

# **An Exploratory Study of the Progress of Hospitality Graduates' Career Pathways in New Zealand**

**K. D. Mario Sanjay G. Basnayake**

This dissertation is submitted to  
Auckland University of Technology  
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of International Hospitality Management

**2021**

**School of Hospitality and Tourism  
Auckland University of Technology**

## **Attestation of Authorship**

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the qualification of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning, except where due acknowledgement is made in the acknowledgements.

Signed:

K. D. Mario G.S. Basnayake

February 2021

## **Acknowledgements**

First and foremost, praise and thanks to God, the Almighty, for his showers of blessings throughout my research work in order to successfully complete this dissertation.

Throughout my time working on this dissertation I was given great support. I would like to express my deep gratitude to Dr David Williamson and Professor Peter Kim, my research supervisors, for their patient guidance, enthusiastic encouragement and useful critiques of my research work. I would also like to thank you for all your advice and assistance in keeping my work on schedule.

I would also like to thank Gina Harrap, for encouraging me to start studying towards a master's programme when I started working at AUT. This experience will be very valuable for my career.

Finally, I would like to thank my loving and supportive wife, Germaine, who encouraged me to start studying towards this master's programme and all the support and encouragement given to me throughout this long journey. It was a great comfort and relief that you were willing to manage all the household management activities while I was committed to completing this dissertation.

## **Abstract**

While the hospitality industry is continuously growing, it faces critical problems. One main problem is retaining qualified hospitality graduates. This research explores the demographics and career pathways of hospitality graduates from a university in Auckland, New Zealand. The research comprises graduates' employment during and after their studies; promotions; job mobility; tenure of employment; year of graduation; and leaving the hospitality industry. Previous research reveals that many hospitality graduates leave the industry after graduating which is a concerning issue.

The research was conducted using quantitative methods. The LinkedIn career website was used to collect data from hospitality graduates' profiles. The findings indicate that 80% of students were employed during their studies, of which 66% were employed in the hospitality sector, and 74% of graduates were employed in the hospitality sector after graduating. The findings also show that more female graduates studied hospitality management and left the hospitality industry for other employment. Male graduates worked longer in the hospitality industry. Graduates' work experience may have a strong influence towards a career in hospitality. The mobility of graduates, promotions, and length of stay in the hospitality industry are key points of this study.

This research concluded that 68% of graduates continued to work in the hospitality sector and 32% of graduates left the hospitality sector for other employment. These results can provide vital information for hospitality industry practitioners and hospitality education providers to help graduates' career development in the hospitality industry.

## Table of Contents

Attestation of Authorship.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Chapter 1 Introduction .....	1
1.1 The Hospitality Industry .....	1
1.2 Rationale and Research Gap .....	4
1.3 Research Aim.....	4
1.4 Research Questions.....	5
1.5 Methodology.....	5
1.6 Dissertation Overview .....	5
2.1 The Global Hospitality Industry .....	7
2.2 New Zealand Tourism and Hospitality Industry .....	8
2.3 The Importance of Higher education in the Hospitality Industry .....	10
2.7 Why Such High turnover?.....	14
2.10 Influences of Internships on Students’ Careers.....	18
2.11 How Do Students decide on Career?.....	19
2.15 Career Mobility in the Hospitality Industry .....	23
3.1 Research Aim .....	25
3.8 Research Approaches .....	28
3.11 Quantitative Research .....	31
Frequency Distribution Analysis .....	36
Cross Tabulation Analysis.....	36
Chi-Square Tests.....	36
6.2 Summary of Key Research Findings.....	93
2. Employment Sector During Studies .....	94
3. Employment Sector After Graduation .....	94
4. Roles Entered in the Hospitality Sector.....	94
6. Job Advancement at First Place of Employment.....	95
8. Leaving the Hospitality Industry .....	96
9. Comparing Female and Male Graduates .....	96
10. Comparing Domestic and International Graduates .....	96
Appendix.....	101
Figure A-1. Graduates’ employment sector during studies .....	101

Hai-yan, K. and Baum, T. (2006), "Skills and work in the hospitality sector: The case of hotel front office employees in China", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 18 No. 6, pp. 509-518 ..... 120  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/095961106106815488>..... 120

