority of career co-ordinators responded negatively to the prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices, although acknowledged that some of their school students were likely to find themselves working in such career areas:

“Not at all [prominent].....The jobs such as leisure and tourism, the catering side of that, retailing, clerical work – we’re looking at GCSE-level entry, entry at sixteen, some of it which is not particularly well-paid. If you were to ask a group of Year 10 pupils *how many people here intend to do office work when you leave? How many intend to work in shops? How many intend to go into leisure and tourism? Catering and so on?* You’ll get very few who’ll admit to it at that stage, but we know that that’s where a majority or a large number of ours will go.” (SWCC2, 1999)

Some attributed much of this negativity to the poor image of the tourism and hospitality industries and the possibly unrealistic high aspirations of some school students:

“In many instances, if you talk about that type of service industry, most of the kids see it as unsociable hours, you’re going to be working all night, poor money, low prestige. They all want to be something – brain surgeons, bankers or something. They don’t think that any of them are going to end up in McDonalds or wherever...” (SWCC3, 1999).

The vocational aspects of tourism and hospitality were also seen as a possible deterrent to school students selecting careers in tourism and hospitality, as it was felt that the opportunities for advancement were concealed:

“..they don't see a chef as being a career, they don't see a practical job as being a career, they figure a career, I think, as opportunities and they don't see it, they see it as a job, very practically, that is a job and what they don't see is that they can progress and I don't think they even understand job titles and they don't really liken the real job titles to what the actual work involved is.” (MWCA1, 1999)

However, other career co-ordinators conceded that a lack of prominence may be related to the subjects offered within the school:

“We [the school] don't touch tourism, so it's just the GCSE in Catering.....Pupils are more likely to go into hospitality....[tourism's] not popular, because it's not dealt with in school....” (SWCC1, 1999).

Remarkably, career co-ordinators from areas other than South Wales, which appear to be very dependent on domestic tourism also reported a lack of prominence in tourism and hospitality as career choices amongst school students:

“Very few [pupils] are interested.....If they're interested [in tourism] they would probably come back here to do GNVQ. Usually the number of pupils that do GNVQ is not more than ten, its usually around six or seven coming back..... At the end of Year 11 probably maybe ten would look at an area like tourism as a future career and how many of those then actually follow that through to actually work in that area – probably only half maybe.....There's no doubt that an area like Mallwyd does depend on tourism, because, apart from farming you've got very little manufacturing industries anyway.....I would have thought that looking at the area, you would get more people interested in it but it doesn't seem to be so, I don't get the view that the number of pupils are interested in the subject in view of the actual area and the locality. You would have thought that there would be more.” (MWCC1, 1999)

This suggests that the lack of prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices is an inherent problem of the tourism and hospitality industries in specific regions. Areas such as Mid Wales do not possess vast career opportunities within a host of other industries, unlike parts of South Wales. Hence, there are fewer external factors in the immediate area attracting school students away from the tourism and hospitality

industries. In addition, the majority of Mid-Walian career co-ordinators interviewed confirmed that school students tend to remain in the area, often returning after university studies, possibly influenced by the inherited obligations of the agriculture industry. Therefore, there should be a plentiful supply of potential employees for the tourism and hospitality industries.

One obvious explanation is the penurious public image of the tourism and hospitality industries in such areas. Reliance upon domestic tourism and the unavoidable effects of seasonality create an industry that is probably not utilised to its fullest potential. Hence, local school students witness 'careers in tourism and hospitality' as transient, seasonal jobs. This contributes to the negative image of the industry, as routes for career progression are unlikely to be visible. This was illustrated by one Mid-Walian career co-ordinator, who also highlighted the fact that although for some school students careers in tourism and hospitality were a consideration, the travel aspect may act as a deterrent, particularly in areas where the school students tend not to migrate. Conversely, the pupils intent on progressing onto higher education rarely consider tourism and hospitality:

"It's certainly on the agenda. I think, of those that go into FE, it's a feature. But I don't know that they look upon it as a long-term job. I mean certainly we can go through the fact that hotel and catering industry occupations can take you world-wide, the opportunities to travel are huge, that doesn't often encourage them, because they are afraid to leave the area. The ones who go into higher education will not think about leisure and tourism or hospitality, they just don't think about it." (MWCC3, 1999).

Likewise, career co-ordinators from other coastal regions emphasised the effects of seasonality upon the prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices. In addition, the importance of obtaining a secondary skill or qualification was mentioned:

"We don't seem to get a huge take-up on tourism and hospitality, probably because Pembrokeshire is seen very much as a seasonal, six-month job where

everybody works like hell from April to October and then they're laid off, so it's not perceived by our students as a stable employment...." (WWCC3, 1999).

"In the county of Pembrokeshire where tourism is a major employer, although it is seasonal, we don't have what you expect to have as far as numbers are concerned, of students who want to go into the industry.....You just see it as a job and not as a career.....[Hospitality and catering] it is a secondary string to their bow.....I have out of 30, three who are dead keen on catering as a future career, the rest are there as a top up if you like as an extra experience. It is like hairdressing, I have girls who come into hairdressing not only as hairdressers but see it as a secondary string to care, if they want to work in an old folks home, Mrs Smith may want her hair done one day or her nails cut and some secondary skills will be of some use....." (WWCC2, 1999).

The concept of obtaining secondary skills and/or qualifications in hospitality and catering is perturbing. Although it may be an economic necessity for people unwilling to leave the area to have a secondary career to sustain them throughout the low season, it reinforces the negative image of tourism and hospitality and undermines any attempt to ensure that they are regarded as 'professions'. However, negativity towards tourism and hospitality is not just a problem relating to seasonality issues. One career adviser located in South Wales, which is not as susceptible to seasonality problems, illustrated the negative attitude held by some parents regarding the tourism and hospitality industries which are seen to provide temporary jobs rather than long-term career opportunities:

"Year 13, who have just left and quite a few of them haven't got anything permanent but are carrying on with their jobs, their part-time job or whatever it was, places like Las Iguanas and various bars, the parents are very keen to stress that this is only a "fill in", even though, we know from having gone around and rated them, that there are really good careers to be had, if they chose to continue within the company. But no, the parents stress that it is only a temporary "fill in" job you understand and is seen as low status." (SWCAd7, male, 1999)

Career advisers in North Wales believed that poor achievers were generally reluctant to search for information on careers. As a result, their awareness levels are likely to be very parochial. If the school students happen to reside in a seasonal coastal area, such as North Wales, which has witnessed a declining industry, then this is what their

perception of tourism and hospitality will be based upon. This was also cited as a problem in West Wales. The problem is compounded by the fact that they are unlikely to search for more information if they do not have a predisposition towards tourism and hospitality:

“.....kids around here, without being derogatory to them, a lot of them are not high achievers in a lot of the schools, especially some of the schools I am in and they like things to be given to them and a lot of them just don't want to go out and find anything, it has to be given to them. When something is local, they can identify with it..... (NWCAd, female, 1999)

.....The majority are interested in local industry, because that's where the jobs are. I daresay if you lived in Chester.....where there are big clientele hotels, you probably would have a different perspective but you can't blame them.....” (NWCAd, male, 1999)

“....young people are not exposed to the job areas here because 90% of local employment in this area, employ under six people, so we are talking about very small indigenous businesses.....” (WWCAd, male, 1999)

The lack of a developed tourism and hospitality industry was also cited as a drawback to the prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices, as career opportunities are unlikely to be immediately evident:

“[Tourism and hospitality] is not highly developed because we haven't got the seaside, it is a stopping place.... We do have some caravan sites, we have some in town, but I would imagine the majority of hotels really here, are either dealing with large functions like weddings or they are dealing with salesmen and businessmen.” (MWCC2, 1999).

“.....They have to kick start the tourism industry in North Wales really because it is even the last two or three years around here, it is crumbling and it is evident, I mean if I have noticed, then the people who live here and who have lived here for a long time, they sure as heck have noticed it.....” (NWCAd, male, 1999)

A small minority of career co-ordinators reflected more positively upon the prominence of tourism and hospitality as career choices. However, reference was made to the influence of trends and the media on perceptions of careers in the tourism and hospitality industries:

“They [tourism and hospitality] have been popular career choices. When we first introduced Leisure and Tourism into the sixth form, we had huge numbers, like

thirty, they were so big these groups and then, of course, in the press – this was about four or five years ago – there was like *leisure and tourism – what's that all about? Why do we want these sorts of people?* And the demand for it fell away, but it's come back this year and it's quite a strong group again, so maybe it is the World Cup and all the stuff that's happening that's raised the profile of it again, but it was definitely affected by all that bad publicity.” (SWCC4, 1999).

“..Because we live in the area in which we do, naturally, it always has been quite a popular area from the hospitality and catering point of view.....I would say that's there is a fair interest in the leisure and tourism field. We don't have any things like Llandudno, which has very fortunately kept all it's promenades and wonderful display of hotels, we're not particularly well-endowed on that side, so the opportunities to get into some of the prestigious locations are not that good. It's still extremely popular, with a lot of interest.....The catering and hotel side tends to be a bit more popular.....” (NWCC1, 1999).

Meanwhile, one career co-ordinator reported that tourism appears to be increasing in prominence as a career choice, compared to catering and hospitality. However, she reinforced the comments of another career co-ordinator from the same region regarding the 'travel' aspect of tourism acting as a deterrent to some school students:

“Catering isn't popular -it's got a very low esteem, mainly because in the summer a lot of them [school students] get jobs washing-up in Tenby and that puts it in a very bad light because they see the worst side of it.....I have noticed that there have been a few more enquiries recently about careers in travel, whether in a travel agency or as a holiday rep, that's become a lot more popular recently, but we always struggle round here because there are never that many people who want to pack up and go, they're always very, very happy to stay around, so we've always got that problem.” (WWCC1, 1999).

4.6.2. School Student Attitudes

School students participating in the focus groups were given a range of career areas, adapted from the Careers and Occupational Information Centre (COIC) “*Working In...*” series (1999), and asked to select whether they would consider that particular career area; maybe consider it; or not consider it at all. Sixty-one school students participated in the focus groups throughout all four regions of Wales. The overall results for tourism and hospitality in particular are provided in the following table:

	Hospitality			Tourism		
	Yes (consider)	Maybe (consider)	No (consider)	Yes (consider)	Maybe (consider)	No (consider)
Female	8	15	9	17	7	7
Male	3	14	12	6	11	13
Total	11	29	21	23	18	20
	<i>Females who responded that they would consider a career in hospitality were significantly higher than males.</i>	<i><u>Highest score:</u> little difference between the two genders.</i>	<i>Little difference between the two genders.</i>	<i><u>Highest score:</u> females who responded that they would consider tourism as a career were significantly higher than males.</i>	<i>Little difference between the two genders.</i>	<i>More of a significant difference between the two genders.</i>

Table 21: School student selection of tourism and hospitality as career choices

It was apparent that school students responded much more favourably to the option of considering a career within tourism, than within hospitality. However, female school students dominated these responses, which possibly reflects perceptions of the characteristics of people who work within the tourism industry, which is discussed further in the tourism and hospitality employment section, but suffice to say that the tourism industry was perceived to be female-orientated. This is supported, to a certain extent, by a study of 634 Australian college students, which found that women were more likely to express an interest in tourist industry work (Ross, 1991a). Nevertheless, although tourism scored a much higher positive response than hospitality as a career area for consideration, this score only slightly exceeded the number of respondents who signified that they would not consider tourism as a career area (yes = 23; no = 20).

A higher number of school student respondents stated that they might consider a career in hospitality, than those who might consider a career in tourism, and there was very little difference between the two genders. In fact, they were almost evenly split. Therefore, if these respondents were indifferent, it would appear that hospitality has slightly more potential to be considered as a possible career than tourism. However, it

must be appreciated that although attitudes represent a predisposition to behaviour, how individuals actually act in a particular situation will be dependant upon the immediate consequences of that behaviour, in particular how others are perceived to evaluate actions.

The following table demonstrates the regional variations in the school student responses:

	Hospitality			Tourism		
	Yes	Maybe	No	Yes	Maybe	No
North	2	5	4	2	3	6
Mid	0	7	6	3	5	5
South	5	9	6	6	6	8
West	4	8	5	12	4	1

Table 22: Regional variations

Hospitality scored low positive responses in North and West Wales, with no positive responses at all in Mid Wales. These are generally considered to be areas where the hospitality industry is one of the more dominant industries, with few alternatives for employment, apart from agriculture. However, they are also areas that tend to be dependent upon domestic tourism, experience seasonality problems and are dominated by small owner-operated businesses, where employment opportunities and career progression possibilities are limited or non-existent. South Wales gained slightly more positive responses, however, the area has witnessed a huge expansion in the sector in recent years, which has possibly given the hospitality industry more exposure.

With regards to tourism as consideration for a career, West Wales dominated the positive responses. This is possibly a result of the nature of the tourism industry in the region, which tends to offer a variety of different tourism operations, aimed at a number of different target markets. Furthermore, whilst the hospitality operations in West

Wales are generally owner-operated, many of the tourism operations are of a larger-scale, such as the Oakwood theme park, which may create a greater awareness of the career opportunities available. North and Mid Wales, again, scored low positive responses, even though the local economies are very dependent upon the tourism industry. However, this is likely to be the result of an industry dependent on domestic tourism with inherent seasonality problems.

In addition, comments made by school students regarding this issue and their selection included:

"I like being with people, but it's not the same as a 9 to 5 job. I would say it is a temporary job. I wouldn't see it as a permanent job"(MWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

"It just doesn't appeal to me. I would end up lashing out at somebody....I could not hack it....Just not my scene at all" (MWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

"[Hospitality?] Sounds boring...I'd be stuck inside" (WWPGYr11, 1999)

The first quote, in particular, demonstrates that whilst the respondent admitted being a 'people person' and therefore having a possible disposition towards the service sector, she does not perceive employment within the tourism and hospitality industries to be permanent. It is extremely likely that this is a reflection of the local industry that she is exposed to in Mid Wales. The following quote simply illustrated a complete lack of interest in tourism and hospitality as a career for consideration based on the temperament of the individual respondent, which has possibly been influenced by derived media images of 'problem customers'. The final quote illustrates a lack of understanding of the concept of employment within hospitality and what the terminology actually encompasses. Thus, demonstrating that career decisions are often based on partial information and are highly context-related. This reinforces the paradoxical responses of the career professionals as to why, when many of the areas are

extremely reliant on the tourism and hospitality industries, school students are not interested in considering tourism and hospitality as viable career choices.

4.6.3 Parent Perspectives on Tourism and hospitality as Career Choices

Within the quantitative stage, parents were also presented with a list of career areas, adapted from the COIC "*Working In...*" series and asked to identify their career area, together with first, second and third career choices for their child. The results were as follows:

Career Area	Frequency			
	Parent Career	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice
Agriculture	21	2	2	6
Armed Services	6	23	9	24
Banking & Finance	28	28	24	26
Beauty & Hairdressing	12	13	8	7
Construction	21	9	22	8
Engineering	24	35	25	21
Fashion	1	5	14	9
Hospitality	24	10	7	7
Information Technology	15	51	61	49
Journalism	0	18	24	21
Law	5	39	31	24
Medicine & Dentistry/PAMS	17	38	24	19
Music	4	11	12	12
Nursing	37	18	15	21
Performing Arts	0	9	17	11
Police/Emergency Services	6	12	28	19
Retailing/Sales	47	4	9	10
Social Work	14	11	7	20
Sport & Fitness	3	36	24	33
Teaching	63	31	46	42
Tourism	3	11	14	23
Veterinary Medicine	6	10	11	9
Other:				
Administration	25	0	1	0
Management	6	0	0	2
Adult/Child Care	13	0	0	3
Transport	6	0	0	0
Languages	1	1	0	0
Design	4	11	4	2
Civil Service	13	2	0	1
Unclassified	16	3	0	1

Table 23: Parental selection of tourism and hospitality as career choices for their child

Career areas such as administration, agriculture, adult/child care, civil service, construction, management, nursing, retailing/sales, teaching and transport had reasonably high numbers of parents working, or who had worked, within them but had low frequencies of selection as first, second or third career choices for their children. Areas such as the armed services, design, information technology, journalism, law, medicine/dentistry/professions allied to medicine, music, performing arts, police/emergency services and sport and fitness had high frequencies of selection as first, second or third career choices for their children but low, or zero, parents working within them. Career areas that appeared to remain consistent in terms of parental careers and first, second or third choices for children included banking and finance, beauty and hairdressing, engineering, social work and veterinary medicine. Thus reflecting 'traditional' career areas in terms of 'professions' and/or regional employment opportunities.

A reasonable number of parents selected hospitality as their career area (5.2%) compared to those who selected tourism as the career area in which they had spent the majority of their working life (0.6%). However, with regards to the selection of first, second or third career choices for their children, tourism received a much higher frequency of selection across the three career choice areas than hospitality, with a frequency of 48 compared to 24. This underpins the responses obtained from the career professionals and school students, who placed tourism in a slightly more positive light than hospitality.

Previous research (Murphy, 1985) identified that certain groups of people appear to develop much more positive attitudes towards the tourism industry in any tourism-related community. Residents with a commercial or vocational investment in tourism

were more found to be more likely to be favourably disposed to the industry than were other community members. Those who owned or operated businesses, as well as those who worked in those businesses were found to have more positive attitudes to the industry than those who had no direct involvement or perceived that they derived no benefits from tourism. Murphy (1985) concluded that familiarity with the industry tends to generate more favourable overall evaluations. Similarly, Choy (1995) found that non-tourism workers tended to have fairly negative perceptions of tourism industry jobs.

However, this empirical research challenges that of previous studies. Parents who selected tourism and/or hospitality as first, second or third career choices for their children, predominantly, had no experience of working within the tourism and hospitality industries.

	Personal Experience of Tourism & Hospitality Employment						
	No Experience	Seasonal/Casual	Part-time	Full-time	Full-time Supervisory	Full-time Managerial	Self-employed
Parent Career							
Hospitality	-	5	2	7	1	5	4
Tourism	-	-	-	2	-	1	-
1st Choice							
Hospitality	7	1	-	1	1	-	-
Tourism	9	1	-	-	-	1	-
2nd Choice							
Hospitality	5	-	1	-	-	-	-
Tourism	10	1	1	2	-	-	-
3rd Choice							
Hospitality	5	1	1	-	-	-	-
Tourism	17	1	1	1	-	2	1

Table 24: Parental experience of tourism and hospitality employment

Thus demonstrating that parents with no experience of tourism and hospitality employment are not as negative towards the industries as might have been expected. In fact, it would appear that parents with experience of working within the tourism and hospitality industries are less likely to select tourism and hospitality as career choices for their children. One explanation for this, as demonstrated by the following table, is that they may have developed negative attitudes towards the industries through exposure to their limited local tourism and hospitality industries. Those selecting tourism or hospitality as their career areas were predominantly located in Mid, North and West Wales.

	School											
	SW1	SW2	SW3	SW4	WW1	WW2	WW3	MW1	MW2	MW3	NW1	NW2
Hospitality	-	1	-	-	2	3	2	5	3	2	4	2
Tourism	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1

Table 25: Regional variations of experience of tourism and hospitality employment

Therefore, as message recipients, it may be difficult to change the attitudes of parents with experience of tourism and hospitality employment and promote tourism and hospitality as 'first-choice careers'. Due to their previous experiences the promotional messages about careers within tourism and hospitality may well fall outside the parents latitude of acceptance.

4.6.4 Image and Status of the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

The qualitative research confirmed initial assumptions that the attitudes held by career co-ordinators and career advisers towards the tourism and hospitality industries were negative. Career professionals were initially asked to describe the two industries. Concise comments obtained relating to the tourism and hospitality industries included:

"Servile." (SWCC2, 1999)

“...seen as seasonal, low paid, low prestige. Same with the hospitality industry.”
(SWCC3, 1999)

“Seasonal, unpredictable.....Not well paid. People who want to work in the hospitality industry have to be prepared to move.....” (WWCC1, 1999)

The image of servility gains credence from literature which examined the historical role of hospitality in society (Nailon 1982; Hepple *et al.* 1990; King 1995; Guerrier and Adib 2000), specifically the ‘obligation of hospitality’ and links with domestic service and obligation. Domestic work is rarely awarded high status, as it is perceived as manual work, which can be done by most people. Foscett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) asserted that value and status is assigned to a job, based on societal perceptions of that job. These perceptions include consideration of how unusual the skills required to do the job are, how many people are capable of acquiring such skills and how long the training is to acquire the specific skills. If low status is awarded to each of these considerations, it is likely that the perception of the job and subsequent career area will be negative, regardless of whether this perception is correct.

The comments reflected regional variations with regards to the attitudes of career co-ordinators and career advisers. Some career professionals immediately thought of outgoing tourism, with no consideration of domestic or incoming tourism, whilst in other areas there was evidence of strong parochial attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality, rather than a consideration of the national and international dimension. Such career co-ordinators and career advisers considered the expansion of the tourism and hospitality industries in relation to their local economy and, in part, to the Welsh economy but failed to connect it with a broader, global economy. Overall, the responses tended to indicate a lack of understanding and many descriptions appeared to be derived from respondent’s experiences of being a consumer of tourism and hospitality ‘products’.