## List of Figures

Figure 2.1. International visitor arrivals .....	8
Figure 2.2. Tourism employment March 2009–March 2019.....	9
Figure 2.3. Tourism expenditure March 2009–March 2019.....	10
Figure 3.1. Differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods.....	30
Figure 3.2. Formulated research paradigm for this study .....	30
Figure 4.1. Frequency distribution of male and female graduates.....	39
Figure 4.2. Frequency distribution of domestic and international graduates.....	40
Figure 4.3. Cross tabulation of gender and international or domestic graduates.....	40
Figure 4.4. Frequency distribution of graduates’ employment sector during studies.....	41
Figure 4.5. Cross tabulation of graduates’ employment sector during studies and international vs domestic students .....	42
Figure 4.6. Cross tabulation of gender and graduates’ employment sector during studies .....	43
Figure 4.7. Frequency distribution of graduates’ employment sector after graduation..	44
Figure 4.8. Cross tabulation of gender and employment sector after graduating.....	45
Figure 4.9. Cross tabulation of employment sector after graduating for international and domestic graduates.....	46
Figure 4.10. Hospitality sector roles that graduates entered into after graduation .....	47
Figure 4.11. Hospitality sector roles entered into by domestic and international graduates .....	48
Figure 4.12. Gender vs hospitality industry roles that graduates entered.....	49
Figure 4.13. Graduates’ length of stay at first place of employment.....	50
Figure 4.14. Length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality by gender .....	51
Figure 4.15. Length of stay of domestic and international graduates at first place of employment in hospitality.....	52
Figure 4.16. Graduates’ job advancement at first place of employment .....	53
Figure 4.17. Graduates’ gender vs job advancement at first place of employment.....	54
Figure 4.18. Domestic or international graduates’ vs job advancement at first place of employment.....	55
Figure 4.19. Job advancement at first place of employment .....	56
Figure 4.20. Time spent in hospitality after graduating, before leaving hospitality .....	57
Figure 4.21. Domestic and international graduates’ time spent in hospitality after graduating .....	58
Figure 4.22. Graduates time spent in hospitality after graduation by gender .....	59
Figure 4.23. Graduates who stayed in hospitality and who left hospitality.....	60
Figure 4.24. Employment sector during studies and graduates who left the hospitality sector.....	61
Figure 4.25. Year graduated.....	61
Figure 4.26. Employment sector of graduates during their studies and graduation year	63
Figure 4.27. Graduates’ employment sector after graduation vs year graduated .....	64
Figure 4.28. Gender vs year graduated .....	65
Figure 4.29. Year graduated by domestic and international graduates.....	66
Figure 4.30. Year graduated and time spent in hospitality after graduation and before leaving hospitality.....	67

## List of Tables

Table 4.1 .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
Table A-1. Gender vs employment sector during studies.....	111
Table A-2. Gender vs employment sector during studies (chi-square).....	111
Table A-3. Gender vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation.....	111
Table A-4. Gender vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation (chi-square)	112
Table A-5. Gender vs time spent in hospitality after graduation, before leaving hospitality.....	112
Table A-6. Gender vs time spent in hospitality after graduation, before leaving hospitality (chi-square).....	112
Table A-7. Employment sector during studies vs year graduated.....	113
Table A-8. Employment sector during studies vs year graduated (chi-square).....	113
Table A.9. Employment sector during studies vs employment sector after graduation.	113
Table A.10. Employment sector during studies vs employment sector after graduation (chi-square).....	114
Table A.11. Employment sector after graduation vs length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality.....	114
Table A.12. Employment sector after graduation vs length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality (chi-square).....	114
Table A.13. Employment sector after graduation vs any advancement at first place of employment in hospitality.....	115
Table A.14. Employment sector after graduation vs any advancement at first place of employment in hospitality (chi-square).....	115
Table A-15. Employment sector after graduation vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation.....	116
Table A-16. Employment sector after graduation vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation (chi-square).....	116
Table A-17. Employment sector after graduation vs left hospitality sector.....	116

Table A-18. Employment sector after graduation vs left hospitality sector  
(chi-square).....117

Table A-19. Employment sector during studies vs left hospitality sector.....117

Table A-20. Employment sector during studies vs left hospitality sector  
(chi-square).....117

## **Chapter 1 Introduction**

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore the career pathways of hospitality management graduates in New Zealand. This study was conducted with the Bachelor of International Hospitality Management graduates who graduated from Auckland University of Technology (AUT). Auckland University of Technology is the only university in New Zealand who offer this programme of study.