“reps on holiday, travel agent shops” (SWCC1, 1999)

“..‘trolleydollies’, I know that it may sound sexist, but, that is what they actually do, push trolleys backwards and forwards...” (NWCAd, male, 1999)

“The first thing that comes to my mind and I think maybe other pupils, is that it’s seasonal. It’s not a full-time career. It’s something that is part-time and maybe that would put a lot of people off.....you look at caravan sites in the area. I mean you’ve got them during the summer months full and then November, January, February, hardly anybody there.....I suppose, maybe, pupils have relatives who work in areas like this and can see that it is only at certain times of the year, or seasonal work. [Hospitality?] Probably very similar [to tourism].....” (MWCC1, 1999)

Parochial attitudes were evident in the emphasis on incoming tourism in the locality within which the career advisers and career co-ordinators were located. Hence, perceptions of the tourism and hospitality industries were obscured by the structure of the local industry, which, in many cases, is characterised by seasonality, small-scale operations and a dependence on domestic tourism.

“We see coach loads of people coming through and staying in the hotels overnight. They’re just seen as punters, they’re an opportunity to bring money into the area, and they do because without those coaches these hotels would just close their doors. It’s viewed very much as a service industry. It’s something you have to do to earn a few bob, but you’re only doing it under duress in a sense, because you’ve got to feed your kids or whatever.” (MWCC3, 1999)

“..A lot of parents would see it as low paid, shift work, seasonal, so very insecure, because they are so used to around here. I mean, during the high season around it is busy with people, but as soon as you hit October the place is dead and there are lots of people looking for jobs...” (NWCAd, female, 1999)

“I think it all depends which part of Pembrokeshire you live in, it’s certainly becoming a very poor county, especially with agriculture being hit for six as well and the oil companies have almost left. Tourism probably is one of the few companies that does still attract. Luckily this summer because it was nice there was a much bigger influx of people coming in, so we’re losing out to the package holiday.....I don’t think I would recommend, unless there was no other avenue, somebody going into travel and tourism in this part of the world.” (WWCC3, 1999)

“People that I deal with, the majority of cases is the rate of pay, plus the fact that is very much seasonal employment in an area where they have first hand experience and say *I can only earn so much if I work as a chef in this area*. I think a lot of the hotels around here always complain that they train them, only for them to move out very, very quickly, into better paid jobs, because it is such a badly paid job in this area.” (MWCAAd3, 1999)

If career advisers and career co-ordinators solely consider their local tourism and hospitality industries, it may be very difficult for them to envisage and promote career opportunities and routes for career progression, in a favourable light, due to the structure and nature of their local industries.

“There’s no perception of hospitality. If Centre Parks was to open up a new centre in the Yellen Valley, which is a beautiful area, then that would change some of the cloud, I suspect. As teachers here, we have difficulties in getting kids relate what they’re doing in class to the world outside..” (MWCC3, 1999)

“Here in Pembrokeshire the real problem is that it is seasonal. Plenty of work between May and October but what do you do in the winter? Tenby is a prime example and the unemployment rate in the winter is quite high, come May it is very different. I mean caravan sites close, hotels close, it becomes a ghost city. It is just an image problem.....and the fact that it isn't twelve months work. It is always seen as a holiday job or a weekend job.....” (WWCC2, 1999)

“...Because it’s seasonal and unpredictable it’s not that easy to convince people that there is a progressive career structure really....” (WWCC1, 1999)

Reference was also made to the specialist knowledge and skills required for the catering industry, as opposed to the tourism and hospitality industry, especially within educational establishments. One co-ordinator described tourism as a ‘soft option’ and placed catering in a more positive light, on the basis that it was a more established and accepted subject area within the school. Meanwhile, another co-ordinator distinguished between tourism and hospitality but again appeared to place hospitality in a more positive light on the basis of the scientific and nutritional knowledge required.

“[Tourism]...I think it’s always been thought of as a bit of a soft option.....[Hospitality] Because of catering and because it was always Home Economics – Food, it was always skill-based, I think it always had a firmer footing in the school. When we do have Parents Evenings.....then it’s those kids who put the spread on...so it gives the kids a boost and it boosts the image of the work that they do in catering... Possibly seen as a better option than Tourism, because it’s been in the school longer and maybe there are more opportunities for it to be recognised in the school...” (SWCC4, 1999)

“I think that these two industries are looking for a particular type of person. In tourism it’s not all about academic ability, it’s about personality, interpersonal skills, being able to relate to people whoever they maybe or whatever age they might be and I think it’s those personal skills that would come to the fore in tourism. When it comes to hospitality, I mean to a degree, you could say that

these people have to have things like chemistry and biology in order to understand dietary needs of different types of people. It's not just cooking.....parents see it as cooking, whereas there's an awful lot behind it to that, that parents don't perceive, I really feel that. They just see it as 'making meals' but there is an awful lot behind it and a lot of knowledge that you must have as well.....I think, these days, the emphasis is understanding isn't it? The understanding of what goes behind food, and what elements should be incorporated into it...." (SWCC1, 1999)

The latter career co-ordinator also intimated that although tourism, as a career area, would be more suitable for pupils that were not academically able, specific courses related to that career area, such as Modern Apprenticeships, would be preferable to entering tourism employment directly:

"...The parents would consider that if they were academically able to do better then they should, so it's alright if you don't get the grades to go any further. But even the parents in this school would want their child to go on to do a travel and tourism course, rather than go straight into a job.... [Parents] don't understand them [Modern Apprenticeships] so it needs explaining to them and as long as they can see it leads to a qualification and they can see that their child is not academically able to go onto higher things, they're all for it." (SWCC1, 1999)

Disturbingly, only one career co-ordinator talked of the tourism and hospitality industries in an encouraging and informed way, in terms of them being expanding industries with many opportunities for travel and promotion:

"It's an expanding, growing area, I wouldn't say that it was a particularly well-paid area, but I think that if the students are prepared to work hard, I think they do see it as an area that does offer considerable scope for promotion and obviously for travel.... Yes, if they are prepared to work hard at it then I think quite a few of them do see it as an area in which they can be extremely successful." (NWCC1, 1999)

4.6.5 School Student Attitudes

The majority of responses from the school students demonstrated, as with the career professionals, a predominant focus on the outgoing travel element of tourism, with many of the descriptions being derived from their experiences as indirect consumers of tourism products.

"Working on a plane or ferry or something" (SWPGYr10, male3, 1999)

“Going around the world” (SWPGYr10, male5, 1999)

“People and places” (WWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

“It could become like people sat in shops telling you all the different kinds of holiday that you can take and stuff.....” (MWPGYr11, male2, 1999)

“ I would love to be a tour guide....We have been abroad loads of times...” (MWPGYr12, female1, 1999)

The school student’s responses did not appear to be as parochial as those of the career professionals, demonstrating that although their attitudes are still influenced by personal experience, this is predominantly based on their experiences as holidaymakers, rather than as residents – unlike the career professionals. In fact, only one respondent made any reference to incoming tourism, which is quite likely to be a reflection of the prominence and economic importance of the tourism industry to that particular area of West Wales:

“People coming into the area” (WWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

A frequently cited descriptor was the social element associated with tourism and hospitality, possibly illustrating the disparities between what school students consider to be important in a career compared to what the career professionals felt the students should consider.

“Meeting different people.....new cultures and the ways other people live” (MWPGYr10, female2, 1999)

“Looking after people” (MWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

“Meeting people that is what it is down to.” (MWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

“You know, the hospitality industry is working with other people, working with customers.....” (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

Unlike some of the career professionals, who placed hospitality in a more positive light than tourism, descriptions of hospitality by school students tended to be much more

negative than their descriptions of tourism. In particular they tended to centre upon the service element, as illustrated by the following response:

“Working in a hotel, that would be really basic. Serving people. Servicing. Offering a service. Serving people in hotels, being sort of standing at a door, like being a hostess or something....” (MWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

In addition, one student was particularly cynical about the tourism and hospitality industries, perceiving them to be ‘false’ and a façade for hard sales. However, the example given which may have created this perception could be a result of contracted images from a negative consumer experience but is more likely to be an image derived through media representations:

“Pushy...[Why?] They are doing offers? It is all like false pretences. It can be false. Airline, travel agents try to sell you something, so they are as nice as pie, but you go back with a complaint and it seems to be what you see in the media – you get through to a brick wall...” (SWPGYr12, male3, 1999)

Nevertheless, this perception gains credence from literature, which suggests that although hospitality is principally concerned with establishing and augmenting guest-host relationships, in the commercial hospitality of a package holiday the notions of obligation and reciprocity are often used to disguise commercial transactions (Andrews 2000). Similarly, Lashley (2000) stressed the need for the host to be genuinely hospitable, as the relationship between the host and the guest could be counter-productive if the guest senses a calculative and economic hosting.

4.6.6 Tourism and Hospitality Employment

Career professionals also identified employment and potential careers from a consumer perspective, derived from their experiences of being a direct consumer of the tourism and hospitality industry. As a result, the responses tended to conform to the subordinate service roles suggested by Shamir (1980). Additionally, many of the career opportunities and jobs listed by the career advisers and career co-ordinators were a

reflection of their local tourism and hospitality industries, which in many cases catered for incoming domestic tourism. Furthermore, the identification of employment opportunities tended to follow the descriptions, given by the career professionals, of the tourism and hospitality industries. For example, tourism employment was associated with travel, whilst hospitality employment was focused around catering. Some of the tourism and hospitality jobs and career areas identified by the career professionals included:

“Tourism? Hotels, catering, watersports, outdoor activities, the outdoor centres – that type of thing – caravan sites, holiday parks, and because of the weather we’ve got leisure centres as well – they probably get more people in during the summer months and Easter as well because there’s more people in the area.....[**Hospitality?**] Again, I think hotels, restaurants, that type of thing, that area really – restaurants and hotels basically.” (MWCC1, 1999)

“Hospitality, here in Newtown?.....Manager of a hotel, chef in a hotel, or working in the kitchens, people working as maids in the hotel, people working in the office in the hotel, people working in infrastructure, the buses, the trains, garages, catering like the Little Chef and so on. You have the seaside, you have food, sailing, swimming, leisure, they go to the ski centre.....[**Tourism?**] Travel agents and so on.” (MWCC2, 1999)

“...we’ve got hotels, restaurants, national parks, tourist information centres, coach operators, various land-based industries that are providing tourism opportunities like four-wheel tracking, motorbike riding, horse riding, parachuting, farm-type holidays, leisure centres obviously..... [**Hospitality?**] I suppose our biggest one is the Royal Welsh Show in the summer, bringing in 80,000 people a day. I suppose that would be our main focus in terms of hospitality.” (MWCC3, 1999)

“...All the hotel industry, the catering industry. Specifically, obviously things like coach driving, airline pilot or cabin crew, hotels, catering side of the hotel, chambermaids, all the management as far as the hotel is concerned, all your ferry companies..... [**Hospitality?**] I’d say I’ve already mentioned those, because it is difficult to separate and I think they [tourism and hospitality] merge into each other, it’s very difficult to say specifically. I would still maintain that, in my opinion, the hospitality side does tend to be largely the catering side and the people who are involved directly or indirectly with that sort of area, so hospitality would include people who wait on, even though they are not involved in the preparation of the food...” (NWCC1, 1999)

“If we took an area, such as Cardiff in general, we’d be looking at places of interest – historical, cultural – that people might want to visit, how they’re going to be catered for once they get there..Then into that you’ve got the feeding and housing of them – hotels and restaurants and then you’ve got the catering side which comes into events, like the World Cup and everything that goes into that. Also, ongoing things like restaurants and bars and that sort of thing. There’s the

information-giving side of things.....I look on travel agents as just getting you away from here, going somewhere else. I would have thought that the hospitality side of things would be looking at the home front...If you say hospitality and catering and so on, they're looking at the serving side of it, low level..." (SWCC2, 1999)

"Travel agents, reps, people behind the scenes doing the planning. I would stress to kids not the shorts and t-shirts brigade but the people in the office with these matrixes trying to work out buses..... **[Hospitality?]** Full range from front of house to back room again, to people who Hoover under the beds." (SWCC4, 1999)

"Working in hotels and restaurants and working in places like the theme parks and the large caravan sites, I say that because they're the jobs that people get in the summer from school.....A lot work in restaurants and bars and chip shops and so on." (WWCC1, 1999)

"Working in holiday camps and guides and things like that. You have the castles, there are guides there in the tourism.....I tend to think of things like tour directors and people who organise trips of a specialist nature..... **[Hospitality?]** I think things like chefs, hotel owners....." (WWCC2, 1999)

"Tourism jobs? Deckchair attendant! No having looked at it from the possibility of going into it.....I tend to see it more as that everybody is involved in it as they come through – a bit like taking advantage of everybody who walks down the street. But I don't think that all traders do that mind. **[Hospitality?]** Hotel management, catering, anything to do with restaurants and cafes and stuff." (WWCC3, 1999)

".....they don't see beyond travel rep. Any other job in tourism is not something they think of, they automatically think of being abroad, working abroad..." (NWCAd, female, 1999)

Opinions drawn simply from consumer perspectives can obscure valid and reliable perceptions of careers in tourism and hospitality. Moreover, citing career opportunities on the basis of resident experiences of the local tourism and hospitality industry, particularly if dominated by domestic tourism and seasonality, serves to generate concerns over the authenticity of these descriptions and levels of understanding.

One career co-ordinator referred to a regional 'Jobs Directory', which listed local companies, including those in the tourism and hospitality industry, together the number of employees, qualifications required and type of work on offer:

“We go through something called ‘Jobs Directory’, I think there’s one for each county.....basically lists local companies.....Under the service industries you’ve got things like hotels, leisure centres and so on.....Basically they give the number of employees a hotel, say, might have, what type of work.....and each job has a reference to what qualifications a person might need to do that particular job – so they [pupils] are aware but possibly the view that they might get is still that it’s a profession which you don’t need to be particularly qualified for.” (MWCC1, 1999)

Although this type of information is beneficial in terms of raising awareness about the different range of career areas and entry routes, it could be seen as very restrictive, in terms of promoting careers in tourism and hospitality. The directory only illustrates the opportunities within the local industry, which may be quite limited in terms of career progression and qualification requirements, rather than the wider picture. This will only serve to strengthen parochial attitudes rather than encourage consideration of the international dimension.

In addition to emphasising the consumer perspective, the vocational aspect and youthful image of tourism employment in particular was highlighted by one career co-ordinator:

“I would say, off the top of my head, that tourism involves people who are 16-plus rather than 18-plus, and that they will go into it either through GNVQ’s... although if you go into it through GNVQ’s I suppose there is a possibility of taking it further into higher education, but a lot of people will go into it through the Modern Apprenticeship scheme.....travel agents, that’s the thing that sticks in my head...travel agents primarily.” (SWCC1, 1999)

As previously discussed under educational routes and migration, career professionals in regions such as Mid and North Wales believed that the more academically able school students harboured strong desires to move away. This was generally due to the lack of career opportunities and the limited size of local industry sectors. One career co-ordinator exemplified this by not only highlighting the fact that hospitality is not perceived to be a career, but because of the very nature of the region, other sectors such as retailing were not perceived to be potential career areas:

"It's [Hospitality is] good for part-time work, but if you say to them *what about going on to Hotel Management?* The response is no, I don't want to do that. It's not seen as being a career. Having said that, to put it into context, working in a supermarket, being a supermarket manager, working for any of the big name supermarkets isn't perceived as a career. Retailing is not perceived as a career because retailing in this area are little shops, where you get a part-time job or where people that you know work because they didn't want to leave home and they're still here....." (MWCC3, 1999)

South Wales generated slightly different responses possibly due to the fact that it is an area of intense competition that offers a range of career opportunities, within various industrial sectors, and further and higher educational establishments that are probably sufficient to entice young people to remain in the area. However, in West Wales, there appeared to be a consensus that the school students tend to remain in the local area.

"....there are never that many people who want to pack up and go, they're always very, very happy to stay around...." (WWCC1, 1999)

Issues surrounding migrating or residing young populations highlighted the need to adapt career awareness campaigns to reflect the needs of local communities. For example, it may be detrimental to promote a career in the international tourism and hospitality industries when the majority of the younger generation are opposed to moving out of the area, as they may perceive moving away from home to be a deterrent to working in tourism and hospitality. The fact that young people wish to remain within the locality has many advantages in terms of guarding against diminishing populations, however, it also has obvious implications when trying to promote careers in tourism and hospitality. School students and career professionals experience a local industry, which due to its very nature and location is seasonal and unpredictable. This often acts as a deterrent:

"....most Tenby students believe they have all the skills, they all they need to know about the industry, because they spend their weekends and their evenings and their summers, working for local cafes, restaurants, hotels and basically at the end of the day, enjoy the experience because they get fully paid and work long hours and that tends to discourage them from taking it up as a career.." (WWCC2, 1999)

“A lot of them have experience working as waitresses and in working bars and washing up, some of them it puts off, some of them it switches on and some of them are doing just to earn some money..” (MWCA2, 1999)

Many career professionals mentioned seasonality when describing the tourism and hospitality industries and employment within these industries, which should prompt serious concerns about the perceptions of influencers with regards to the ability of the tourism and hospitality industry to provide careers rather than transient employment. Although seasonality is an inherent aspect of the tourism and hospitality industries in many locations and job positions these industries can offer long-term career opportunities.

Additionally, the fragmented structure of the industry and size distribution of firms in tourism and hospitality may restrict career progression and obscure the career opportunities. This is an important issue, as it not only relates to developing and extending the local tourism and hospitality industries, but also to changing attitudes and the image of the tourism and hospitality industries. DTZ Pida (1998) estimated that 95% of businesses in the tourism sector in Wales employ less than 25 people, who between them employ 65% of all employees in the tourism sector in Wales. Firms employing more than 25 people account for 35% of total tourism employment in Wales but are concentrated in urban areas and tend to be located in the hotel, museum and sport sectors. Furthermore, one of the inferences highlighted by DTZ Pida (1998:6) is that small firms, within Wales and nationally, are “..less able to provide structured career development.” This consideration is inordinately salient as the career professionals felt that school students placed a high value on career progression routes. Hence, if career progression is not visibly apparent to school students as potential employees this will be to the detriment of the tourism and hospitality industries.

The perceptions that career professionals have regarding the tourism and hospitality industries and employment within them are based on 'contracted images' gathered by themselves and 'derived images' acquired from the media and other external sources (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998). The issue is that these perceptions may be inaccurate and the career professionals are likely to delegate these images to school students. Contracted, delegated and derived images are received, filtered and revised by individuals in relation to their own personal perspectives, reflecting personal histories, ideologies, social and economic circumstances and values. Hence, the concept of habitus is significant, as different social environments will strongly influence the experiences of individuals. Furthermore, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) found that invisibility is a feature of many careers and that adults often failed to associate management roles with intellectual skills. This appears to be the case within this study.

"They see it as those jobs they see on the telly, they don't see any of the background jobs, I don't think they see the management, the IT, the personnel, they just see the sort of those advertised through the telly." (SWCAd5, female, 1999)

"I don't know whether it is our fault.....when you talk about hotel work, you don't necessarily think of the accounts department or personnel department, or marketing and sales department" (SWCAd7, male, 1999).

"It is only really the people you come in contact with if you go to a hotel.." (SWCAd2, female, 1999)

Perceptions of employment within tourism and hospitality that are generated from contracted and derived images are based on the visible work associated with tourism and hospitality. The status of the jobs is linked to value judgements about these visible dimensions, which are primarily manual jobs and 'subordinate service roles' (Shamir, 1980). Manual jobs tend to be associated with low pay and domestic manual labour is associated with low status. Hence, the visible element of tourism and hospitality creates the misconceptions about the opportunities available. Few career professionals

mentioned the invisible dimensions associated with administration, management and planning.

4.6.7 School Student Attitudes towards Tourism and Hospitality Employment

School students were asked to identify the various types of employment within the tourism and hospitality industries, in addition to the characteristics of the people they believed carried out that type of employment. A very distinct split emerged between perceptions of tourism and hospitality employment. Whilst these perceptions supported the idea that tourism is viewed as a 'young' industry, they challenged the traditionally accepted view that hospitality is a young industry. Research undertaken by the Hotel and Catering Training Company (1994) found that many respondents had reached a supervisory or management position before the age of 30. These findings were substantiated by the Hospitality Training Foundation (1999) who stated that employees under 30 years of age dominated the hospitality industry. Recent figures indicate that 40% of people employed in the hospitality industry were aged 24 and below. In 2000, 23.4% of the workforce in the hospitality industry was below the age of 20, up from 17% in 1999, with a further 16.9% aged between 20 and 24 years of age (Hospitality Training Foundation, 2001:27). Hospitality may be a young industry in terms of employee demographic figures but this is obviously not the perceived image amongst school students in Years 10, 11 and 12.