Firstly, this chapter will discuss about the growth of the global hospitality industry, the hospitality industry of New Zealand, the demand for qualified hospitality workers and the effects of COVID-19 pandemic. Secondly, the negative impacts of hospitality employment in New Zealand and in many other countries are discussed followed by the importance of training, internship/work experience and retaining qualified workers. Thirdly, promotions and job mobility of graduates are discussed followed by importance of attracting youth to join the hospitality industry as a career. Next, the rationale and research gap for this study is explained followed by the research aim and research questions of this study. Finally, this chapter will conclude with an outline of this study's methodology and dissertation overview.

### **1.1 The Hospitality Industry**

The number of people intending to travel around the globe was increasing and the hospitality sector was preparing to accommodate these travellers (Robinson et al., 2016). This increase was halted in February 2020 when COVID-19 was declared as a global pandemic. Hospitality and tourism organisations were the worst affected industries from this pandemic. Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016) state that this previous rapid growth made the hospitality and tourism industry a major employment sector around the globe. There were 3.88 million international tourists who visited New Zealand in 2019 (Statistics New Zealand, 2019). Harkison et al. (2011) identified that the hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing industries in New Zealand. Seymour (2000) notes that the growth of the global hospitality industry has changed because of how hospitality work is viewed. Due to this high growth of the hospitality sector, there is a huge demand for qualified hospitality workers (Harkison et al., 2011; Williamson, 2017). The hospitality industry in New Zealand, and in many other countries, negatively impacts low-level employees and hospitality organisations. Low pay is the main issue for employees and high turnover is the main issue for many hospitality organisations. Some other issues of concern in employment in hospitality are low status, poor working conditions, no

minimum qualifications required, casual and part-time work, and mostly young, students, females and migrants are attracted to hospitality work (Poulston, 2008, 2009). Mkono (2010) comments that long working hours are part of working in the hospitality industry. As stated by Haldorai et al. (2019), the 24/7 operation of the hospitality industry can create a lot of stress for many employees and can even affect employees' personal lives. Many of these concerns may lead to high staff turnover, which is a common occurrence in the hospitality industry (Anvari & Seliman, 2010).

Lack of investment in training staff, high expectations of high-quality service, and making profits are some of the major issues for hospitality management teams (Poulston, 2008). To overcome many of these issues in the hospitality industry, qualified and skilled hospitality workers are necessary. The hospitality industry cannot meet this demand with the growth of the hospitality education sector alone and must also rely on apprenticeship entry.

Major and Evans (2008) explain that the hospitality industry needs qualified and higher skilled employees, such as university graduates, to handle all roles in the hospitality industry. This new generation of graduates are educated, knowledgeable, and cannot be underestimated to handle all roles in the hospitality industry (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).

Blomme et al. (2010) claim that it is important for hospitality organisations to take the necessary measures to retain these educated and trained graduates. McGinley et al. (2014) argue that a clear career pathway and a positive relationship with employees will help retain educated staff (such as graduates) in organisations. A graduate's internship is very important in how it influences their future career. Good work experiences influence students to continue to work in the hospitality industry after their studies (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008).

When students make their career choices, they look into various options that will suit them. Work experience can help students choose a career. This may help students discover their interests, know what skills are required, and obtain an interest in a certain employment sector for their career (Patah et al., 2010). According to Bubany et al. (2008), students' identified interests are useful when making a career choice. Careers are ongoing relationships between people and their chosen work. There are many theories about careers from many authors. Savickas (2013) explains that a career does not follow a clear path, and an individual will develop according to their work and personal career needs. Wang (2013) posits that career development is a boundaryless career path and a lifelong journey. Many hospitality workers

embark on a self-directed career and many hospitality workers work in large work environments with fast job advancement. Kong et al. (2012) describe that certain competencies are important for career success, such as a positive work attitude. Munar and Montaña (2009) assert that communication and interpersonal skills are vital competencies, while Sewell and Pool (2010) state that innovation, flexibility, and the ability to build good relationships are important career competencies.

Job mobility in the hospitality industry is considered important. Promotions for career success and higher positions can be achieved quickly by moving through organisations frequently (Baum, 2015; Mooney et al., 2016).