With regards to employment within tourism, the types of jobs mentioned were 'front-line' visible jobs. Generally, the jobs were considered to be female-orientated, with the role occupants fairly young to middle-aged, extrovert and encompassing travel opportunities. The consensus was that such jobs would not be very highly paid, although the benefits may be seen as bonuses, but that people in such positions would

be reasonably well educated. Few of the jobs mentioned in tourism were perceived to be jobs for life, especially flight attendants, so the transient image of employment within the tourism industry was reinforced.

"Holiday reps would be female..Yes you mostly think of them as female, fun, bubbly (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999). Travel agent, middle-aged woman" (NWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

"Holiday rep, tour operator, travel agent...I always think of them as being young and female" (NWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

"Holiday rep....I think they have to like travelling and that sort of thing. I would have said somebody young but also quite old because they have to know places, where they are going, and would have to know about those places.....I would have said about average [pay]....because you get to travel and everything, so I suppose that is a bonus." (NWPGYr10, female2, 1999)

"Tour guide..I would say really bubbly, upbeat, outgoing, likes people....Female...I would say aged in their twenties....People who just go out for a year or whatever, that type of thing.....I think it is just one of those things that you do for a certain length of time.....I think it's [pay is] about average, but then again you can get really bad pay. I don't think it is that good. Probably the hotels where they stay get paid for them and if you get living expenses and good travelling out of it, then no wages? It balances it out I suppose." (MWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

"Travel agents..female, middle-aged. Educated. They would have to know the company, the flights and everything...." (MWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

The following responses demonstrate the influence that the media has upon the creation and perpetuation of stereotypical perceptions and subsequent attitudes towards particular types of employment and the individuals who fulfil those roles:

"Travel agent....young people, female. You watch the TV programmes, you always see the young girls, you never see blokes.....Flight attendant's have got to be quite good looking, when they get to about 35-40, they don't work anymore..." (MWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

"If you are a woman, if you are blonde, a certain height, good proportions, you are most likely to get accepted in. Holiday reps and aircrew need looks and personality as well, you don't have to be skilled to go for a job like that....." (SWPGYr12, male2, 1999)

Conversely, with regards to hospitality employment, the traditional stereotypical roles such as hotel manager and chef were frequently mentioned. The age range tended to be

higher than that for tourism and the jobs were perceived to be male-orientated. This is quite an enlightening aspect, considering that females are dominant, at 67% of the UK hospitality workforce (Hospitality Training Foundation, 2001) and 61% of the Welsh tourism sector (DTZ Piedad Consulting, 1998). However, many of the jobs mentioned would traditionally have been stereotypical male roles and generally, there are more men than women in managerial positions within hospitality, except amongst hotel and accommodation managers (Hospitality Training Foundation, 2001). Such jobs were felt to be well paid, particularly managers, and skilled, specifically chefs, although stress was often mentioned as a disadvantage. Generally, chef and management roles were perceived to be jobs for life rather than transient, short-term jobs.

“Hotel manager – confident, not bossy, assertive. Organised. Male.....I think females are coming up, but you just think of males” (female3). “I would say middle-aged. Well paid. Chef - a male. I would say more male the chefs, you don’t see that many women” (female2). “Skilled, yes chefs are skilled aren’t they?....they are probably quite serious, because chefs are serious about the food.....when they are on TV they seem all stressed and they shout and swear” (female3). “I can imagine it is quite a stressful job as well....” (female1). “Chefs are under pressure, especially in big top notch restaurants...” (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

“[Chef?] A bloke. Could be a job for life. I reckon they move around....really stressful job.....” (MWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

“Chef – male....all the chefs are male..” (female2). “If you are a chef in a really posh hotel you can get well paid...” (female1). “Quite skilled.....job for life” (male1). “Hotel manager? They would have to impress people. They would have to order people about. They would have to know what they are doing....well paid....job for life....male” (MWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

“Chef- very skilled” (female2). “Very stressed.....There seem to be a lot of males....” (male3). “That’s because the women are serving” (MWPGYr10, female2, 1999).

However, although the role of a chef appeared to be quite highly regarded in terms of salary and skill level, the bed and breakfast sector, which was frequently mentioned, was deemed to be quite the opposite:

“Unskilled” (male3). “Anybody could do the job” (male1). “You have to fry egg and bacon” (SWPGYr10, male4, 1999)

"I thought it would have been a job for life....You have to have a bit of knowledge, be able to balance the books and things like that. It is not really that hard.....all you have got to do really is change sheets and stuff like that I suppose and give out meals..." (MWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

The perception that an individual running a bed and breakfast is unskilled and 'anyone can do the job' may well be a reflection of what they perceive the job to involve. Contracted and derived images appear to have provided an insight into visible bed and breakfast tasks, such as providing breakfast, but the invisible aspects, such as book-keeping, marketing and the complexities of managing a small business, are outside their realities. Media sources are likely to have provided much more exposure into the role of a chef. Furthermore, the nature of the tourism industry in Wales creates a dominance of bed and breakfast operations in the majority of local tourism and hospitality industries throughout the regions, as opposed to larger hotel operations. This may have equipped school students with a jaded insight to this type of accommodation operation.

In the main, the characteristics common to most of the types of employment mentioned within tourism and hospitality were the social abilities required:

"..They have to socialise, so outgoing, outgoing to people you don't know. Friendly" (SWPGYr11, male2, 1999)

Overall, the responses from career professionals and school students tend to concur with previous studies (Pavesic and Brymer 1990; Barron and Maxwell 1993; Getz 1994b) that direct experience with the tourism and hospitality industries may actually cause students to hold negative attitudes. This is underpinned by the fact that parents with experience of tourism and hospitality employment were less likely to select tourism and/or hospitality as first, second or third career choices for their children.

4.6.8 Positive and Negative Aspects of the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

Career professionals were asked to identify what aspects of the tourism and hospitality industries they felt were positive and negative. The positive aspects tended to revolve around the social element of working within tourism and hospitality. This supports the claim that the intrinsic activity of hospitality is to create a new relationship or foster an existing relationship (Selwyn, 2000).

“..I think its satisfying people’s demands and requirements....” (NWCC1, 1999)

“.....you’re always dealing with people who are there to enjoy themselves, aren’t you? From that point of view, it must be quite a pleasant job....” (WWCC1, 1999)

“Meeting people, I think, from all walks of life.....and maintaining that profile of.....” (WWCC2, 1999)

“...it allows them to work with lots and lots of people....” (WWCC3, 1999)

“A varied employment. You get a lot of youngsters who say they want to meet people but are quite happy to have a non-desk job, which most hospitality and tourism is, so if they are that sort of nature they are inclined to be a little bit more of a fidget than a desk person, where they don't mind some minimal contact with computers, they want to meet people then that is definitely for that sort of people.” (NWCAd, female, 1999)

Ingram (1999) argued that contrasting and conflicting images of hospitality depended on whether individuals were recipients or providers of hospitality services. To a certain extent, this was exemplified by a career co-ordinator:

“The positive side to it depends on what job you do and how positively you think another job is really. Working in a hotel could be very stressful, could be very enjoyable, you know. If people say thank you, they have enjoyed their stay and had a nice time, then it makes you feel good, then that is positive.” (MWCC2, 1999)

In some areas, the economic importance of tourism and hospitality was illustrated, together with the potential opportunities that exist:

“For an area like this, obviously income, because if it’s not developed then obviously there’s going to be less opportunities as far as work is concerned and less income and less money spent in the area....” (MWCC1, 1999)

“The possibility of rapid promotion” (MWCAd2, 1999)

“I would say that you are never without a job if you have skills, you are always wanting them wherever you go...” (MWCAd3, 1999)

“I think the number of jobs, because it is a growth area. The variety of jobs.....it's like the rags to riches. If you're willing to stick at it and whatever, then there is progression and there's movement isn't there? Movement all over the world...” (SWCC4, 1999)

“Plenty of opportunities I think at the moment that is what we are trying to say. Loads and loads of really, really good opportunities, they are varied.....(SWCAd3, female, 1999).....and you don't necessary have all the high level qualifications just to get in there, it is the skill, the personality..”(SWCAd7, male, 1999)

“A growing industry. Huge amount of investment coming into it and are aware now that the prospects are good, the flexibility of working arrangements as well from all types of people, certainly good promotionally opportunities and good salaries, better salaries, you can see that coming through. That is evident. It is a people industry...” (WWCAd, male, 1999)

Meanwhile some career professionals had misgivings regarding aspects of tourism and hospitality that may be misconstrued as positive aspects:

“...They get perks.....But it is not all that you think it is.....Free flights, not free flights, but cheap flights, that would only be a flight out and a flight back. People like aircrew might be stuck somewhere for three or five days and they may feel it is a holiday, but it is not a holiday. They are stuck in lodgings, they are not in their own house, they obviously can't do what they want.....” (MWCC2, 1999)

“From the child's point of view they would think of it as being glamorous. I mean they would see the glamour side, they wouldn't see the hard work side which goes behind it. I mean if we see these tourism reps what you think of is that they are having a lovely time and staying in a hotel and this would be great to do for a living, but we don't see the hard work that they actually put in and the stick that they take as well.” (SWCC1, 1999)

Such misconceptions about the alleged benefits of careers within tourism and hospitality are likely to be elicited from contracted and derived images of those working in the industries. Many of the ‘visible’ elements of jobs in tourism and hospitality may allude to the positive aspects of working in these industries, but the emotional and physical demands of the industry form the ‘invisible’ element of tourism and hospitality.

Other career co-ordinators appeared to focus on the flexibility of the industry, which could be interpreted as a negative rather than positive aspect of tourism and hospitality:

“...I would have thought that if you enjoyed job-hopping then it’s an excellent industry to be in, because people are coming and going – jumping from one job to another within the hospitality industry quite frequently. I think you do need to be very, very flexible in the hospitality industry. So if that suits you – fine, but if you would like the security of staying somewhere for a long time I think you might have difficulty there.” (SWCC2, 1999)

“.....in many instances they’ve [school students] got to worry about their position....they’re looking for something a bit more permanent, they don’t just dive into something seasonal thinking that they’re going to get something permanent...” (SWCC3, 1999)

The perception of labour flexibility within tourism and hospitality may be seen as a positive aspect. Nevertheless, it has the potential to be very detrimental. Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) found that perceptions of nursing as a career were linked to an increasingly casualised labour force and flexible part-time workers tended to be perceived as low-skilled workers. Labour markets have experienced a transposition towards flexibility, however, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) discovered that young people largely ignore the expanding flexible workforce in the unskilled sector and students do not identify such occupations as viable career choices.

The retail and service sectors were cited as areas where flexible working practises have become more prevalent with little resistance, but that young people are unwilling to become part of this sector. Furthermore, as many career professionals within this study have already stated, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) found that whilst young people may not consciously choose occupations within the unskilled flexible labour market, they often find themselves working in areas such as the service sector by default.

“..I know my own daughter is a chef by default rather than by intent...” (MWCA1, 1999)

The negative aspects cited by career professionals focused primarily on the physical demands of tourism and hospitality and poor conditions of work. The notion that tourism and hospitality is not for those who are academically able was also reiterated, as was a lack of opportunity for academic progression and training.

“...Perhaps where staff are exploited which you hear about from time to time. As I say it is a notoriously low paid area of work....cases where management actually take staff tips – it’s those sorts of things that tend to give the industry negative vibes.” (NWCC1, 1999)

“Pay and conditions” (NWCAAd, male, 1999)

“Hard work, long hours. Working for a few hours in the morning and a few hours in the evening.....split shifts. Unsocial hours. Not necessarily for those who are academically able to do better.” (SWCC1, 1999)

“Wage rates are still seen as one of the most negative things....it’s, generally, a very poorly paid industry and flexibility in the workforce can be a great attribute, it can also be something that you can only demand of from a low level of worker. There’s flexibility and there’s down right sacking and I think on one hand, the industry gets what it deserves by what it pays. On the other hand you could argue that maybe that’s what the industry wants in order to get this flexibility..” (SWCC2, 1999)

“I think that the fact that it is long hours, the salary structure is quite low..” (SWCAAd4, female, 1999)

“The negative side is that it is only a six-month job.....” (WWCC3, 1999)

“Lack of progression for culinary arts for the chefs who want to go onto higher education..” (MWCAd3, 1999)

“I think employers don’t recognise the workforce and train them appropriately. Certainly within this area where there is a lot of student employment, where employers are exposing people into the industry, they are not treated well and it is low pay, some attachment of low self-esteem to the job by the way they are treated as well. I think that conveys a very negative image to young people..” (WWCAAd, male, 1999)

Some career co-ordinators also made reference to the emotional demands of working within tourism and hospitality, in addition to the physical demands and working conditions. The ‘upstairs-downstairs’ culture was accentuated, which can be linked to the literature on servility and domesticity within tourism and hospitality and the subordinate status of the commercial host (Butler and Snizek 1976; Shamir 1980;

Ashforth and Humphrey 1993; King 1995; Crick 1996; Darke and Guernsey 2000; Guerrier and Adib 2000).

"I'm not sure that youngsters today see them as negatives, it'll be their parents who see them as negatives. The long hours, short-term contracts, having to deal with the public – who can be quite difficult, I think that comes through quite strongly and quite often. It's difficult to generalise really. Sometimes I think it's part of the British class culture, you know it's upstairs and downstairs. If you are working in hospitality you are downstairs and you are serving everybody else and therefore, you are a lower form of life, but yet for some there's wonderful rewards." (MWCC3, 1999)

"A lot of these kids have been waitresses all through their teens, they have been insulted, they have been patronised, they have been treated badly by management, who know there is an endless supply of sixteen year olds looking for jobs" (MWCAd2, 1999)

".....I have found it still echoes of when people were in service, and you are actually serving somebody, whereas I suppose in other countries, they are different.....I noticed when you go to other countries, waiters have got far more status than perhaps in this country and maybe because of the traditions we come through." (MWCAd3, 1999)

".....It's two extremes really isn't it? - You're often employed to keep people happy but then at the same time you often find that you're sorting out people's problems as well...." (WWCC1, 1999)

".....it is quite demanding and I don't think people realise that and it can be quite stressful" (NWCAd, female, 1999)

The sensitive cultural issues identified by DTZ Pleda Consulting (1998) in terms of tourism activities undermining the 'welshness' of local communities was illustrated by some career co-ordinators, who mentioned the problems associated with the influx of English tourists.

"....there are some pupils who would view the influx of English as a problem. They would possibly feel threatened by the language and so on, and there's no doubt that the language, during the summer months and so on, it's very different – you come across people always speaking English and so on. I don't know maybe that, not when they're in school, but definitely it would cross some people's minds – we're getting 'overtaken'....." (MWCC1, 1999)

"..Lots of people don't like their county being invaded because we're over-run, so there's this social discomfort..." (WWCC3, 1999)

Although this is undoubtedly a sensitive issue that must be managed correctly, these responses demonstrate insular and parochial attitudes amongst the wider community rather than a general consideration of how the area and community might benefit from tourism and hospitality. It would seem apparent that the effects on the local area are given prominence over the benefits of developing and embracing careers in the industries. Furthermore, local community resentment to “tourist invasions” is unlikely to encourage young people to embark upon careers in the industry.

4.6.9 School Student Perspectives on the Positive and Negative Aspects of the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

As with the career professionals, the responses relating to the positive aspects tended to revolve around the social and travel element of working within tourism and hospitality:

“Meeting people” (male4). “To see different countries, learn some languages” (SWPGYr10, male1, 1999).

“Meeting people.....Different kinds of people. Different areas” (SWPGYr12, female1, 1999)

“Outgoing, fun jobs” (male1). “Being able to speak different languages” (female1). “Travelling” (WWPGYr11, female3, 1999).

“Get to know loads of people..learning the cultures and skills.” (MWPGYr10, female1, 1999)

“It would be good meeting a lot of people, it is pretty long hours to tell you the truth. The positive side is that it is not bad pay.” (NWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

The people factor was identified as a frequently cited appealing aspect with regards to working within tourism and hospitality in earlier research (Springboard, 2000). Other respondents highlighted the transient nature of the industries as being a positive aspect, although this can be seen as detrimental, as labour flexibility is often associated with low skilled work (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998) and low skilled employment is generally perceived to be low pay:

“Variety of things you can do. Possibilities. You learn a lot of things about different jobs.....I am going abroad next year for the summer and come back for the winter and they offer you a job in the travel agents for the winter, so if you don't want to be a rep, you can go to a travel agents and they look after you....If you get your foot in the door it is quite easy to move around” (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

“By learning leisure and tourism, it can open a lot of doors and give a lot of people jobs, which would give more security than the police and that” (NWPGYr12, male1, 1999)

The above responses demonstrate that, unlike the career professionals, the school student respondents recognised the benefits of flexible and transient employment, in terms of gaining transferable skills and ensuring employability. This appears to correspond with the changing nature of career paths. Driver (1982, 1988) asserted that career paths are shifting away from steady state to transitory, where variation is the main motivation, due to societal and technological changes. Similarly, Lankard Brown (1996) identified change in the workplace as affecting careers and career development. She asserted that individuals should not consider spending their entire careers in one organisation, but recognise the temporary nature of all jobs and prepare for refined career paths, due to the effects of mergers, acquisitions and downsizing. Others have also projected this opinion (Nicholson and West 1988; Inkson and Coe 1993; Wijers and Meijers 1996; Arthur *et al.* 1999).

Furthermore, (Rajan *et al.*, 1997) argued that the concept of job security was being transcended by employability and that employees were willing to relinquish traditional job security for high quality training to acquire transferable skills. The nature of high labour demand was seen to provide more security than a traditional ‘job for life’, such as the police force. This illustrates changing attitudes amongst the school students compared to the career professionals, towards not just the important aspects of a career, but also to the type of career areas likely to guarantee employment. Media reports of

cuts in public services, which have traditionally been seen as providing 'safe' long-term employment with career progression, mean that young people may not assume that career areas such as the police force are an automatic option for employment.

Furthermore, attitudes of the school students towards the requirement for flexibility and adaptability within their future careers would appear to correspond with the 'cycling' and 'spiralling' within a career suggested by Arthur *et al.* (1999). They asserted that cycling within a career related to moves into and out of different realms of activity. Therefore, aside from changes of employment, industry, occupation and location, this may include changing the specific job, moving between projects, alternating between full and part-time work and shifting between work and family commitments. Although, it may appear that cycling within a career presents no identifiable progression or acquisition of additional formal qualifications, the moves may prove rewarding. As a result of 'spiralling', individuals move through different realms that have a tendency towards the promotion of personal learning and development.

Conversely, the negative aspects tended to refer to emotional demands, such as the isolation of working away from home. This again illustrates the misperception that a career within tourism and hospitality demands that individuals work in a 'foreign country', which is based on contracted and derived images and also the assumption that tourism means travel, thus highlighting a lack of awareness about the extent of the domestic tourism industry. The negativity surrounding the 'working away from home' issue was also found to be an unappealing aspect of previous research into attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality (Springboard, 2000).

"You could get homesick....." (male3). "Working on your own" (male2). "You might not have good friends" (SWPGYr10, male1, 1999)

“Away from family....homesick, probably gets boring after a while. You feel like you are on your own” (SWPGYr11, female2, 1999)

“Missing friends and family if you have to work away from home” (WWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

Emotional demands of tourism and hospitality employment were also very evident in the reference to stress as a negative aspect of tourism and hospitality:

“Stressful....You would have to work with really thick people who would make it difficult sometimes. Like ‘Airline’, ranting and raving, that kind of thing” (MWPGYr10, female3, 1999)

“Some of it is long hours say if you’re a holiday rep. You could be on call, or if one of the customers staying at the hotel has a heart attack, you would be the one that would have to sort it all out. So really, you can work all the time because of these emergencies..” (NWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

The emotional demands of working within the tourism and hospitality industries were further illustrated by disturbing responses, possibly fuelled by derived and exaggerated images from the media, but which gain credence from literature relating to the role and definitions of hospitality. In particular, literature that focused upon the one-way process of provision by the host, as this serves to reinforce the image of servility and literature that emphasises links with domestic service and subordination (Onions 1972; Shamir 1980; Nailon 1981; Hepple *et al.* 1990; King 1995).

Some responses also reflected the issues surrounding ‘person-role conflicts’ (Shamir, 1980) in particular, the inequality dilemmas related to making guests feel important and adhering to the motto of ‘*the customer is always right...*’. The requirement to smile was frequently commented upon by many of the school student respondents, which relates to research on the role of emotion in the workplace, in particular the display of expected emotions by service providers during service encounters (Hochschild 1983; Parkinson 1991; Ashforth and Humphrey 1993; 1995).