Higher wages for hospitality workers may be an attraction and a motivator to choose hospitality as a career (Grobelna & Marciszewska, 2016). Expectations of good wages and promotions may also help a graduate choose hospitality as a lifelong career (Richardson & Thomas, 2012).

O'Neill (2012) maintains that entertainment, luxury, and the positive image of the hospitality industry does not attract youth for long-term careers in the hospitality industry. Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016) note that the hospitality industry, along with other related sectors, need to consider new ways of influencing and attracting the younger generation to choose hospitality as a career choice.

New Zealand tourism statistics provide good reasons for people to decide to study hospitality management and embark on a lifelong career in hospitality. The statistics are very strong and encouraging. However, the COVID-19 pandemic may have some effect on students deciding on a career in the hospitality industry in the short-term.

Globally, the increase of international tourists continued in 2019 to reach 1.5 billion and export revenue from international tourism reached US\$ 1.7 trillion (World Tourism Organisation, 2020). The number of international visitors to New Zealand for the year ending December 2019 was 3.89 million with the total employment in tourism and hospitality close to 400,000 people, and the total spending of domestic and international visitors reaching NZ\$ 40.9 billion to March 2019. This contributed 5.8% to the country's gross domestic production (Statistics New Zealand, 2019). There were 130,000 people employed in the hospitality industry at the end of March 2019 (Restaurant association of New Zealand, 2019). The COVID-19 pandemic around the globe has prevented people from travelling since February 2020, and closed border policies around the world have impacted all industries. Tourism and hospitality related industries are

the worst affected industries in New Zealand and worldwide. The big question is when the borders will open. How many will take the risk of overseas travel in the near future? How will this situation affect hospitality graduates' careers in the future?

## **1.2 Rationale and Research Gap**

The literature in this study mainly focuses on the careers of hospitality employees and employees leaving the hospitality industry. Graduates immediately leaving the hospitality industry after graduating is an area of concern. Poor work experiences during internships and real-world experiences in the hospitality industry are some of the reasons that contribute to graduates leaving (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013; Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). Low pay is another major factor for leaving the hospitality industry (Baum, 2015; Poulston, 2008, 2009). Long working hours, poor work conditions, family life, and negative work experiences during internships are some other reasons for graduates leaving the hospitality industry (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; McIntosh & Harris, 2012; Poulston, 2008, 2009). Hospitality graduates have more chance of being successful and getting higher management positions in hotels. Qualified graduates leaving the industry is a major concern (Blomme et al., 2010). The hospitality industry values experienced employees over graduates for employment opportunities and promotions. This is quite different to the expectations of graduates, who believe that having a degree will be advantageous in securing employment in their chosen careers (Harkison et al., 2011).

Moreover, most studies are based on impacts on hospitality employees' careers and there is no research on career pathways of New Zealand qualified hospitality graduates. It is important to research the career progression of New Zealand hospitality graduates, because many New Zealand institutes offer tertiary qualifications in hospitality. This research was conducted to address this gap and discover the career pathways of New Zealand graduates. This study focuses on hospitality graduates from AUT.

## **1.3 Research Aim**

The aim of this research is to explore the career pathways of hospitality management graduates in New Zealand. This study focuses on one specific qualification, the Bachelor of International Hospitality Management offered by AUT.

This dissertation comprises nine research questions and explores the gender of graduates, domestic vs international graduates, employment patterns during studies, employment after

graduating, career growth in the hospitality industry, how long they stayed in the hospitality industry, and to which employment sectors the hospitality graduates left. The following questions were explored.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

- Which industry sectors were undergraduates employed in during their studies?
- Which industry sectors did graduates choose for full-time employment?
- What roles did graduates obtain to enter the hospitality industry and what roles did they progress into?
- How long did graduates work in their first place of hospitality employment and did they advance within the same organisation or move to other hospitality organisations/sectors?
- What sectors do graduates move into and how long do they spend in hospitality organisations after graduation?
- Was there a difference in career pathways between male and female graduates?
- Was there a difference in career pathways of graduates passed out in different years?
- Was there a difference in career pathways of international vs domestic graduates?
- How do the findings based on the above questions relate to current literature on hospitality careers and labour studies?

#### **1.5 Methodology**

This study adopted a quantitative research approach to explore the careers of hospitality management graduates in New Zealand who have graduated with a Bachelor of International Hospitality Management from AUT. All data for the study was collected from the LinkedIn career website.

#### **1.6 Dissertation Overview**

The structure of this dissertation is as follows. Chapter 1 introduced the concept of a career, employment choices, and length of employment in the hospitality industry for domestic and

international graduates who graduated from AUT with a degree in Bachelor of International Hospitality Management. Chapter 2 reviews the academic literature that informed the research questions. Because of this, it was important to examine relevant literature relating to the research questions. The literature review includes topics such as the global hospitality industry, the New Zealand hospitality industry, demand for qualified hospitality workers, the importance of higher education in the hospitality industry, migrant workers, working conditions, remuneration, high turnover, training and development, and hospitality career development. The literature review provides a wide scope of the theoretical framework and helps inform the research questions.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology chosen for the development of the research design and considers the nature of the research questions for this study. To answer the research questions for this study, a realist ontology and an objectivist epistemology led the researcher to select a positivist paradigm. With a positivist paradigm, the researcher chooses a quantitative research method for the study. All data was coded accordingly, and SPSS was used to analyse the data. All data for this study was collected from the LinkedIn career website.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the results with relevance to the research questions. The statistical analyses are presented alongside some statistically significant findings that helped the researcher to generalise some findings.

Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the study in detail and in relation to existing academic literature. This chapter also looks into the implications of the findings on hospitality graduates.

The final chapter presents conclusions to the research. The findings of the study are summarised, limitations are noted, and practical recommendations for the hospitality industry and education practitioners are provided.

## **Chapter 2 Literature Review**

The aim of this literature review is to present an understanding of existing research applicable to hospitality graduates who want to pursue a career in the hospitality industry. This chapter explores the key factors that can affect a graduate's career expectations. Firstly, literature exploring the global and New Zealand hospitality industries are reviewed. Secondly, the importance of the higher education in hospitality, who joins the hospitality industry, impediments of hospitality work, and why there is such a high turnover are explored. Thirdly, the next section presents the importance of training and development, educating hospitality workers, and internships. Finally, this chapter concludes with how graduates decide on a career, and reviews career theory, career development, career success, and career mobility.

### **2.1 The Global Hospitality Industry**

As a result of globalisation and fewer travel restrictions, more people travel, and the hospitality sector is growing as a result. As stated by Robinson et al. (2016), the hospitality and tourism industry has grown to be one of the largest global employers. This situation changed in February 2020 with the COVID-19 pandemic. Many countries have experienced this rapid growth in their hospitality and tourism industries (Tribe & Lewis, 2003). Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016) identified that this growth has made hospitality and tourism one of the biggest sources of employment worldwide, and mainly provides jobs and careers for school leavers. The growth of the hospitality industry has also created some other important issues such as dependence on information technology (Whitelaw, 2008), growth across different cultures (Tajeddini, 2009), and environmental issues (Webster, 2006). Due to very high capital costs and high operational costs in the hospitality industry, Jayawardena et al. (2013) argue that main financial drivers such as gross revenue and gross profit add more commitment and responsibilities for senior management, supervisors, and all employees, on top of their day to day operational duties. The development and growth of the global hospitality sector has also changed how the complexity of hospitality work is viewed (Seymour, 2000).