“...Hotels and restaurants is just like serving people constantly. If you don't mind doing that... You have to have a smiling face.. The customer is always right, even if you can't stand the person you have to smile.” (SWPGYr12, male1, 1999)

“Awkward people. Always have to look happy and smiling, even if you are really feeling rough or tired or whatever and you can't say '*go away and leave me alone!*' You can't do that, you always have to be sort of alert and awake. That is the negative side I think” (MWPGYr12, female1, 1999)

“Some people can be quite rude and some quite offensive” (NWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

One respondent made reference to the darker side of the tourism and hospitality industries, in particular the issues that may arise when guests exploit the bounds of normal behaviour (Darke and Gurney 2000; Guerrier and Adib 2000). Literature that explores attempts by the host to meet all the needs and wants of their guests also reinforces the servility aspect (White 1970; Crick 1996).

“The people, you could get raped or something. The customers, when you go on holiday, they get cheeky and drunk and stuff.” (SWPGYr11, female1, 1999)

Interestingly, low pay and the physical demands of working within tourism and hospitality were rarely mentioned as negative aspects. One student unwittingly made reference to the implications of the economics of labour supply and demand:

“I think it all comes down to money...It's not that well paid...Because so many people go into that type of industry, because there are so many, they haven't got enough money to support every single job. That may be the down side of it.”
NWPGYr12, female2, 1999)

This was an enlightening response, due to the fact that the student appeared to try and find a justification for the low pay aspect. It demonstrated an acute awareness that the tourism and hospitality industries are extremely labour-intensive and labour supply is high, consequently, not all jobs can demand a good salary. It was also an unexpected response as Fosskett and Hemsley-Brown (1997:111) stated that:

“young people are insufficiently experienced and knowledgeable to make decisions which reflect supply and demand in the labour market and those who advise them rarely concentrate on these factors.”

With respect to the positive aspects of the tourism and hospitality industries, the career professionals and school students were very similar in their responses, with the focus on social interaction and travel opportunities. However, vast differences were apparent in the responses to negative aspects. Career professionals focused upon issues such as physical and emotional demands and poor conditions of work, including pay and cultural issues. Whereas the school students tended to focus on the isolation factor associated with working away from home and the emotional demands of work within tourism and hospitality. Poor working conditions and salary issues did not appear to be a major concern.

This may reflect the overriding emphasis that school student respondents placed on interest and enjoyment being the most important aspects of a career. If a job is believed to be emotionally demanding through contracted, delegated or derived images it may adversely affect their attitude towards it as a potential career area. Alternatively, if, as the career professionals stated, school student's perceptions of salaries are unrealistic, consideration of potential career areas on the basis of salary levels may simply be outside their reality.

4.6.10 Parent Perspectives: What would a Career in the Tourism and Hospitality Industries provide?

Statements obtained from the qualitative stage appertaining to employment within tourism and hospitality and the perceived positive and negative aspects of tourism and hospitality were tested on the parents, in order to ascertain what the most important group of influencers felt that a career in tourism and hospitality would provide.

Parents 'agreed' and 'strongly agreed' that a career within tourism and hospitality would provide the following:

Factors provided within tourism & hospitality careers	%
Responsibility	59.8
A requirement for language skills	76.5
Career progression	52.1
Initiative	74.1
Ability to deal with unplanned events	84.6
Training opportunities	65.1
Variety	74.3
Social interaction	80
Work within a challenging and dynamic environment	62
Work within a recognised 'profession'	58.3
Interest/enjoyment	82.7
Teamwork	84.4
Seasonal employment	66.4
International travel	76.7
Hard work	84.7
Long hours	68.4
Promotional opportunities	54
Unsociable hours	70.4

Table 26: Factors provided within tourism and hospitality careers

When these factors are compared against the factors parents previously deemed important or extremely important when choosing a career, it is apparent that a career in tourism and hospitality would incorporate the majority of the important career factors:

Important to choice of career %	Factor	Provided in tourism & hospitality careers %
89.6	Responsibility	59.8
50.5	Language skills	76.5
87.2	Career progression	52.1
87.7	Initiative	74.1
87.4	Ability to deal with unplanned events	84.6
94.1	Training opportunities	65.1
81.9	Variety	74.3
81.4	Social interaction	80
72.6	Work within a challenging and dynamic environment	62
72.8	Work within a recognised 'profession'	58.3
99.4	Interest/enjoyment	82.7
86.4	Promotional opportunities	54
81.9	Teamwork	84.4

Table 27: Comparison of parental responses

This illustrates that attitudes may be deemed to be only one determinant of behaviour, as the attitudes of parents with regards to what they thought a career in tourism and hospitality would provide, based on their earlier response to careers in general were fairly positive. However, this attitude was not reflected in their behaviour with regards to the selection of career areas for their children. Thus suggesting that whilst parental attitudes towards the general idea of careers in tourism and hospitality is not a highly negative one, they are fairly unlikely to consciously select that career area for their child. This demonstrates that although attitudes represent a predisposition to behaviour, how individuals actually act in a particular situation will be dependent upon the immediate consequences of that behaviour, in particular how others are perceived to evaluate actions.

Hence, the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986) can be applied, which asserted that intentions are determined by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, whilst behaviour is determined by intentions and perceived behaviour control (Connor, 2000). If two cognitive elements are contradictory, as in this case where discrepancies exist between parental attitudes and behaviour, cognitive dissonance is likely to occur. In order to address this inconsistency, dissonance should motivate the individuals to change one or more cognitive elements, so that they can alter their interpretations. The fairly positive attitudes of parents towards what they believe a career in the tourism and hospitality industries would provide gives organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru a platform from which they can start to alter interpretations to create more positive behaviour in terms of career choice.

One factor that parents had previously deemed as not very important or not important at all, scored highly within the context of tourism and hospitality careers – international travel. 76.7% agreed or strongly agreed that a career within tourism or hospitality would provide this factor, however, 54.2% of parents previously stated that international travel was not very important or not important at all as a factor when choosing a career.

However, there were some negative aspects with regards to careers within the tourism and hospitality industry that parents had agreed or strongly agreed upon, which had also been referred to in the qualitative stage:

- Seasonal employment 66.4%
- Hard work 84.7%
- Long hours 68.4%
- Unsociable hours 70.4%
- Low income 37%

Interestingly, only 46.5% of parents agreed or strongly agreed that a career in tourism and hospitality was likely to provide benefits, something that was frequently cited in the qualitative stages. However, only 17.7% agreed or strongly agreed that a career in the industry would be seen as 'low prestige' and a small minority (13.8%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that 'a career in tourism and hospitality would provide work in a recognised profession'. 49.2% agreed or strongly agreed that a career in tourism and hospitality would provide skilled employment compared to 46% who disagreed and only 34.1% of parents agreed that a career in tourism and hospitality would provide unskilled employment.

These figures demonstrate that parents tended to place the physical conditions of work within tourism and hospitality careers in a much more negative light than the particular attributes of a career within tourism and hospitality, i.e.: hard work, long and unsociable hours, low income and seasonal employment acquired much higher negative scores than the prestige accredited to the industries, provision of skilled employment and the recognition of the industries as a 'profession'.

The social aspects of a career within tourism and hospitality were rated highly by parents, specifically teamwork, social interaction and interest and enjoyment. Interest and enjoyment of a career, social interaction and teamwork were previously given much significance by parents in terms of being an important or extremely important factor when choosing a career. This underpins the qualitative responses of school students, who placed a great deal of importance on social factors, particularly as positive aspects of working within tourism and hospitality.

However, some factors which parents rated as important or extremely important when considering a career, received low scores when considered within the context of tourism and hospitality:

- Job security: responses were quite evenly split, with 35.2% disagreeing or strongly disagreeing that a career within tourism and hospitality would provide job security, compared to 35.2% who agreed or strongly agreed that it would provide job security.
- High income: parents did not appear to believe that tourism and hospitality careers would provide a high income, as only 29.8% agreed or strongly agreed that they would. However, only 37% agreed or strongly agreed that careers within these

industries would provide a low income. Thus suggesting that income within tourism and hospitality careers would be 'somewhere in the middle'.

- Credibility: only 44.3% agreed or strongly agreed that a career in tourism and hospitality would provide credibility.
- Formal qualifications: within the context of tourism and hospitality, only 46% of parents agreed or strongly agreed they would be provided for within tourism and hospitality careers.

These findings are important, as 94.1% of parents believed that job security was an important or extremely important career factor; 74.9% believed this with regards to high income; 81.2% about credibility and 89.7% about formal qualifications. Hence, given the significance attached to these factors by the most important group of influencers, the perceptions about these factors within the context of tourism and hospitality careers needs to be addressed.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on the variables likely to be provided in a career within tourism and hospitality across the three different year groups. The test statistics showed chi square = 0.27; $df = 2$ and a significance level of .011. As the significance level is a value less than .05, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference in the variable 'language skills' across the three different year groups. The mean rank showed that parents of Year 11 pupils had the highest overall ranking that corresponded to the highest score on the variable 'tourism and hospitality careers provide a requirement for language skills'. This demonstrates the importance placed on language skills and the likelihood that they will be of significance to careers within

tourism and hospitality. However, only 50.5% of total parent respondents believed that language skills were an important or extremely important factor when choosing a career.

When factor analysis was applied to the results of characteristics parents believed would be provided in a career within tourism and hospitality, six components emerged, which tended to be centred on key themes such as:

- The personality and employment characteristics associated with a particular career, which incorporated the type of working environment as well as the type of work;
- Status, security and financial references of a career within tourism and hospitality;
- Negative aspects associated with the nature of work within the tourism and hospitality industries;
- Emotional references, linguistic abilities and positive aspects associated with tourism and hospitality careers;
- Factors linked to the employability, transferable skills and social mobility of a career within tourism and hospitality, in terms of securing skilled employment and facilitating career progression;
- Negative aspects regarding the types of occupations within the tourism and hospitality industries.

The twenty-eight variables were reduced to six factors and the variables that were moderately or highly correlated with each other were grouped together to form each factor. Hence illustrating the emergence of six factors in relation to the aspects deemed to be provided in a career in tourism and hospitality. The 28 items of the 'tourism and hospitality career' scale were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS. Prior to performing PCA the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed.

Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was .86, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

PCA revealed the presence of six components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, which accounted for 55% of the total variance. Within this total, the six components accounted for 23.6%, 12.2%, 6.2%, 5.2%, 3.9% and 3.8% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the sixth component. Using Cattell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain the six components for further investigation. To aid in the interpretation of these six components, Varimax rotation was performed, which adjusted the distribution of the variance amongst the six components.

The rotated solution, presented in the following table, revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone 1947) with all components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component. The six-factor solution accounted for a total of 55% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 13.3%, Component 2 11.9%, Component 3 9.2%, Component 4 7.5%, Component 5 6.9% and Component 6 6.1% of the total variance.

The results of this factor analysis support the use of the items relating to the personality and employment characteristics associated with a particular career; status, security and financial references of a career; negative aspects regarding the nature of work; emotional references; employability, transferable skills and social mobility; and negative aspects regarding the types of occupations within tourism and hospitality

careers as separate scales. Components 1 and 2 accounted for 13.3% and 11.9% of the total variance respectively. Large factor loadings occurred on seven of the eight variables that can be considered as personality and employment characteristics of a career within tourism and hospitality.

Similarly, large factor loadings occurred on four of the six variables that may be labelled as status, security and financial references of a career in tourism and hospitality. Thus illustrating the importance attached to such aspects. Components 3 and 6, negative aspects – nature of work and negative aspects – types of occupations, accounted for 9.2% and 6.1% of the total variance respectively. All the variables within these two components also received large factor loadings, demonstrating the prevalence of negative perceptions about the nature of work and the type of occupations available within the tourism and hospitality industries.

Tourism & Hospitality Career Items	Components					
	1 Personality & Employment Characteristics	2 Status, Security & Financial References	3 Negative aspects – Nature of Work	4 Emotional References, Linguistic Abilities	5 Employability, Transferable Skills & Social mobility	6 Negative aspects – Types of Occupations
Ability to deal with unplanned events	.67					
Hard work	.66					
Teamwork	.66					
Initiative	.63					
Interest/enjoyment	.63					
Challenging and dynamic environment	.59					
Variety	.56					
Training opportunities	.48					
Recognised as a 'profession'		.70				
Credibility		.69				
High income		.69				
Job security		.62				
Low income			.50			
Promotional opportunities		.41				
Benefits		.40				
Long hours			.82			
Unsociable hours			.82			
Seasonal employment			.51			
International travel				.70		
Language skills				.64		
Glamorous image				.58		
Social interaction				.50		
Formal qualifications					.67	
Responsibility					.48	
Career progression					.46	
Skilled employment					.43	
Unskilled employment						.77
Low prestige						.66
% of variance accounted for	13.3%	11.9%	9.2%	7.5%	6.9%	6.1%

Table 28: Varimax Rotation of Six-factor Solution for 28 'Tourism and Hospitality Career' Items

4.7 The Solution? Promoting Career Opportunities within the Tourism and Hospitality Industries

Those that influence school students, who also appear to have a low esteem about their level of influence, as well as the school students offered suggestions as to ways of moving the tourism and hospitality industries forward in terms of being seen to offer first-choice careers. The career professionals were asked what aspects they wished the industries to address in order to attract more young people of all abilities and how they believed career opportunities in tourism and hospitality should be promoted to school students. Many career professionals targeted the issues of pay, seasonality and working hours as problematic areas and possible deterrents to careers in tourism and hospitality. However, in some cases this was linked to the structure of the local industry, thus highlighting the lack of career progression and limited local opportunities. This issue is exacerbated by the findings of Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998) who identified that the unskilled flexible general workforce is usually recruited locally rather than nationally, whilst those entering management roles are recruited nationally.

The perception of there being fewer opportunities for more academic students was raised by some respondents. This suggests that the 'invisible' elements of tourism and hospitality, such as opportunities within administration, planning and management need to be emphasised. Similarly, career professionals stressed the need to illustrate potential training opportunities and economic growth of the industries, which may subsequently create better career opportunities for those employed in tourism and hospitality, to potential employees. Barron (1997) surveyed hospitality management students and found that they perceived the general public to consider that the majority of personnel in the hospitality industry were employed on a part-time basis and that little or no training or qualifications was required. Thus demonstrating that those entering the industry are aware that others do not perceive there to be a positive image regarding qualifications.

Previous research (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998) identified that status and image may be partly conveyed through the selection procedure adopted for different career areas. Higher status tends to be attributed to those careers that appear to be highly selective in terms of entry. This finding can be supported by responses obtained within this study that commented upon the low status and image of the industries, whilst also referring to the lack of credibility and skills or qualifications required for careers in tourism and hospitality. Choy (1995) identified that the perception that the tourism industry offers mainly low-skill jobs was generally due to the high proportion of workers in service occupations. Long-term initiatives, such as highlighting training and promotional opportunities will benefit the industries in terms of attracting and retaining quality staff at all levels. In addition, training and career progression places a 'value' on employees.

"I think pupils might get the view that the majority of jobs associated with tourism are things which are unskilled. It's possibly viewed as we can do it without being qualified to do it, so I think any message they need to put over is that they are looking for academic, innovative people and prove to them that there are opportunities, rather than just seeing job adverts in the paper where they want cleaners or whatever for hotels. They've got to make pupils aware of exactly what type of roles, qualifications and opportunities are within the profession really.....Possibly pupils would assume that jobs within tourism aren't highly paid, maybe again because it's associated with being seasonal, so maybe they're afraid of the job security and wouldn't think of having a profession in tourism because of the security aspect. The other thing which pupils might be under the impression of is that the people who tend to make the money from tourism are the people who actually own the hotels and so on, and in this area, they are probably family run anyway..." (MWCC1, 1999)

"....raising the awareness of the industry, the training facilities that are available, identifying the local colleges where it can be carried out, alternatively, identifying local employers who would be prepared to take young people on – perhaps with day release.....I think the industry has really got to say to everybody – *this is what we are, this is what we do and this is what we can offer you. If you are prepared to apply to us, we can offer you training, employment and from then on, we can set out these promotional prospects for you.* Once you've got those qualifications, I say to a lot of them, it does give you that facility to move around....qualifications, plus any experience you happen to gain in the meantime. Salary levels are something that needs to be addressed, they've got the minimum wage now, but that's not wonderful. I think the industry has to come clean....pay is a key area. Sometimes the working conditions, sometimes the long hours – these are all areas that could be improved to raise the profile of the industry. I feel

that it is an industry that certainly does offer many more prospects than it did years ago. The fact that people have got more leisure time now, the fact that people have allegedly got more money to spend on holidays – I think it's got to be a continued area for growth in the future and it's likely to be a large-scale employer. A lot are going into it, but there are just certain areas which need some improving, I'm sure as a result they will attract more people and possibly people with better qualifications, which can only be to the good of the industry." (NWCC1, 1999)

"..When kids get jobs they are exposed to only one end and see the very lowly end and they don't get any, you know, introduction to other career routes through the industry promoting itself. I mean the industry is very poor at promoting itself in some areas..." (WWCAd, male, 1999)

"The unsocial hours.....split shifts. Funnily enough, kids don't always think about pay, it's whether the job has credibility in their eyes and in the eyes of their peer group. They learn about the pay later and it might give them a bit of a shock. It's doing a career which people say '*Oh, that's good, don't know a lot about it, but that sounds good*'" (SWCC1, 1999)

The last quote illustrates the perception of social pressure and how that social pressure subsequently determines behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Firstly, it demonstrates the personal factor in performing the behaviour, i.e.: whether hospitality and tourism are seen as credible career areas in the eyes of the individual. Secondly, the subjective norm – the individual's perceptions of the social pressure placed upon them to perform or not perform the behaviour, i.e.: what others will think if the individual chooses a career in tourism and hospitality.

"What I'd find very difficult to put across in a positive way is the wage rate and I think that that really needs to be sorted if the hospitality industry is hoping to attract some bright young things.....I'd need to say positive aspects such as predictive growth rate and availability of work. I'd have to say rather *than you have to get shunted round from one place to another on a short-term contract*, I'd rather put that the other way round and say *if you're the kind of person who will enjoy this, then this is the thing for you.*" (SWCC2, 1999)

"At the end of the day, I mean, despite training and qualifications, people go to work for salary and if they are going to invest in their own education and training, they need to be rewarded for it." (SWCAd2, female, 1999)

"...Parents and students are possibly not aware of career progression. They see it in terms of people they know or people that they've heard about really and how they got on, what their lot was like and whether then they would advise their child

to follow a similar route. It's very difficult to get away from opinion..." (SWCC4, 1999)

"People always point at the unsociable hours, don't they, which is a problem and the fact that you often have to live-in where you work, which a lot of people don't like.....that it isn't always throughout the year and that makes it very difficult, especially round here, people only have a job for six months, or even less - and probably the fact that if you wanted a full-time job, you'd have to move around." (WWCC1, 1999)

"One of the things I come across as well is the length of hours that they have to work and with the best will in the world, they still want a nine to five job, even though they know that not everyone works nine to five anymore. If you ask the majority of students do they want a job, which involved weekend work, they would probably say no..." (MWCA3, 1999)

One career co-ordinator highlighted the issue of working hours and the relationship with the 'school day'. This can be underpinned by the work of Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998), who distinguished between 'adult world' and 'children world' jobs. They discovered that many jobs that exist in the adult world are invisible to young people, which restrict the range of careers that school students might consider. Many 'adult world' jobs are only visible to young people if they have contact with an adult working within that particular job. To a large extent, teaching would be deemed a 'children's world' job, as it is something that young people are familiar with, although many aspects would be invisible to them, such as assessments, preparation and management functions. Employment within tourism and hospitality could be deemed as 'adult world' jobs, unless the school students have some direct or indirect experience of the industry. As with other potential careers the realities of employment need to be translated to them. This was supported by career advisers who commented upon the lack of awareness amongst school students who, it was felt, compared working life with school life.

"...Working hours is something. Youngsters can only relate to the school day. They see teachers working the school day and they think this great 9 till 4 and that's all they do. You look at people in the hotel industry and they're there at 6 in the morning and sometimes at 10 o'clock at night - it's hard..." (MWCC3, 1999)

“They don’t really know so much about the working day so much on a day to day basis..” (SWCAd2, female, 1999)

“You have to make the point it isn’t Monday to Friday 9-6, but if you are working in a hotel and a quality hotel, it would be 24 hours a day, with shift systems as well, so that is very different from obviously the school environment, which is Monday to Friday 9-3.30...” (SWCAd4, female, 1999)

Although the last quote illustrates the invisibility of ‘adult world jobs’ compared to ‘children’s world jobs’ it also illustrates the discouraging picture of the tourism and hospitality industries that are conveyed to school students. In particular, reference was made to shifts, presumably split shifts, and a twenty-four hour working day was inferred. The ‘1998 Attitudes and Aspirations Survey’ (Lifetime Careers, 1999) previously established that school students lack a good understanding about the ‘world of work’. Furthermore, Lifetime Careers (1999) asserted that this lack of understanding may have implications for CEG programmes, specifically that school students may not appreciate the relevance of careers education and guidance.