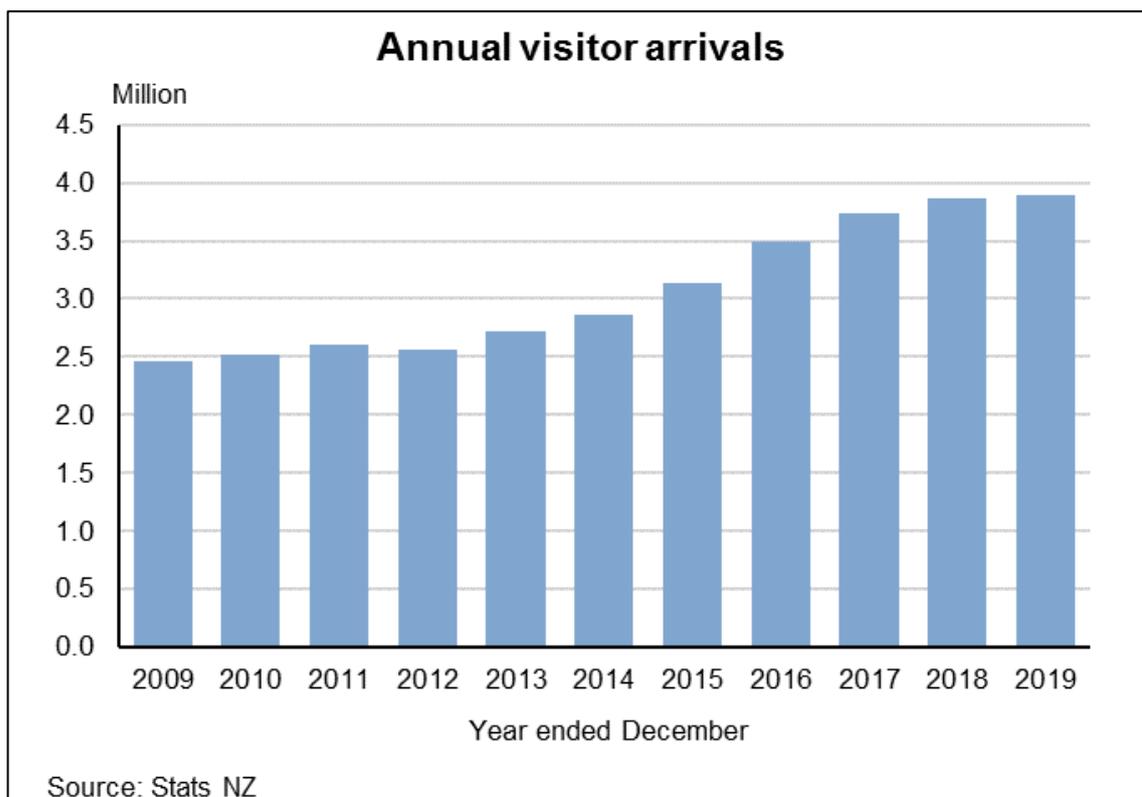
According to Harkison et al. (2011), the hospitality and tourism industry is one of the fastest growing industries in New Zealand, and even with a global recession, the growth of the industry has continued. Increasing visitor numbers and revenue from hospitality businesses, and a positive forecast for the future is a very good outlook for the New Zealand tourism and hospitality industry. The positive forecast of increased visitors suggests there will be a higher demand for all hospitality workers and further demand for qualified hospitality workers

(Harkison et al., 2011; Williamson, 2017). One in eleven jobs created globally is related to hospitality and tourism (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014). Parker and Arrowsmith (2012) identified that in New Zealand, almost four out of five employees are employed in the service sector.

Despite all of these high expectations for growth in the tourism and hospitality industry, employment expectations were shattered from February 2020 onwards with the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. The lockdowns made things worse for the industry. With no international travel from March 2020, the tourism and hospitality industry were the worst affected. Many hospitality and tourism organisations currently depend on domestic tourism. With no overseas travel, hospitality and tourism organisations are hoping for a good summer season from domestic travellers. The much-awaited trans-Tasman travel bubble could be a sign of relief for the COVID-19 pandemic-battered hospitality and tourism industry.