In terms of promoting the career opportunities available in the tourism and hospitality industries, accessibility to the tourism and hospitality industries was cited by one career co-ordinator, who also vituperated the targeting of influential ‘vehicles’ such as parents:

“It’s access, isn’t it? You can’t assume anything with these kids, you can’t assume that they know or understand whatever.....Maybe more work with parents, but how you do that I don’t know. Every year [local careers company] write to all the parents, particularly of Year 9 students and Year 11 and invite them into the offices in Charles Street for an informal chat, I’ve gone there a couple of times...and there’s very few people there. It’s difficult to know what to do to get parents on your side....it’s very difficult.....you get the over-anxious parents, or you get those who don’t really care and then there’s hundreds somewhere in the middle.” (SWCC4, 1999)

One career adviser discussed the promotional opportunities that exist at Parents Evenings within schools. She connected this to the fact that parents are accepted as very influential in the career decision-making process. Hence, Parents Evenings would

be the ideal time for organisations such as Springboard to present a more accurate picture of careers in the tourism and hospitality industries and make information more accessible to parents:

I am surprised that some of these providers haven't tried to get into Parents Evenings, to have stands, you know, I mean, that is an ideal opportunity where parents are coming into school to find out how the young people are getting on, I know the schools have to be careful as not to be seen as biased or tied up with anybody in particular, but I think to have examples of what is going on in different industries available in schools for the parents, they are sitting targets aren't they really? But I don't know why they don't do it.....I mean bearing in mind that everybody accepts what a big influence parents are, I am surprised that more isn't done, to actually influence parents....." (SWCAd4, female, 1999)

In addition to issues of accessibility, some career professionals were of the opinion that direct experience of tourism and hospitality and role models were the most appropriate vehicles to use in order to promote career opportunities within tourism and hospitality.

"I said earlier about our desire as a school to get youngsters away from the area and 'home', for a short period of time, just one or two nights, just to get them to open their eyes to things that are away from the normal environment in which they live in.....just as an idea, when these establishments are in their closed season, could they invite people in to stay, to work, shadow, enjoy some of the things that happen – give them a real perspective of what's involved. [Role models] can be very useful, but you cannot measure how successful they are...The problems schools have is that the curriculum is so tight, where do you fit it all in? Media is the key, I would say." (MWCC3, 1999)

"..what I say is use community role models you know. Because if you've got them there and they are people that the community can identify with, we are living in a sort of small little microcosm you know in Pembrokeshire, so people do get to know....." (WWCAd, male, 1999)

Previous work (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998) established that role models play an important part in attracting individuals to specific careers, as they portray a more complete picture of the total lifestyle of an individual working within a specific career area.

"Promotion of specific jobs has to include real stories about real people and their lifestyle – how they spend their time at work and away from work, how they have progressed to their present position, what their concerns, joys, successes and fears are. Such an holistic lifestyle view of careers is essential, for pupils and students are actually interested in the sum total of work, personal life, income and

relationships that constitutes the concept of lifestyle" (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998:31).

Research by Springboard UK Limited (2000) also found that where school students had family or friends working in the tourism and hospitality sectors, around a third stated that they would consider the possibility of a career in that industry. The use of role models also has implications for the source variables of persuasive communication. Specifically that the more expert the source, the greater the likelihood of persuasion (Gross, 1996). Therefore, industry role models are likely to be perceived as more knowledgeable than career co-ordinators and career advisers, hence are likely to be more persuasive.

The majority of career advisers and co-ordinators made reference to the need for an effective and efficient use of media sources in order to convey messages regarding the career opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industries:

"I think it's got to be largely through literature made available to schools, if possible, provision of speakers, practical experience that the pupils can get involved in – perhaps if they arrange to come into schools to give practical sessions on the catering side. Those sorts of areas. I think it's got to be directly at the pupils to raise their awareness and very importantly to give them examples of people who have been successful and just showing what the industry can offer in the way of jobs, levels of employment, spread of employment across the whole country – because it is the one single industry that has the greatest spread throughout the whole country..." (NWCC1, 1999)

"There are only two levels. You are going to get the message across, through TV and the Internet. If it is not on telly, it doesn't go in. I mean if you ask a lot of kids what they do, what are their main hobbies, they go out with their mates and watch TV and it rolls off the tongue, because that is what they do and a lot of them do muck around on the Internet. If it is available, it's advertised, it's subliminal, then it will sink in..." (NWCAd, female, 1999)

The following response demonstrates important factors within the message variable and also reinforced the view of the career professionals that school students will only consult different types of media for careers information if they already have a

predisposition towards that career. Specifically it illustrates that, in terms of message variables, face-to-face communication can be more effective than general media attempts to change attitudes, as the message source can receive immediate feedback from the recipient and modify the message to suit the situation.

"I don't think it's enough putting out the papers, as they do.....They've [Springboard has] got to do something that really attracts attention early on. To do that I would say that they have some sort of travel show, which they can take from school to school, set up big display, attract the kids, so that it's not part of school....they want something that 'grabs' – like the Army do, so they've got demonstrations. I think that's something that will attract attention to it. The kids are aware, most kids will flick through the paper and look very quickly at the articles, but will ignore 90%. They will focus in on the bits that they've got an interest in, the rest they ignore....you've got to plant this in their minds. You may not catch them now, it may be further down the line, but it's making them aware early on.....They've got to work collectively and the industry has to, somehow, fund this sort of involvement, because they can't do it on their own, it has to be a collective thing, it's got to be a national thing to get it really moving along. Kids only know what they see – they go to restaurants, they go to cafes, they go to hotels for their holidays, they see what goes on and what they see is not glamorous, in most instances...TV will tell them be a top chef – that is attractive, but if you talk to a kid in school and say, *right, how would you like to be a wine waiter or a silver service waiter, there's plenty of work* – it doesn't mean a damn thing. It's got to be solved nationally and the only thing industry can do is put money in for somebody else to do it for them." (SWCC3, 1999).

"..I am not aware how companies are changing their procedures to actually value their workforce, bringing in continual professional development and enable these people who probably come in the bottom end and move up to very effective managers.....No one has actually ever approached me, I mean I don't get the Marriott Hotel or other leisure groups, coming to do presentations to us. So what is happening? I mean, I am aware that people will point finger at the career companies and say that you are not doing enough to promote tourism and we sit around and say what are you doing actually to promote tourism in your own backyard?" (WWCAd, male, 1999)

These last two responses demonstrated the nature of the problem and the need for co-operation and commitment from industry to solve the problem and promote the industry. Communication also appears to be a factor in terms of updating those that interact with young people, such as career professionals, about changes within the tourism and hospitality industries. In order to address the problems, industry has to 'help itself' and create a partnership approach, whether by direct involvement in

publicity campaigns or indirectly by providing funding for bodies such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru. The consumer perspective that school students are likely to experience was also depicted. These contracted images generally serve to cloud judgements in relation to the career opportunities available in the tourism and hospitality industries for school students as potential employees. Ultimately, for those seeking to encourage young people into careers in the tourism and hospitality industries, it is important to generate a predisposition to investigate and take an interest in tourism and hospitality as a career. This is supported by the finding that only those with an interest are likely to take notice or request specific career information. "Information alone does not change behaviour" (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998:36). Thus, networks influence and help to change attitudes, rather than purely providing direct information.

4.7.1 School Student Attitudes

When asked what the tourism and hospitality industries would need to do in order to try and attract them towards a potential career within tourism and hospitality, school students tended to target three particular aspects: honesty, career progression and pay. Comments regarding the honesty factor often echoed those of some of the career professionals. It is evident that school students are not necessarily persuaded by a portrayal of the 'glamorous' element of tourism and hospitality. They want the industry to be honest about employment within tourism and hospitality, which should include the negative aspects as well as the positive. Indeed, one of the recommendations made by a study into the image of the hospitality industry (Hotel & Catering Industry Training Board, 1981) was that unpopular characteristics which are misconceptions or just do not apply to the job, should be clearly brought to the attention of potential applicants.

"What you have got to do exactly....They might just tell you the good things....Like the armed forces, they probably don't tell you that you would

probably be sitting there for the first month being screamed at" (SWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

The fact that career professionals and school students mentioned a desire for honesty and openness from the tourism and hospitality industries regarding potential careers, indicates that double-sided arguments are required as part of the message variable, so that both sides of the debate can be presented. However, this may create resistance to persuasion amongst the recipients, as resistance is normally strengthened when counter-arguments are available (Gross, 1996). Hence, recipients may resist persuasive communication by acquiring a slight argument in opposition to their own opinion that is sufficient to generate a defensive counter-argument.

Creating awareness into the career progression available within tourism and hospitality was favoured strongly by the majority of respondents, which denotes that although they rated interest and enjoyment as the most important aspect of a career, they are not totally unaware of the need for long-term career planning. In fact, the HCTC (1993) recommended that careers promotion efforts should focus on what pupils see as important for them in their career. The potential for career development was ranked the highest, followed by personal satisfaction, work content, initiative and job role.

"Long term, promotion. Not to be stuck in the same job, to give chances to move on to better rates of pay and things...." (SWPGYr12, male1, 1999)

"Good job prospects" (MWPGYr10, male2, 1999)

"A job is for life and you do not want to stay in a job which does not have prospects. If you can progress from different jobs...it is good. You need something that if you are doing something like an air hostess and have been doing it for three or four years and get tired of it, you can fall back on something....don't you?" (NWPGYr11, male1, 1999)

"I mean a lot of people just think that is just it, you can't do anything else people want to progress don't they? Promotion and things, so they need to tell people that they are not just stuck in that job, if they work hard they can get further." (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

Consideration of career progression was also a feature of the responses of the career professionals, as was seasonality. It is likely that some of these responses could be linked to locally limited exposure to the parochial tourism and hospitality industries, which do not necessarily reflect the true nature and structure of the industries. This exposure may bias the message recipients in terms of persuasive communication, as those with strong feelings on an issue are generally very resistant to messages and information that contradicts their beliefs.

References to pay were interesting, in terms of a way in which to attract school students into the tourism and hospitality industry:

“Pay....They have got to be at competitive rates..” (SWPGYr12, male2, 1999)

“Pay....Better pay. The work would have to be easier, or something like that. See what the chances are, whether you can progress” (MWPGYr11, male2, 1999)

These comments appear to contradict earlier school student responses about the lesser importance of salary levels to a career compared with interest and enjoyment. Furthermore, they contradict responses from the career professionals who believed that school students did not accord salaries a high priority when asking for career advice. Yet, some school students obviously have negative perceptions about salary levels within tourism and hospitality, which they felt needed to be addressed in order to make tourism and hospitality more attractive as potential career areas. This could be explained by the fact that the perceptions school students have of salary levels appear to be very unrealistic, as identified by many of the career professionals. However, as illustrated by the following quote from a school student, it could be the case that career professionals put the emphasis on salaries, based on their own attitudes towards careers:

“If you say you don’t care about money, they look at you as if to say *liar!*” (NWPGYr12, female3, 1999)

Therefore, it is hardly surprising that attitudes towards salary levels filter through to the school students, especially as attitudes are:

“a learned orientation, or disposition towards an object or situation, which provides a tendency to respond favourably or unfavourably to the object or situation.” (Rokeach 1968 cited in Gross, 1996:435)

There is no evidence from this, or other research (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 1997; 1998) to support the view that more school students would be attracted to the tourism and hospitality industries within Wales if the salary levels were higher. Those who were interested in financial rewards tended to be males, with unrealistic perceptions of salary levels, such as those assigned to ‘lottery jobs’.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has drawn together the qualitative data obtained from career professionals and school students in phase one of the research process with the quantitative data collected from parents in phase two of the research. The discussion was based around specific themes that were structured so as to provide general information about the awareness, delivery and provision of careers education and guidance within schools, which created a foundation with regards to shaping attitudes towards careers. In terms of shaping attitudes towards careers, the themes discussed included the role of various influencers, fashion cycles and the media, and parents. Having considered who and what influence school students in their career decision-making process, the discussion then focused upon the specifics of careers in general, such as what are the important aspects and what are the typical questions asked about careers. This then progressed to investigate the initial formation of attitudes towards tourism and hospitality, specifically levels of comprehension regarding the terminology and the industries in general. Once levels of comprehension had been determined, the discussion then explored specific

attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industries, as these specific attitudes could be related back to the level of understanding amongst respondents. The final section of the discussion centred upon comments from the career professionals and school students with regards to the various ways in which the tourism and hospitality industries could be promoted in order to attract more young people of all abilities. The following chapter emphasises the significant findings in relation to issues that need to be addressed by the tourism and hospitality industries in order to enhance the image of the industries and ways in which the industries can be promoted to school students. specific recommendations are also provided, which are aimed at future CEG programmes, the industry and organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru.

CHAPTER 5: OVERVIEW

5.1 Introduction

This chapter emphasises significant findings of the research with regards to issues that need to be addressed by the tourism and hospitality industries in order to enhance the image of the industries and ways in which careers in the industries can be promoted to school students. Specific recommendations are made in the light of these findings and the previous discussion chapter. The recommendations are aimed at future career education and guidance programmes, the tourism and hospitality industries and policy initiatives that focus upon the promotion of careers within tourism and hospitality, such as those formulated by Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru.

5.2 Significant Findings

With regards to aspects that the tourism and hospitality industries need to address and effective ways that the industry could be promoted to school students, there were significant findings in terms of the overwhelming response that the image of the tourism and hospitality industries must be improved, with an emphasis placed upon changing ‘old-fashioned’ perceptions regarding low pay, long hours and split shifts. Throughout the course of this research, respondents frequently raised issues surrounding working hours and salary levels, which they felt still need to be addressed, as many employees still work long hours at minimum wage levels. Additionally, it was believed that the tourism and hospitality industries in the UK are still regarded as ‘poor’ industries to work in compared with European counterparts. Generally, respondents were of the opinion that it was important for employers to be more honest about careers in the industries that they are promoting to school students. They felt that employers should illustrate both the positive

and the negative aspects of working in tourism and hospitality to school students as potential employees, rather than creating 'false ideals' based on a glamorous image.

The extreme importance of employers encouraging and valuing part-time and casual employees, rather than simply perceiving them to be transient and variable labour supplies, was emphasised by respondents as a whole. It was felt that such labour supplies should be integrated with the main workforce and provided with the same training and career progression opportunities. Lack of promotional opportunities and limited career progression are oftentimes the most negative factors associated with flexible working patterns and were frequently cited within this research project. Jobs that are deemed to be part of the flexible labour market are seldom perceived to be 'life-time' jobs and rarely require qualifications that young people may feel a compulsion to attain. With regards to their study on perceptions of nursing as a career, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (1998:85) suggested that there needed to be some way of:

"...shifting the perception of nursing away from this kind of employer flexibility towards employee flexibility which is associated with highly skilled/graduate occupations and enhanced employability."

The tourism and hospitality industries may benefit from such suggestions, in order to recruit and retain quality employees. Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) found that work conditions were the most important issue to address with regards to creating more positive attitudes towards working in the industries. Specifically, conditions of employment, physical working conditions and promotional opportunities. However, research by Choy (1995) established that the quality of tourism employment was much better amongst those within the industry than that usually perceived by those outside the industry. Thus

illustrating disparities between the image and the reality of employment within the tourism and hospitality industries.

Similarly, the use of “Ambassadors” or “Champions” of Industry for promotion purposes within schools was a frequent suggestion, so that school students could identify role models and possible career paths. This type of approach would also serve to improve access and communication between education and industry and has been found to be beneficial in previous studies (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998). There was a general request for greater emphasis to be placed upon career structure and progression within the tourism and hospitality industries, as the opinion was that school students, and indeed the career professionals themselves, only have a limited awareness of career opportunities within these industries. With regards to promotional vehicles for highlighting the career opportunities within tourism and hospitality, the various influencers all identified the media; job centres; Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru and the Wales Tourist Board as being important.

Parents were identified by the career professionals and school students as being extremely influential, although some career professionals felt that concerted efforts should be made by other promotional vehicles to change negative parental attitudes and perceptions towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries. However, parents were found to regard formal CEG and career professionals in fairly high esteem. Furthermore, they were found to have a more positive attitude towards the tourism and hospitality industries than the career professionals, in terms of what a career within the industries was likely to provide. Hence, the industry and organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru may find

parents a more agreeable vehicle through which to promote their message than the career professionals.

It is without doubt the case that schools rely heavily on the careers service companies for specialist advice, as there is an assumption that the career advisers will know more about specific career areas. However, this research has acutely illustrated that career advisers do not have an accurate awareness, understanding or specialist knowledge of the tourism and hospitality industries, which can adversely affect the perceived status and credibility of the message source. Additionally, given the disparities between the career service companies, the roles of the career co-ordinators and in the delivery of careers education and guidance, the expected outcomes and reliance on the careers services by schools and organisations involved in tourism and hospitality for specialist advice needs to be considered carefully.

Furthermore, the lack of awareness amongst school students regarding the significance of CEG has important implications, particularly in terms of them being receptive as message recipients. Recognition of the relative influence of the various groups is also important. In many cases the career professionals did not assume that they were particularly influential, they believed that parents and peers were of much more influence to school students. The school students questioned within this study confirmed that parents were their biggest influencers but did not support the claim regarding their peers. The career professional's dismissal of the importance of their role proved to be an exaggeration. Some school students mentioned career advisers and career co-ordinators as being influential, although this often depended upon the individual career professional and the CEG experience of the school student. Nevertheless, amongst the parents, who have been established as the most important influencers, formal mechanisms for CEG, which incorporate the career

professionals, were deemed to be extremely influential in their child's career decision-making process.

The tourism and hospitality industries cannot be complacent and simply rely on third parties, to inform potential employees and present an unbiased picture of the industry. Key groups are certainly influential in the career decision-making process of school students, but are not necessarily well informed. Levels of awareness and understanding certainly require improvement and misperceptions clearly still exist amongst those with influence over the career decision-making process. In previous research, Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) recommended that career guidance and orientation should be made more efficient at the secondary school level. This is also supported by a study of basic work values and tourism and hospitality industry job-attainment beliefs amongst Australian school leavers (Ross, 1992a), which found that some students may need more information regarding factors likely to impress those involved in tourism and hospitality job selection. Therefore, in addition to basic industry information, career professionals and representatives of the tourism and hospitality industry need to become adept at providing more in-depth information. An issue that has been highlighted within this study in addition to previous studies (Ginzberg 1971; Hayes and Hopson 1971; Hodgkinson 1995) is the need for policy-makers and practitioners to recognise the complexity of the career decision-making process.

Barron (1997) stressed the importance of industry involvement in tourism and hospitality education programmes in order to produce future managers and improve working life in the industry. Moreover, the industry voice is essential, not just to enhance programmes of CEG and prepare school students for the world of work, but also to eliminate the misperceptions that exist amongst those involved directly or indirectly with the career

decision-making process. In addition, it is not simply misperceptions that exist which create negative attitudes but also a lack of awareness about developments within the tourism and hospitality industries. Some career professionals distinctly stated that the tourism and hospitality industries made little or no effort to foster relations with education and encourage young people of all abilities into the industries by promoting the range of opportunities available. Closer relationships between the tourism and hospitality industries, career professionals, parents and school students may ultimately provide an opportunity for influencers and potential employees to impress a need for change upon the industries. Although there is little doubt that a host of misperceptions exist, much of the reality regarding tourism and hospitality employment does little to attract school students towards potential careers.

However, with respect to changing attitudes towards careers within tourism and hospitality amongst career professionals, parents and school students, latitudes of rejection or acceptance must be considered.

"The greater the discrepancy between the attitude a person already holds and the one which the communicator wants the person to hold, the less likely it is that any shift in attitude will occur." (Gross, 1996:447)

Therefore, the more extreme the message, the more likely it is that it will fall outside the recipient's latitude of acceptance. As a result, industry representatives need to appreciate this when formulating their persuasive communications, as they may ostracise particular groups, rather than entice them into the industries.

5.3 Recommendations

- A new culture needs to be developed with regards to CEG programmes, which directs school students away from the convergent approach to career choice and towards a more divergent approach.
- School students are prone to act as consumers, making relatively free choices within a stable careers market. In reality, they are potential providers of skills in a changing careers market and need to be made aware of this.
- School students and, in particular, their parents need to be provided with greater clarity about the concept of employability and lifelong learning, in order to meet the demands of the labour market. These are likely to be replacements to the security of traditional careerpaths and a 'job for life'. This is particularly prevalent in the light of changing economic environments that are forcing changes to careerpaths, to which parental attitudes did not appear to conform.
- Those involved in CEG and tourism and hospitality employment policy initiatives must realise that information alone does not change behaviour. School students need a broader information base and should be introduced to changing conditions in the labour market.
- Furthermore, career professionals appeared to have a low esteem about their level of influence, yet were felt by parents to be extremely important in the career decision-making process. Therefore, this group of influencers needs to re-evaluate their perceived levels of influence.
- Many school students are 'selectively deaf' to information about careers which they are not interested in, as they have a predisposition to only listen to information which relates to the choices they have made. The late commencement of CEG programmes, at

a time when most school students have already developed strong images of specific careers, does little to address this issue. Choice may be restricted rather than expanded – particularly in the case of ‘invisible’ adult careers, which may not have been considered by the school students.

- Employment within tourism and hospitality can be deemed as ‘adult world’, unless school students have some direct or indirect experience of the industries. As with other potential careers, the realities of employment within this area need to be translated to school students.
- The relative importance of contracted, delegated and derived images need to be understood and appreciated by tourism and hospitality employers, career professionals, parents and organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru, in terms of how messages may be distorted or enhanced.
- The issues of pay, seasonality and working hours were cited as possible deterrents to careers in tourism and hospitality, thus highlighting the lack of progression and limited local opportunities. However, there was no evidence from this research to support the view that more school students would be attracted to the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales if the salary levels were higher.
- The ‘invisible’ elements of tourism and hospitality careers need to be highlighted in order to illustrate the potential opportunities for more skilled and qualified entrants, as well as the need to demonstrate potential training opportunities and the economic growth of the industries within Wales.
- The request for openness and honesty from the tourism and hospitality industries regarding potential career opportunities indicated that double-sided arguments are recommended as part of the message variable, in order that both sides of the debate can

be adequately presented. Creating awareness about the career progression available within the tourism and hospitality industries denotes that although school students rated interest and enjoyment as the most important aspect of a career, they are not totally unaware of the need for long-term career planning.

- Higher status tends to be attributed to careers which are highly selective in terms of entry, therefore, improved status and image may be improved through re-considering the selection procedures adopted for entry to the tourism and hospitality industry.
- Long-term initiatives, such as training and promotional opportunities, should be worked towards in terms of attracting, retaining and placing a value on quality staff at all levels.
- Parents' Evenings were identified as potential promotional vehicles, in terms of accurate information being made accessible to the most important group of influencers in the career decision-making process.
- Direct experience of the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as the utilisation of role models are also recommended as appropriate and effective vehicles to promote accurate information and the potential opportunities available. Furthermore, the use of role models has positive advantages for the source variable of persuasive communication, in that, the more expert the source, the greater the likelihood of persuasion.
- It is recommended that the use of other media sources as vehicles to convey messages regarding the career opportunities within the tourism and hospitality industries be re-examined in order to make them more effective and efficient. This is particularly prevalent, as school students are only likely to consult different types of media for career information if they already have a predisposition towards that career.

- The industries need to be committed to solving labour force-related problems and co-operate with other groups of influencers to promote the tourism and hospitality industries. In particular, communication needs to be improved between education and industry, in terms of industry sources updating those that interact with school students about changes within the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales. Therefore, a much stronger partnership approach should be adopted.
- Theories relating to socialisation, habitus, cognitive dissonance and the theory of planned behaviour need to be appreciated by career professionals and those who are involved in policy initiatives tasked with changing attitudes towards careers within tourism and hospitality, to ensure effective policies and CEG programmes.
- With respect to policy initiatives aimed at changing attitudes towards careers within the tourism and hospitality industry, it is strongly recommended that latitudes of rejection or acceptance are considered and understood. The more extreme the message, the more likely it is to fall outside the recipient's latitude of acceptance, which may deter rather than attract school students into the industries.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the significant findings, from the perspective of career professionals, school students and parents, in terms of aspects that the industries need to address and ways in which the industries can be promoted, in order to attract more young people of all abilities into the tourism and hospitality industries. In addition, recommendations for CEG, the tourism and hospitality industries and organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru were provided. The next chapter concludes this research project. It re-visits the initial objectives in the light of the completed research,

with reference to literature and the data obtained. The conclusion also includes a discussion of the outcomes of the research, in terms of the contribution the work has made to current literature and practice, as well as suggestions for future research within this specific area.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the research project by re-visiting the initial objectives in the light of the completed work and identifying the outcomes of the research project in terms of the contribution it makes to current literature and practice. Finally, it provides suggestions for future research.

6.2 Objectives Re-visited

In order to achieve the aim of this research project, the following objectives were fulfilled:

- 1. To contribute to debates relating to the process of socialisation, in addition to social policy debates surrounding careers education and guidance advice, and career decision-making processes.*

Socialisation is a life-long process originating with primary socialisation during infancy, usually within the family. Work roles may also be learned in the home, as parents and others provide material for playing occupational roles (Hayes and Hopson, 1971). Family members have been shown to be of considerable importance as they represent a credible information source. Hemsley-Brown (1998) found that students who had a parent or close relation working in a field often had a clearer idea about what the job encompassed. Lankard (1995) found that family influence was an important force in the preparation for work and that attitudes about work and careers were a result of family interaction. However, family members are not always best equipped to offer advice as their occupational experience may be restricted and their attitudes towards work may be biased or out-dated. Previous research has indicated that non-tourism industry workers tend to have negative perceptions of tourism industry jobs (Choy, 1995). Other agents of socialisation include the educational system and peer groups.

Work experience can have important exploratory values, as it provides an opportunity to sample the life of adult workers and their subculture, develops mature work habits relating to punctuality and responsibility, and provides an opportunity to test the reality of an individual's self-concept (Super, 1957). Hence, work experience can substantially aid the transition from school to work (Petherbridge, 1997). Conversely, research (Purcell and Quinn, 1996; Hodkinson, 1995; Getz, 1994) has illustrated that work experience can have a negative effect upon career intentions, often resulting in students opting for alternative careers in completely different sectors. This is particularly prevalent where students have elected to follow courses that are relevant to employers and which contain industry-related work experience modules, such as leisure and tourism or hospitality and catering qualifications (Keep and Mayhew, 1999).

Sociological debates have moved away from the concept of socialisation towards the theory of habitus. Whilst socialisation is a continuous process during which individuals conform to the prevailing norms and values of society, habitus is more reflexive, with individuals being the product and creators of their habitus. Young people accumulate conceptual structures or schemata from childhood. These structures serve as tools for understanding aspects of their experiences. Individual life histories are shaped as new experiences are gained and the conceptual structures are modified and developed. Habitus is a result of the development of schematic repertoires which are individualistic and used when selecting any course of action. Career decision-making is context-related and cannot be separated from the family background, culture and life histories of school students. "No-one can step outside such personal development" (Hodkinson, 1995:6). Hence career aspirations and decisions are shaped by the various agencies of socialisation, together with an individual's habitus. Primary data obtained and explored within this research project demonstrates many aspects of socialisation and habitus.

Specifically the dominant influencers within the career education, guidance and decision-making process and the career aspirations of the school students involved in the study. It was not the case that school student's career choices necessarily reflected those of family members. However, there were cases where occupational choice was restricted, even though a range of choices were available, as an inherent obligation to work in the same occupation as predecessors was likely to impede choice. Furthermore, The lack of any personal link in the delivery of CEG may explain the limited impact of CEG as reported by many school students. Careers information that is isolated from their own reality may simply appear to be cold and detached information. Previous research has demonstrated that information on careers where there are no personal links has little or no impact upon a young person's understanding of jobs (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1998). Additionally, Ginzberg's advanced development theory (1951) accentuated that effective vocational guidance is based upon the ability of an individual to understand their personal values and goals. If students within schools in Wales are unaware of the significance of CEG and are not receiving a coherent and integrated CEG programme, possibly due to a lack of training for career co-ordinators, the effectiveness of CEG provision may be questioned.

2. To contextualise the economic and social factors responsible for gaps between labour supply and demand within the tourism and hospitality industries by examining the nature of the tourism and hospitality industries.

The image of employment in the tourism and hospitality industries is of paramount importance in the attempt to address the shortfall of quality, skilled labour. Although the development of the tourism and hospitality industries creates new employment opportunities, critics of the industries contend that tourism and hospitality employment provides predominantly low-paid, low skilled jobs that are demeaning (Choy, 1995).

The negative aspects of tourism and hospitality employment tend to focus upon the physical demands of the job and poor conditions of work. In particular, tourism and hospitality employment is frequently characterised by low pay, long working hours, high labour turnover and a lack of training. Biswas and Cassell (1996) highlighted features such as unskilled labour, the transferability of skills between a broad range of establishments and high levels of absenteeism. Hayter (2001) also highlighted the fact that reports of attempts to circumvent the minimum wage and exploit asylum seekers do little to promote the image of employment within tourism and hospitality.

This situation is compounded by the high incidence of labour turnover within the industries. Labour turnover is often accepted by some within the tourism and hospitality industries as inevitable and a natural process, whilst others perceive it to be beneficial, as it enables them to manipulate the size of their workforce (Lashley and Chaplain, 1999). Nevertheless, labour turnover is a cost to tourism and hospitality businesses and can create severe operational difficulties. Research (HtF, 2001) has shown that many employers are unwilling to invest money in training beyond induction as employers are unlikely to recoup the advantages.

Part-time and casual employment is an inherent characteristic of work within the tourism and hospitality industries, and whilst labour flexibility may be seen as a positive attribute, it also has the potential to be detrimental. Although labour markets, such as the tourism and hospitality industries, have experienced a transition towards flexibility, occupations requiring a flexible workforce may not be identified as viable career choices, by many school students. One explanation for this being that many school students recognised the importance of qualifications and knowledge and, therefore, may be seeking to acquire these in order to expand their career prospects. Yet, career

progression routes within tourism and hospitality are often invisible and the industries are characterised by 'easy entry', rather than being selective in terms of levels of educational attainment.

3. To investigate the social influences school students in Wales are exposed to when forming their career decisions and to establish the current attitudes of school students towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries

The provision and delivery of careers education and guidance determines how the attitudes of school students towards careers are shaped and the role of various influencers. These influencers shape attitudes towards careers by conveying beliefs and values about the important aspects of careers and different career areas to school students. If levels of comprehension regarding tourism and hospitality are found to be questionable and misinformed, it is likely that specific attitudes will be misdirected and negative. If the aspects deemed important to a career are not evident in specific attitudes towards tourism and hospitality, it provides a strong indication as to why the tourism and hospitality industries are not perceived to provide first-choice careers.

However, different groups have various levels of relative influence. The original assumption of the research project, that career co-ordinators and career advisers were the most influential groups in terms of career decision-making due to the statutory requirement of the 1997 Education Act to provide careers education and guidance in secondary schools, was strongly challenged, as a variety of influences were found to shape attitudes towards careers. The majority of school students cited their parents or other family members as being the people that they are most likely to listen to with regards to career advice. This is hardly surprising, as Super (1953) suggested that the nature of the career pattern is determined by the individual's parental socio-economic

level, mental abilities, personality characteristics and the opportunities to which they are exposed. Yet school students who develop educational and occupational aspirations not shared by their family, or who are from homes of low socio-economic status will find no suitable role models within the family. As a result, they may adopt the school or their peers as their primary reference group.

Career choices were often identified in line with the lottery, high status or customary model (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown, 1997), with aspirations to lottery or high status careers defaulting to customary ones when ambitions were not realised. Perceptions of careers were generally based on contracted (direct experiences for school students), delegated (direct experiences for adults conveyed to school students) and derived (media and external sources) images, which generate clear perceptions of many career areas from an early age. Furthermore, school students seem to reject particular careers for specific career-related reasons, whether based on image or reality. Invisibility was a feature of many careers, in particular those that may be classified as 'adult world' jobs. As a result, considerable limitations are placed upon the range and types of careers that school students base their selections upon. Perceptions of employment within tourism and hospitality that are generated from contracted and derived images are based on the visible work associated with tourism and hospitality. The status of the jobs is linked to value judgements about these visible dimensions, which are primarily manual jobs and 'subordinate service roles' (Shamir, 1980). Manual jobs tend to be associated with low pay and domestic manual labour is associated with low status. Hence, the visible element of tourism and hospitality creates the misconceptions about the opportunities available.

The benefits of post-16 education and qualifications as ways of improving career prospects and opportunities were well recognised by the school students of all year groups. However, interest and enjoyment were the main reasons cited for career choice, followed by career opportunities and progression. The majority of young people do not make a personal choice of career direction on the basis of employability, where they are the providers of skills and employers are consumers in the labour market, as enjoyment of a job is an important consideration and school students often have particular interests that they want to incorporate into careers. Role models were identified as an important attribute in attracting individuals to specific careers, as they have the ability to provide a realistic delegated image regarding job factors and lifestyle perspectives, rather than a limited and possibly inaccurate overview of a career.

4. To establish and evaluate the current attitudes of those that influence school students in the career decision-making process towards careers in general, and more specifically careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and to analyse how these affect the career decisions of school students with regards to tourism and hospitality as potential career areas.

Influencers shape attitudes towards careers by conveying beliefs and values about the important aspects of careers and different career areas to school students. If their levels of comprehension regarding tourism and hospitality are found to be questionable and misinformed, it is likely that specific attitudes will be misdirected and negative. Furthermore, if the aspects they deem important to a career are not evident in specific attitudes towards tourism and hospitality, it provides a strong indication as to why the tourism and hospitality industries are not perceived to provide first-choice careers. Hayes and Hopson (1971) stressed the importance of a sound understanding of the dynamics of the career choice process to those providing vocational guidance. As a

result, any gaps in CEG training and professional development could obstruct the aims and objectives of CEG and prevent it from being a “process of structured intervention aimed at helping individuals to take advantage of the educational, training and occupational opportunities that are available” (Ginzberg, 1971:4).

Parents had a much higher awareness than the school students about the provision of CEG and may very well appreciate the significance of CEG. Hence, demonstrating that the schools and career service companies are generating more of an influence and creating a greater impact through the various delivery mechanisms than they might appreciate. The research illustrated the low-esteem amongst those who provide careers education and guidance in Wales with regards to the influence they exert over school students, which may be a result of lapses in CEG training and a lack of awareness about the dynamic career choice process. However, although career professionals and school students had a low regard for formal CEG methods of delivery, parents rated such formal methods quite highly compared to other informal methods.

The parents attributed television, in particular, much less status in terms of influence on their children. This possibly indicates that too much emphasis is placed upon the glamour of the media, rather than the influence of social and educational contexts, particularly as individuals often only search for specific information on particular careers if they have a predisposition towards that career. Obviously, this finding raises questions with regards to how influential groups are prioritised and targeted in order to raise awareness and displace negative attitudes about career opportunities in the tourism and hospitality industries. Furthermore, it highlights the need for career professionals to acquire specialist knowledge about various career areas and enhance CEG programmes.

General parent and career professional attitudes towards careers tended to conform to the dated but traditional idea of a career, rather than a more *flexible* approach towards the concept of a career. The latter have not been traditionally accepted as normal or legitimate career patterns, although many (Nicholson and West 1988; Inkson and Coe 1993; Lankard Brown 1996) argue that the more 'traditional' definitions of career paths are no longer appropriate to contemporary organisational career systems. Alarming, in the current economic climate, 40% of parents agreed or strongly agreed that a career was 'a job for life'. Qualitative data confirmed initial research assumptions that the attitudes held by career professionals towards the tourism and hospitality industries were negative.

The career professionals identified employment and potential careers from a consumer perspective, derived from their experiences of being a consumer of the tourism and hospitality industry. Career professionals also made reference to the emotional demands of working within tourism and hospitality, in addition to the physical demands and working conditions. The attitudes of parents with regards to what they thought a career in tourism and hospitality would provide, based on their earlier response to careers in general were fairly positive. However, this attitude was not reflected in their behaviour with regards to the selection of career areas for their children. Thus suggesting that whilst parental attitudes towards the general idea of careers in tourism and hospitality is not a highly negative one, they are fairly unlikely to consciously select that career area for their child.

5. To investigate and make observations as to how the research findings can be used to evaluate policy initiatives in tourism and hospitality employment operating within Wales, such as the work of Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru.

The process through which school student's progress with regards to potential career areas can be illustrated by adaptation of the model of career selection suggested by Riegel and Dallas (1998):

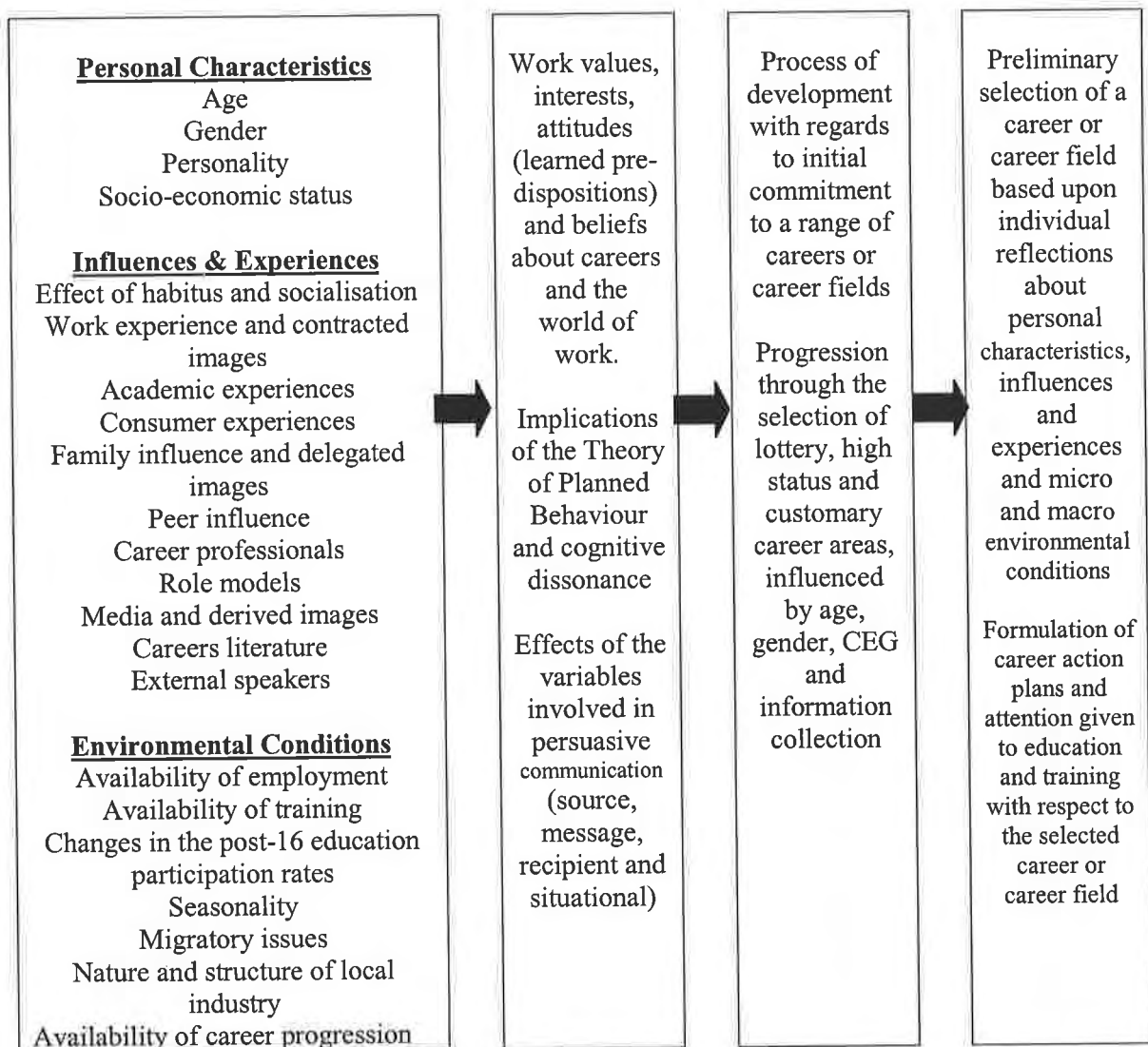


Diagram 9: Model of Career Selection (adapted from: Riegel and Dallas 1998:7)

Those involved in policy initiatives relating to employment within the tourism and hospitality industries must be aware of this process and attempt to make structured interventions at appropriate stages. School students with a high level of cultural and educational capital may have a greater chance of pursuing their selected career, but students lacking this capital may find that their career choices are restricted. The fact that there are a range of influences and experiences which affect the career decisions of

young people means that it is not sufficient to rely upon the formal careers education and guidance system, much of which was found to lack detailed knowledge of the tourism and hospitality industries. Furthermore, current CEG programmes appear to rely on the assumption that career choice is mechanistic with logical links between specific interests and abilities, personal characteristics and specific jobs. This ignores the influence of unique personal histories, social and economic circumstances, habitus, socialisation, values and learned predispositions upon the career choices of school students. In addition, the opinion of school students that CEG is a system of 'information on demand' does little to promote choice by disseminating information on invisible areas of adult careers.

6.3 Outcomes and Contribution of the Research

Through the first, systematic all-Wales study of attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality, this project has identified how the career decisions of potential employees are predisposed by determining the attitudes of school students and their influencers towards careers in the tourism and hospitality industries. This has been achieved by establishing the social pressures and processes potential employees are exposed to, in addition to the perceptions of the career opportunities offered by the tourism and hospitality industries and an examination of how influencers contribute to the career decisions of potential tourism and hospitality employees. Furthermore, data from school students and their influencers, specifically career professionals and parents, was triangulated in order to inform future recruitment policies for the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales. This research project has extended the field of interdisciplinary tourism and hospitality research through the application of relevant and novel sociological and psychological concepts. Additionally, the research has filled a gap in terms of previous work in this area. Prior work has been limited and quantitative research methodologies dominant (Ross 1991a; 1991b; 1992a; 1992b; 1994; Barron

1997; Cothran and Combrink 1999; Kusluvan and Kusluvan 2000). These previous studies focused on college students, ethnic minorities and school leavers, whilst this research applied qualitative and quantitative research methodologies and obtained data from school students, parents and career professionals, in order to address more than one perspective regarding attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality in Wales.

6.3.1 Contribution to Literature

Existing literature on career theory was found to be dated, with only a few notable revisions making reference to changes in careerpaths in the light of transitional economies and organisational structures (Killeen 1996a; Lankard Brown 1996; Wijers and Meijers 1996; Arthur *et al.* 1999). However, this research has provided evidence that whilst academics may debate changing careerpaths, 40% of parents of Year 10, 11 and 12 school students in Wales still believe a career to be 'a job for life'. This is an alarming discovery in the current economic climate and an issue that existing literature fails to address in terms of whether individuals understand and appreciate changes to traditional careerpaths.

Similarly, much of the literature surrounding career theory has been located within one of the specific and traditional disciplines, such as psychology or sociology. In this way, previous career theory has attempted either to predict the suitability of individuals to specific work roles or explain the various social processes that were believed to determine career choice. It is only recently that authors (Law 1996a; Adamson *et al.* 1998) have outlined the potential of interdisciplinary developments in career theory, in terms of being a range of different theories, rather than a unitary theory. One of the strongest proponents of this argument is that of 'careership' (Hodkinson and Sparkes, 1997), which suggests that career decision-making has a crucial but conflicting position.

This is reflected by sociological literature that emphasises the dominance of socially-structured pathways, whilst policy making operates on the assumption that individuals are 'free agents'. This research has contributed to this debate by illustrating the careership concept. The majority of school students were treated as 'free agents', empowered with the ability to base their own career choices on the career opportunities available to them. However, in reality, the research found that career choices may be restricted in terms of entry levels; contracted, delegated and derived images; family obligations; educational abilities and invisibility. In addition, school students are not perceived to be providers of skills, but as consumers in a stable careers market. Yet the current economic climate does not guarantee a stable career market, just as it does not guarantee a 'job for life', hence career choices need to adopt a more divergent approach.

This research has also challenged many of the traditional sociological views on the aspirations of young people (Roberts 1981; Sonnerfeld and Kotter 1982) with regards to conforming to societal role expectations and restricting careers choice by social class divisions. Career professionals featured within this research indicated that parents, generally, regardless of social class divisions, had high expectations for their children. Similarly, the school students did not provide evidence that they wished to be 'carbon copies' of their parents, nor did parents necessarily select careers based on their own career. These findings demonstrate changing views on aspirations, which much of the existing literature fails to address.

The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986) has been applied to this research. Previous studies into attitudes towards careers within tourism and hospitality have failed to consider this theory, which asserts that intentions are determined by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, whilst behaviour is

determined by intentions and behavioural control (Connor, 2000). Therefore, the theory of planned behaviour was relevant to this research, as parents were found to have fairly positive attitudes in terms of what they thought a career in tourism and hospitality would provide compared to the aspects they felt were important to a career in general. However, this attitude was not reflected in their behaviour towards the selection of tourism and hospitality as career areas for their child. Hence, although attitudes represent a predisposition to behaviour, how individuals actually act will be dependent upon the immediate consequences of that behaviour, particularly how others are perceived to evaluate actions. Many career professionals felt that parents were fairly competitive and had high aspirations for their children, therefore, amongst the parent cohort, selecting tourism and hospitality as a career may not conform to societal expectations. Nevertheless, the fact that the contradiction between two cognitive elements causes cognitive dissonance to occur provides a platform from which policy initiatives and organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru can attempt to alter interpretations about the industries to create more positive behaviour in terms of career choice amongst the most influential group in the career decision-making process. This demonstrates the contribution the application of the theory has made to practice, as well as to extending the literature.

The research has also integrated the concepts of socialisation, habitus, latitudes of rejection or acceptance, contracted, delegated and derived images, which have been absent in previous work. The inclusion of these concepts has contributed to the literature on the career decision-making process in general and specific tourism and hospitality literature by demonstrating that they cannot be ignored as they are important concepts within the delivery of an effective message and an integral part of the overall career decision-making process.

6.3.2 Contribution to Practice

Airey and Frontistis (1997:157) stated that:

“..at a time when tourism is held as one of the world’s major industries and sources of employment it would be timely to know more about what potential recruits think about it, in order to provide a basis for attracting the best possible workforce.”

This research has made a contribution by addressing this deficiency on a Wales-wide basis, by gathering data not just from potential recruits (school students) but also from their influencers (career professionals and parents). In this way, many aspects have been identified which may inform future recruitment policies for the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as future career education and guidance (CEG) programmes.

Parents valued formal CEG and its relative influence much more than the school students or indeed the career professionals. The lack of esteem amongst career professionals with regards to the influence they exert on the career decision-making process, together with the lack of awareness amongst school students regarding the significance of CEG has important implications for future CEG programmes. If school students do not appreciate the significance of CEG, they are unlikely to be receptive as message recipients. This is exacerbated if career professionals do not appreciate the significance of their influence, as the school students may regard CEG as cold, detached information that has little relevance to them.

Disparities were identified between the career service companies, the roles of the career co-ordinator and the delivery of CEG that impedes any structured interventions by organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru. Therefore, in order to promote the tourism and hospitality industries as first-choice careers, interventions will

need to be at local levels, tailored to specific schools and their preferred method of CEG delivery. Previous studies (Ross 1992a; Barron 1997; Kusluvan and Kusluvan 2000) tended to consider interventions at a more strategic level. This research has demonstrated a lack of awareness, understanding and specialist knowledge of the tourism and hospitality industries on the part of career advisers and career co-ordinators. Not only can this adversely affect the perceived status and credibility of the message source but also, the objectivity and accuracy of the information school students receive. Previous research (Getz 1994; Airey and Frontistis 1997) into the attitudes of school students towards careers in tourism and hospitality suffered from a weak conceptualisation of this issue.

With regards to the image of careers within the tourism and hospitality industries and the positive and negative aspects of the industries, much of the data obtained by this research supported the literature in terms of the inherent problems of attracting a suitably qualified workforce. Nevertheless, from the perspective of future recruitment policies these findings are an important contribution, as areas were identified that the industry and organisations such as Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru could target. The importance school students placed upon the interest/enjoyment and social interaction of a career is an illustration of this, whereby the potential of these attributes within the tourism and hospitality industries could be emphasised. Conversely, career professionals focused on the physical elements of the work, rewards and working conditions. Although many of the attitudes towards these elements were negative, it was often the case that the information forming those attitudes was inaccurate, thereby identifying areas to target in terms of changing attitudes and providing accurate information.

Another important contribution in relation to the current practices of CEG and recruitment that has been identified within this research is a consideration of the concepts of invisibility and adult world employment, with regards to attitudes towards careers within tourism and hospitality. Limited or no direct experience means that school students are not effectively exposed to the realities of the industries, so potential **careers** and **career progression**, as opposed to employment, remain invisible. The implications for practice are that the industries and policy initiatives need to adopt more of a partnership approach with the educational system, preferably incorporating role models. The purpose of this being to ensure that accurate information is delivered and that school students obtain direct experience, in order to acquire contracted images of the industries, rather than relying on the subjectivity of delegated and derived images.

The research has also challenged the practice of utilising various media sources to convey messages about careers within tourism and hospitality. This is an important contribution, as the industries and organisations like Springboard Wales/Sbardun Cymru may benefit from reassessing the sources they use to deliver their messages. School students are only likely to consult different types of media for career information if they have a predisposition towards that career. Television and the Internet may currently be fashionable vehicles for promotional messages but that does not guarantee effectiveness. Indeed, parents were found to be fairly dismissive of informal sources of CEG, especially external media sources. Moreover, television documentaries about the industries were believed to be more concerned with viewing figures than conveying accurate information.

Ultimately, the main contribution this research is making to current and future recruitment practices is to call on the tourism and hospitality industries to 'sell'

themselves if they are to have a realistic chance of addressing the persistent recruitment problems within the industries. They are extremely unwise to rely on third parties such as parents and career professionals, as they may be highly influential in the career decision-making process but are not necessarily well informed.

6.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

It is pertinent to discuss the limitations of this research together with suggestions for future research, as the limitations may include the focus on Wales for the sampling frame and the number of respondents involved in the qualitative phase of the research process. Although the broad qualitative phase included a significant number of focus groups (16) and individual interviews (11), it is appreciated that caution needs to be taken with regards to generalising the findings beyond Wales, particularly as although those within the qualitative sample were truly representative of a particular population, that population was Wales-based. Hence, there are a number of different research projects that could be considered in the light of this research, that build upon the limitations of this research:

- A much larger investigation into the influence of parents in the career decision-making process of their children using a qualitative approach, not just within Wales but also at UK-wide and trans-national levels, as regional and national differences may be more distinguishable. In addition, the parental responses within this research were confined by the survey instrument, whereas a qualitative approach with parents would generate richer data;
- A wider investigation into parental careers and employment history in order to identify whether this has had any influence on the career choices of the children and if so, to what extent. This project could include a group of parents with experience of tourism and hospitality employment and a group without. Such a project would

also create a wider parental response, thus enabling an improved generalisation of the findings;

- An examination of other influences on the career decision-making process, such as the media and various types of literature. This is an important aspect within the career decision-making process, although how influential the various sources are is another matter, but the use of different types of media sources was too broad an area to investigate within this particular research;
- A longitudinal study based on a cohort of school students to investigate if their career choices do change as they get older and why. This would be a follow-up to the information gathered from parents in the quantitative phase of this research, which was based on career theory literature and data obtained in the qualitative phase;
- An analysis of how the tourism and hospitality industries in Wales or UK-wide perceive themselves in terms of the career opportunities available to various groups of potential employees – graduates, school leavers, returnees to work, disabled and older workers. This research project adopted an in-depth investigation of school students and their influencers, therefore to have considered other potential groups of employees from the industry perspective would have limited the depth of the final investigation;
- An investigation into the role of work experience placements as a ‘filter’ in career choice amongst school students and/or students within further and higher education. Work experience was an important element mentioned frequently within the qualitative phase of the research. However, the confines of this research did not facilitate the investigation of work experience as a main filter in career choice and the career decision-making process;

- Longitudinal studies of the effect of promotional events aimed at changing attitudes towards careers in tourism and hospitality and making the industries more accessible. Such a project would be from a policy initiative perspective, in terms of what various organisations are doing to promote careers within the industries and how effective they are. Again, the parameters of this specific research did not allow this perspective to be investigated, as this would have had a detrimental effect on the main investigation.

APPENDICES

Specific Topic Guide – Career Advisers (Career Service Companies)

1. What is your role within the school, in terms of careers?
2. How do you provide career advice to school students on a group basis?
3. What about individually?
4. How do you gather such a range of information on different careers?
5. Typically, what sort of things might school students ask you regarding careers?
6. Who do you think school students listen to regarding careers?
7. From your experience, have you found huge differences in career desirability? Do you think there are “cycles”, when some careers seem more “fashionable” than others?
8. What about tourism and/or hospitality? How prominently do they feature?
9. Why do you think that is?
10. How might people describe the tourism industry?
11. What about the hospitality industry?
12. Are tourism and hospitality seen as part of the same industry?
13. List all the possible jobs in tourism that you can think of (*30 seconds?*)
14. List all the possible jobs in hospitality that you can think of (*30 seconds?*)
15. What are the positive aspects of (these) industries?
16. What about the negative aspects?
17. Imagine that you were promoting careers in tourism and/or hospitality:
 - ❖ How do you think the(se) industry(ies) should be promoted?
 - ❖ Write down the aspects that you would want to see addressed/altered, in order to attract more people into the industry

Specific Topic Guide for Peer Groups

1. What subjects/courses are you doing at the moment? *(If any students are doing GNVQ ask if the others know what that involves)*
2. What do you want to do when you leave school *(job, FE, university, stay or leave local area) ?*
3. Have you always wanted to be a...../go to.....?
4. What do you want from a career? What attracts you *(money, travel, glamour, etc.)?*
Tell me about your ideal job
5. What work experience/placements and careers advice have you had so far? *(has it been useful/enjoyable/satisfactory? etc.)* PART-TIME/SUMMER JOBS?
6. Who else would you ask for/Where else would you get advice on different careers *(parents, friends, careers advisors, teachers, etc.)?*
7. Who do you actually listen to when you ask/receive advice?
8. Who or what has a big influence on you, in terms of what you want to do in the future?
9. Do you watch any of the real-life TV programmes about the tourism and hospitality industry *(e.g.: hotel, airline, airport, pleasure beach, etc.)* FOLLOW UP Do they put you off working in the industry or attract you?
10. Do you have the same ideas as your parents about your future careers or what you are going to do when you leave school?
11. List of career areas. Which would you consider (Yes/Maybe/No)?
12. What about tourism and/or hospitality?
13. Why?

14. How might people describe the tourism industry?
15. What about the hospitality industry?/Do you understand the word “hospitality”?
16. Are tourism and hospitality seen as part of the same industry?
17. List all the possible tourism jobs that you can think of (30 seconds?)
18. List all the possible hospitality jobs that you can think of (30 seconds?)
19. How would you describe the people who do these jobs? (gives prompts if necessary:
educated, common sense, left school at 16, unskilled, glamorous, well-travelled, outgoing, clever, male, female, boring, serious, well-paid, badly paid, fun-loving, ordinary, like to change jobs/place of work, want a job for life, like meeting people, etc.....)
20. What are the positive aspects of (these) industries?
21. What about the negative aspects?
22. Imagine that you are promoting careers in tourism and/or hospitality:
 - ◆ How do you think the(se) industry(ies) should be promoted? Write down particular aspects that should be highlighted. Why have you chosen these particular ones?
 - ◆ Write down the aspects that you would want to see changed/addressed to encourage more people into the industry

Question 11: List of Career Areas

Which of the following career areas would you consider? *(Do not think too much about each specific career area - just give your immediate response)*

Please tick the relevant box

CAREER AREA	YES	MAYBE	NO
Agriculture			
Armed Services			
Banking & Finance			
Beauty & Hairdressing			
Construction			
Engineering			
Fashion			
Hospitality			
Information Technology			
Journalism			
Law			
Medicine & Dentistry			
Music			
Nursing			
Performing Arts			
Police/Emergency Services			
Social Work			
Sport & Fitness			
Teaching			
Tourism			
Veterinary Medicine			
Other (Please state).....			

(Adapted from COIC "Working In Series" 1999)

Question 17

List all the possible tourism jobs that you can think of (30 seconds)

Question 18

List all the possible hospitality jobs that you can think of (30 seconds)

Question 19

How would you describe the people who do some of the jobs that have been mentioned?

Question 22

- **Imagine that you are promoting careers in tourism and hospitality to other young people like yourself. How do you think these industries should be promoted? What aspects would you highlight? Why?**
- **Write down the aspects that you would want to see changed/addressed to encourage more people into the industry**

Specific Topic Guide – Career Co-ordinators (Schools)

1. What is your role within the school, in terms of careers?
2. How do you provide career advice to school students on a group basis?
3. What about individually?
4. How do you gather such a range of information on different careers?
5. Typically, what sort of things might school students ask you regarding careers?
6. Who do you think school students listen to regarding careers?
7. From your experience, have you found huge differences in career desirability? Do you think there are “cycles”, when some careers seem more “fashionable” than others?
8. What about tourism and/or hospitality? How prominently do they feature?
9. Why do you think that is?
10. How might people describe the tourism industry?
11. What about the hospitality industry?
12. Are tourism and hospitality seen as part of the same industry?
13. List all the possible jobs in tourism that you can think of (*30 seconds?*)
14. List all the possible jobs in hospitality that you can think of (*30 seconds?*)
15. What are the positive aspects of (these) industries?
16. What about the negative aspects?
17. Imagine that you were promoting careers in tourism and/or hospitality:
 - ❖ How do you think the(se) industry(ies) should be promoted?
 - ❖ Write down the aspects that you would want to see addressed/altered, in order to attract more people into the industry

Our ref: 1.1/2000
13 November 2000

Dear Parent/Guardian

Your Children's Career Choices

There is nothing more important than your children's choice of career, as the choices they make are vital in order for them to fulfil their potential and achieve their ambitions. Therefore, it is extremely important to collect information in order to inform the professions who are involved in the process of advising children on their career choices, as well as informing employers to try and ensure a better 'fit' between children's career aspirations and the career opportunities available.

This questionnaire seeks to obtain parents' views on the career choices of their children and to identify the importance of various factors in relation to career choices. I am based in the School of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure at the University of Wales Institute, Cardiff and this is an independent research project being undertaken with co-operation from ***** High School.

I would be most grateful if you could complete this questionnaire **in relation to the child who brought it home from school** and give it to that child to return to the school in the envelope provided, where there is a designated box for completed questionnaires, **within 10 days of receiving the questionnaire**. Some families may have more than one child in the eligible Year Groups, therefore, you may complete a separate questionnaire for each child. It should only take 10-15 minutes of your time to complete and will provide valuable information. There are no right or wrong answers and all responses are completely anonymous and confidential.

Completed questionnaires that are **returned** will have the opportunity to be entered into a:

National prize draw for the children to win:

ONE of FOUR CD STEREO RADIO CASSETTE PLAYERS or the:
STAR PRIZE - A PERSONAL MINIDISC PLAYER.

Please contact me if you would like to discuss any aspect of the research or this questionnaire.

Yours sincerely

Claire Haven

Telephone: 029 2041 6320/6315

Email: chaven@uwic.ac.uk

YOUR CHILDREN'S CAREER CHOICES

Please complete this questionnaire in relation to the child who brought it home from school

1. What is the Year Group and gender of the child that this questionnaire relates to? *(Please tick one box only)*

Year 10	
Male	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Year 11	
Male	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Year 12	
Male	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Are you aware of any careers education and guidance that your child has received at school? *(Please tick one box only)*

Yes ☐ No ☐

3. i) In your opinion, how do you rate **EACH** of the following as being influential to your child's career choices? *(Please tick the box that is closest to your opinion. The scale has five points ranging from 5: highly influential, to 1: no influence)*

	Highly Influential	Influential	No Opinion	Slightly Influential	No Influence
Yourself (Parent/Guardian)	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Brothers/Sisters	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Other family members	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Family friends	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
School friends	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
School-based career co-ordinator	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Subject teachers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Career adviser/career service company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Television	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Newspapers & magazines	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Careers literature	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Work experience	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

ii) If you rate yourself as influential or highly influential, in what career areas might you try to direct your child? **(Please state)**

4. i) Have you noticed that your child's career choices have changed as they have got older? *(Please tick one box only)*

Yes ☐ No ☐

ii) If **YES**, in your opinion, please rate the degree to which you agree or disagree with **EACH** of the following statements: *(Please tick the box that is closest to your opinion. The scale has five points ranging from 5:strongly agree, to 1:strongly disagree)*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
They have found out more information about different career opportunities	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
They have become more realistic about the career opportunities available to them	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
They have higher aspirations and have become more ambitious	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

Continued.....

Q.4 ii) Continued:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
They want to incorporate particular interests and hobbies into their career	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
They have been influenced by the career choices of family members	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
They have been influenced by experiences gained through their work experience	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
They want to obtain formal qualifications to improve their career prospects	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
They have been influenced by the career choices of their friends	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

5. Please rate the degree to which you agree or disagree with EACH of the following statements (Please tick the box that is closest to your opinion. The scale has five points ranging from 5:strongly agree, to 1:strongly disagree)

A "career" is:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A route with direction and purpose	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A frequent change of career areas with variation being the main motivation	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A job for life	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a persons life	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A lifetimes commitment to an occupation	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Social mobility/Moving up the 'social ladder'	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A series of promotions in one particular occupation	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A series of different occupations that build upon past skills and experience	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A vocation – matching personality with an occupation	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

6. How many times do you think your child might change career areas in their working life (e.g: from the Army to Teaching)? (Please tick one box only)

None ☐ 1-3 times ☐ 4-6 times ☐ 6+ times ☐ Don't know ☐

7. In your opinion, how important do you think EACH of the following are when choosing a career: (Please tick the box that is closest to your opinion. The scale has five points ranging from 5: extremely important, to 1:extremely unimportant)

	Extremely Important	Important	No Opinion	Not Very Important	Not Important At All
International travel?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
High income?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Credibility?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Recognition as a profession?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Working in an outdoor environment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Interest and enjoyment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Promotional opportunities?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Teamwork?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Formal qualifications?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Responsibility?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Language skills?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Glamorous image?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Career progression?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Working in an office?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Initiative?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

Continued.....

Qu.7 Continued:

	Extremely Important	Important	No Opinion	Not Very Important	Not Important At All
Ability to deal with unplanned events?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Job security?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Training opportunities?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Working 9am-5pm weekday hours?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Variety?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Social interaction?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Working in a challenging and dynamic environment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

8. i) From the following list, please tick ONE box to indicate the career area in which you have spent the majority of your working life AND;
 ii) Select THREE career areas, which you would be happy with your child entering and rate them as: 1st choice, 2nd choice and 3rd choice.

Career Area:	Your Career Area	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice
Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Armed Services	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Banking & Finance	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Beauty & Hairdressing	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Construction	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Engineering	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Fashion	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Hospitality	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Information Technology	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Journalism	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Law	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Medicine & Dentistry	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Music	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Nursing	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Performing Arts	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Police/Emergency Services	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Retailing	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Social Work	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Sport & Fitness	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Teaching	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Tourism	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Veterinary Medicine	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Other (Please state)				

9. Do you have any personal experience of working in the tourism and hospitality sector? (Please tick one box only)

No experience ☐ Seasonal/Casual employment ☐ Part-time employment ☐
 Full-time employment ☐ Full-time supervisory ☐ Full-time managerial ☐
 Self-employed ☐

Continued.....

10. For **ALL** of the following statements, please indicate to what extent you think a career in the tourism and hospitality industry would provide:
(Please tick the box that is closest to your opinion. The scale has five points ranging from 5:strongly agree, to 1:strongly disagree)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Benefits (e.g.: discounts, uniform)?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
International travel?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
High income?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Credibility?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Work in a recognised profession?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Working unsociable hours?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Interest and enjoyment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Good promotional opportunities?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Teamwork?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Unskilled employment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A demand for formal qualifications?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Responsibility at a fairly young age?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Seasonal employment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
The ability to use language skills?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
A glamorous image?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Career progression?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Low prestige?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Developing and using initiative?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Developing the ability to deal with unplanned events?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Hard work?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Job security?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Training opportunities?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Working long hours?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Skilled employment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Variety?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Low income?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Social interaction?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Work in a challenging and dynamic environment?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

Continued.....

11 If you wish to be entered in the **PRIZE DRAWS**, please provide your **contact details**:

Name:

Address:

Telephone/Fax number:

E-mail:

Child's Name:

12 Please tick the box if you are willing to be interviewed about this topic:

☐

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Ein Cyf: 1.1/2000
Tachwedd 13 2000

Annwyl Riant/Warchodwr

Dewis Gyrfaol Eich Plant

Does dim pwysicach na dewis eich plant o yrfa, gan fod eu dewisiadau yn hanfodol bwysig er mwyn iddynt gyrraedd eu potensial a chyflawni eu huchelgeisiau. Felly, mae'n bwysig casglu gwybodaeth i hysbysu'r proffesiynau sydd yn ymwneud â'r broses o gynghori plant ar eu dewis o yrfa, ynghyd ag hysbysu cyflogwyr wrth geisio sicrhau gwell 'asiad' rhwng dyheadau gyrfaol plant a'r cyfleoedd gyrfaol ar gael i blant.

Mae'r holiadur hwn yn ceisio cael barn rhieni ar ddewis eu plant o yrfa ac i ganfod pwysigrwydd ffactorau amrywiol mewn perthynas â dewis o yrfa. Mae fy swyddfa yn Ysgol Lletygarwch, Twristiaeth, a Hamdden yn Athrofa Prifysgol Cymru Caerdydd a phrosiect ymchwil annibynnol yw hwn mewn cydweithrediad ag Ysgol Uwchradd

Byddwn yn ddiolchgar iawn petaech yn cwblhau'r holiadur **sy'n berthnasol i'r plentyn ddaeth ag ef adref o'r ysgol** a'i roi i'r plentyn hwnnw i'w ddychwelyd i'r ysgol yn yr amlen amgäedig, lle ceir bocs penodol i roi'r holidaduron sydd wedi'u cwblhau, **o fewn 10 diwrnod o dderbyn yr holiadur hwn**. Efallai bod gan rai teuluoedd fwy nag un plentyn yn y Grwpiau Blwyddyn. Felly cewch gwblhau holiadur ar wahan i bob plentyn. Dim ond 10-15 munud o'ch amser dylai gymeryd i'w gwblhau a bydd yn rhoi gwybodaeth werthfawr. Nid oes atebion cywir nac anghywir ac mae pob ymateb yn gwbl ddiennw a chyfrinachol.

Caiff yr holiadurol **sydd wedi'u cwblhau** a'u **dychwelyd** y cyfle i fod mewn:
Raffl Genedlaethol a chyfle i'r plant ennill:

UN o BEDAIR UNED RADIO/CASET STEREO CD neu'r:
WOBR FAWR - CHWARAEYDD MINIDDISG PERSONOL

Cysylltwch â mi os gwelwch yn dda, petaech yn dymuno trafod unrhyw agwedd o'r ymchwil neu'r holiadur hwn.

Yr eiddoch yn gywir

Claire Haven

Ffôn: 029 2041 6320/6315

E-bost: chaven@uwic.ac.uk

DEWIS GYRFAOL EICH PLANT

Cwblhewch yr holiadur sydd yn berthnasol i'r plentyn ddaeth ag ef adref o'r ysgol

1. Nodwch Grwp Blwyddyn a Rhyw y plentyn y mae'r holiadur yn berthnasol iddo/iddi? (Ticiwch un blwch yn unig)

BI 10	
Gwryw	Benyw

BI 11	
Gwryw	Benyw

BI 12	
Gwryw	Benyw

2. Ydych chi'n ymwybodol o unrhyw addysg a chyfarwyddyd gyrfaedd mae eich plentyn wedi eu derbyn yn yr ysgol? (Ticiwch un blwch yn unig)

Ydw ☐ Nac ydw ☐

3. i) Yn eich barn chi, pa mor ddylanwadol ydych chi'n ystyried POB UN o'r canlynol yn newis gyrfaol eich plentyn? (Ticiwch y blwch agosaf at eich barn. Mae'n raddfa bum pwynt yn ymestyn o 5: dylanwadol iawn i 1: dim dylanwad)

	Dylanwadol iawn	Dylanwadol	Ddim Barn	Peth Dylanwad	Dim Dylanwad
Eich hunan (Rhiant/Warchodwr)	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Brodyr/Chwiorydd	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Aelodau eraill o'r teulu	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Ffrindiau'r teulu	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Ffrindiau ysgol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cydlynnydd gyrfaedd yr ysgol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Athrawon pwnc	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cynghorydd gyrfaedd/gwmni gwasanaethau gyrfaedd	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Teledu	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Papurau newydd a chylchgronau	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Llenyddiaeth gyrfaol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Profiad gwaith	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁

ii) Os ydych yn ystyried eich bod yn ddylanwadol neu'n ddylan wadol iawn, i ba feysydd y byddech chi'n ceisio cyfeirio eich plentyn? (nodwch)

4. i) Ydych chi wedi sylwi bod dewisiadau gyrfaol eich plentyn wedi newid gydag amser yn ôl eu hoed? (Ticiwch un blwch yn unig)

Ydw ☐ Nac ydw ☐

ii) Os YDW, yn eich barn chi, i ba raddau ydych chi'n cytuno neu'n anghytuno gyda PHOB UN o'r gosodiadau canlynol: (Ticiwch y blwch agosaf at eich barn. Mae'n raddfa bum pwynt yn ymestyn o 5: cytuno'n gryf i 1: anghytuno'n gryf)

	Cytuno'n Gryf	Cytuno	Ddim Barn	Anghytun o	Anghytuno'n Gryf
Maen nhw wedi cywain mwy o wybodaeth am gyfleoedd gyrfaol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Maen nhw wedi dod yn fwy realistig am y cyfleoedd ar gael	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Mae ganddyn nhw ddisgwyliadau uwch ac mae'n nhw'n fwy uchelgeisiol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Maen nhw eisiau ymgorffori diddordebau a hobiau arbennig yn eu gyrfaedd	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁

Drosodd.....

Q.4 ii) Parhâd:

Maen nhw wedi cael eu dylanwadu gan ddewis
gyrfaol aelodau o'r teulu
Maen nhw wedi cael eu dylanwadu gan brofiadau a
gafwyd ar brofiad gwaith
Maen nhw eisiau ennill cymwysterau ffurfiol i wella
eu siawns am swydd
Maen nhw wedi cael eu dylanwadu gan ddewis
gyrfaol eu ffrindiau

Cytuno'n Gryf	Cytuno	Ddim Barn	Anghytuno	Anghytuno'n Gryf
<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁

5. Nodwch i ba raddau ydych chi'n cytuno neu'n anghytuno gyda **PHOB UN** o'r gosodiadau canlynol:
(Ticiwch y blwch agosaf at eich barn. Mae'n raddfa bum pwynt yn ymestyn o 5: cytuno'n gryf i 1: anghytuno'n gryf)

"Gyrfa" yw:

	Cytuno'n Gryf	Cytuno	Ddim Barn	Anghytuno	Anghytuno'n Gryf
Ffordd ag iddi gyfeiriad a phwrpas	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Newid aml o feysydd gyrfaol a'r prif gymhelliad yw amrywiaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Swydd am oes	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Patrwm o brofiadau yn ymwneud â gwaith sydd yn ymestyn dros gwrs bywyd person	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Ymroddiad oes i swydd	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Mudoledd cymdeithasol/Dringo'r ysgol gymdeithasol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cyfes o ddrychafiadau mewn swydd benodol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cyfes o swyddi gwahanol sy'n adeiladu ar sgiliau a phrofiadau blaenorol	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Galwedigaeth -paru swydd â phersonoliaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁

6. Sawl gwaith ydych chi'n meddwl y bydd eich plentyn yn newid meysydd gyrfaol yn ystod eu cyfnod gweithio (e.e: o'r Fyddin i Addysgu)? (Ticiwch un blwch yn unig)

Byth ☐ 1-3 gwaith ☐ 4-6 gwaith ☐ 6+ gwaith ☐ Ddim yn gwybod ☐

7. Yn eich barn chi pa mor bwysig ydych chi'n ystyried **POB UB** o'r gosodiadau canlynol wrth ddewis gyrfa:
(Ticiwch y blwch agosaf at eich barn. Mae'n raddfa bum pwynt yn ymestyn o 5: pwysig iawn i 1: ddim yn bwysig o gwbl)

	Pwysig Iawn	Pwysig	Ddim Barn	Ddim yn Bwysig Iawn	Ddim yn Bwysig o Gwbl
Teithio rhyngwladol?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Incwm uchel?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Hygrededd?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Proffesiwn cydnabyddedig?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Gweithio yn yr awyr agored?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Diddordeb a mwynhâd?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cyfleoedd dyrchafiad?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Gwaith tîm?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cymwysterau ffurfiol?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Cyfrifoldebau?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Sgiliau iaith?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Delwedd gyfareddol?	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁

Drosodd.....

Qu. 7 Parhâd:

	Pwysig lawn	Pwysig	Ddim Barn	Ddim yn Bwysig lawn	Ddim yn Bwysig o Gwbl
Datblygiad gyrfa?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio mewn swydfa?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Blaengaredd?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gallu delio â digwyddiadau annisgwyl?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Sefydlogrwydd swydd?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Cyfleoedd hyfforddiant?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio o 9 tan 5 Llun i Gwener?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Amrywiaeth?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Rhyngweithio cymdeithasol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio mewn amgylchedd heriol a deinamig?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

8. i) O'r rhestr ganlynol, ticiwch UN bocs i nodi'r maes gyrfaol yr ydych chi wedi treulio'r rhan fwyaf o'ch oes gwaith A

ii) Dewiswch DRI maes gyrfaol y byddech chi'n hapus i weld eich plentyn yn ymwneud â nhw a gosodwch nhw yn ddewis 1af, 2ail, a 3ydd dewis:

Maes Gyrfaol	Eich Maes Gyrfaol	Dewis 1af	2ail ddewis	3ydd dewis
Amaethyddiaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Lluoedd Arfog	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Bancio a Chyllid	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Harddwch a Thrin gwallt	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Adeiladu	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Peirianeg	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Ffasiwn	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Lletygarwch	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Technoleg Gwybodaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Newyddiaduraeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Y Gyfraith	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Meddygaeth a Deintyddiaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Cerddoriaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Nyrsio	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Celfyddydau Perfformio	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Heddlu/Gwasanaethau Argyfwng	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Mânwerthu	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Gwaith Cymdeithasol	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Chwaraeon a Ffitrwydd	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Addysgu	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Twristiaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Milfeddygaeth	<input type="checkbox"/> 0	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Arall (Nodwch)				

Drosodd.....

9. Oes profiad personol gennych o weithio yn y sector twristiaeth a lletygarwch? (Ticiwch un bocs yn unig)

Dim profiad ☐ Gwaith tymhorol/achlysurol ☐ Gwaith rhan amser ☐
 Gwaith llawn amser ☐ Gwaith arolygu llawn amser ☐ Gwaith rheoli llawn amser ☐
 Hunan gyflogedig ☐

10. O'r **HOLL** osodiadau canlynol, nodwch i ba raddau yr ydych chi'n credu y byddai gyrfa yn niwydiant twristiaeth a lletygarwch yn darparu: (Ticiwch y blwch agosaf at eich barn. Mae'n raddfa bum pwynt yn ymestyn o 5: cytuno'n gryf i 1: anghytuno'n gryf)

	Cytuno'n Gryf	Cytuno	Ddim Barn	Anghytuno	Anghytuno'n Gryf
Manteision (e,e gostyngiadau, dillad)?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Teithio rhyngwladol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Incwm uchel?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Hygrededd?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio mewn proffesiwn cydnabyddedig?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio oriau anghymdeithasol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Diddordeb a mwynhâd?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Cyfleoedd dyrchafiad da?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gwaith tîm?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gwaith heb sgil?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Y galw am gymwysterau ffurfiol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Cyfrifoldeb yn gymharol ifanc?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gwaith tymhorol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Y gallu i ddefnyddio sgiliau iaith?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Delwedd ddeniadol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Cynnydd gyrfaol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gwaith isel ei barch?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Datblygu a defnyddio blaengaredd?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Datblygu'r gallu i ddelio â digwyddiadau annisgwyl?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gwaith caled?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Sefydlogrwydd gwaith?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Cyfleoedd hyfforddiant?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio oriau hir?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Swydd gyda sgil?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Amrywiaeth?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Incwm isel?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Rhyngweithio cymdeithasol?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Gweithio mewn amgylchedd heriol a deinamig?	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

Drosodd.....

11 Os dymunwch gael eich cynnwys yn y RAFFLAU, rhowch fanylion sut i gysylltu â chi:

Enw:

Cyfeiriad:

Ffôn/Rhif ffacs:

E-bost:

Enw'r Plentyn:

12 Tasech chi'n fodlon cael eich cyfweld ar y pwnc yma, ticiwch y bocs:

☐

DIOLCH AM DREULIO EICH AMSER YN CWBLHAU'R HOLIADUR

QUALITATIVE PHASE - FIELDWORK 1999:
Schools & Career Service Companies

REGION	<u>Sch/1: Focus Groups & Individual Interviews</u> Career Co-ordinator Peer Groups (Yrs 10,11,12)	<u>Sch/2: Individual Interviews</u> Career Co-ordinator	Career Service Companies: Focus Groups
SOUTH	Fitzalan High School (Sch/1) – <i>DECLINED</i> Cantonian High School - (Sch/1.1)	Bishop of Llandaff (Sch/2a) St Teilo's (Sch/2b) Llanishen (Sch/2c)	Careerpaths (Cardiff and the Vale)
WEST	Tasker Milward VC Comprehensive (Sch/1.2)	Milford Haven Comprehensive (Sch/2.2a) Pembroke School (Sch/2.2b)	Dyfed Careers Company
MID	Llandrindod High School (Sch/1.3)	Llanidloes High School – <i>DECLINED</i> (Sch/2.3a) Caereinion High School (Sch/2.3.1a) Newtown High School (Sch/2.3b)	Powys Careers Guidance Service
NORTH	Prestatyn High School (Sch/1.4)		The Careers Company

PILOT (Peer Group) = Focus Group with Year 12 students on a GNVQ (Advanced) Leisure & Tourism course at Milford Haven Comprehensive School – 06/10/99

Respondent Codes & Dates:
Career Co-ordinators

SWCC1 = South Wales Career Co-ordinator 1 Bishop of Llandaff (01.09.99)

SWCC2 = South Wales Career Co-ordinator 2 Llanishen High School (07.09.99)

SWCC3 = South Wales Career Co-ordinator 3 St. Teilo's Church in Wales School (22.09.99)

SWCC4 = South Wales Career Co-ordinator 4 Cantonian High School (14.10.99)

WWCC1 = West Wales Career Co-ordinator 1 Pembroke School (23.09.99)

WWCC2 = West Wales Career Co-ordinator 2 Milford Haven Comprehensive (06.10.99)

WWCC3 = West Wales Career Co-ordinator 3 Tasker Milward VC Comprehensive (15.10.99)

MWCC1 = Mid Wales Career Co-ordinator 1 Caereinion High School (30.09.99)

MWCC2 = Mid Wales Career Co-ordinator 2 Newtown High School (30.09.99)
MWCC3 = Mid Wales Career Co-ordinator 3 = Llandrindod High School (25.11.99)
NWCC1 = North Wales Career Co-ordinator 1 = Prestatyn High School (17.11.99)

Career Advisers

SWCAD = South Wales – Careerpaths (13.10.99)
WWCAD = West Wales – Dyfed Careers (29.09.99)
MWCAD = Mid Wales – Powys Careers Guidance Service (20.09.99)
NWCAD = North Wales – The Careers Company (17.11.99)

Peer Groups (School Students)

SWPGYr10 - Cantonian High School (14.10.99)
SWPGYr11
SWPGYr12
WWPGYr10 - Tasker Milward VC Comprehensive (15.10.99)
WWPGYr11
WWPGYr12
MWPGYr10 - Llandrindod High School (25.11.99)
MWPGYr11
MWPGYr12
NWPGYr10 - Prestatyn High School (17.11.99)
NWPGYr11
NWPGYr12

QUANTITATIVE PHASE – FIELDWORK 2000:
Questionnaire Diary & Alterations

Pilot 1

Date	School	Activity
22 June 2000	Fitzalan	Distributed pilot questionnaires
18 October 2000	Fitzalan	Completed questionnaires returned (3/55)

Alterations 23-25 October 2000

Pilot 2

Date	School	Activity
26-30 October 2000	In-house (UWIC)	Distributed second pilot questionnaires (snowballing)
7 November 2000	In-house (UWIC)	Completed questionnaires returned (24/35)

Alterations 7-9 November (including Welsh translation)

Final Questionnaire

Date	School	Activity
13 November 2000	Bishop of Llandaff St Teilo's	Distributed questionnaires
14 November 2000	Pembroke Milford Haven Tasker Milward	Distributed questionnaires
16 November 2000	Newtown Caereinion	Distributed questionnaires
17 November 2000	Prestatyn Glan Clwyd Llandrindod	Distributed questionnaires
2 schools still remaining: Cantonian & Llanishen		
20 November 2000	All 10 schools that received questionnaires in previous week	Reminder 1: Letter thanking them for agreeing to distribute and reminding of time-scale.
21 November 2000	Llanishen Cantonian	Distributed questionnaires
22 November 2000	Last 2 schools	Reminder 1: Letter thanking them for agreeing to distribute and reminding of time-scale.
28-29 November 2000	All 10 schools that received questionnaires between 13-17 November 2000	Reminder 2: Telephoned to confirm retrieval of questionnaires in week commencing 4 December 2000
4-8 December 2000	All 10 schools that received questionnaires between 13-17 November 2000	Collection of completed questionnaires
2 schools still remaining: Cantonian & Llanishen		

Alterations:

Pilot 1

- ❖ Question 4 – wording altered
- ❖ Question 8i and 8ii amalgamated with question 9. Your career area and 1st, 2nd and 3rd career choices
- ❖ Inserted attitudinal scale headings over page

Pilot 2

- ❖ Additional instruction: fill in more than 1 questionnaire if more than 1 child in eligible Year Group. Removed child/children reference, just referred to child. This was a fundamental design issue, as when some respondents reached question 8 (which 3 career areas?). Some respondents found it difficult to answer this question if they had more than one child in the eligible Year Groups. Therefore, instructions changed to complete this questionnaire in relation to the child who brought it home from school and you may complete more than one questionnaire. Some respondents still may not complete question 8, as some stated that they would be happy with whatever career area their child/children select, as long as the child/children are happy.
- ❖ Question 1 – changed wording
- ❖ Question 3ii – altered wording
- ❖ Question 6 – condensed choices, as respondents tended to select 1-3 or 4-6 times.
- ❖ Question 8iii and 8iv – deleted. Redundant question
- ❖ Questions 11 and 12 – deleted. Only existed in pilot stage to establish if respondents had other positive or negative aspects to contribute. Either not completed (no new aspects or questionnaire fatigue) or selected aspects already mentioned. Therefore, nothing fundamentally different to the positive and negative aspects generated in the qualitative stage.
- ❖ Final instructions – contact details to be entered in Prize Draw. Tick box to be interviewed.

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