## 2.2 New Zealand Tourism and Hospitality Industry

Figure 0.1. International visitor arrivals

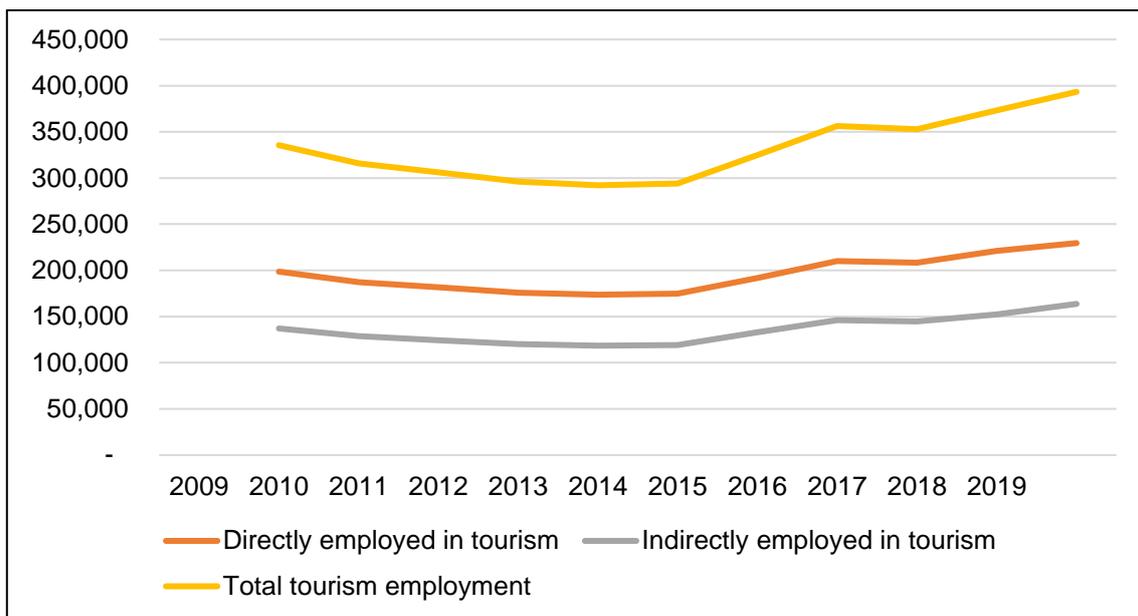


Source: Statistics New Zealand (2019)

Figure 2.1 shows the growth of the tourism sector over the last 10 years. There was a steady growth of 2.4 million international visitors to New Zealand in 2009 to 3.89 million international

visitors in 2019. This increase has helped build and establish more hotels, restaurants, bars, tourism-related businesses, and many other indirectly related organisations. With a low unemployment level and a shortage in the hospitality workforce to meet this rapid growth, a high number of educated hospitality graduates may be required to manage these new organisations and continue the development of the tourism and hospitality industry in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2019).

Figure 0.2. Tourism employment March 2009 to March 2019

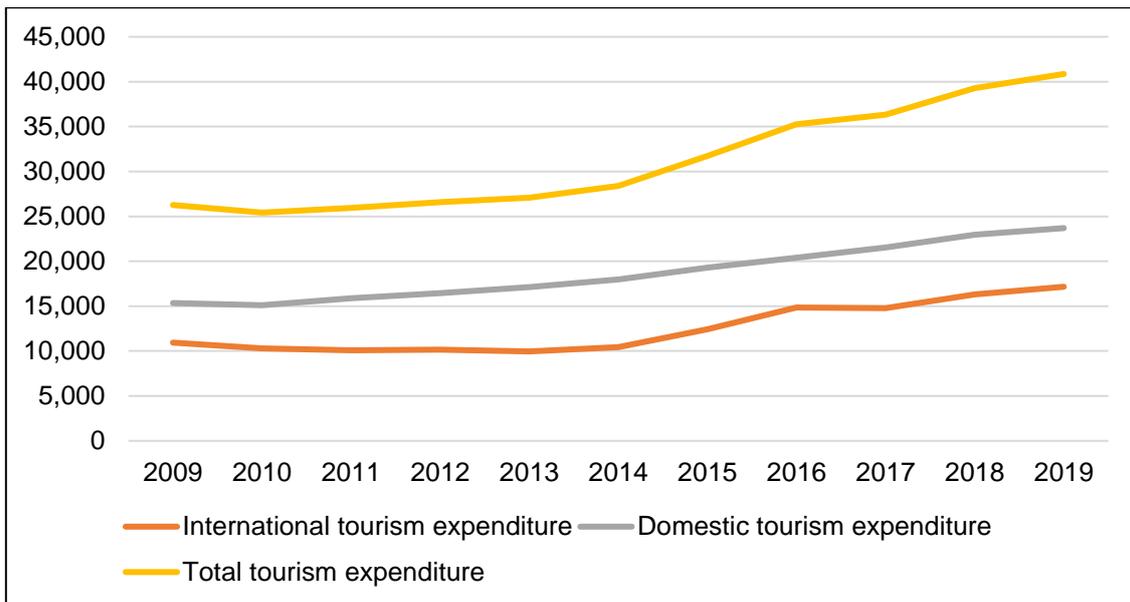


Source: Statistics New Zealand (2019)

Figure 2.2 shows the high number of workers employed in the hospitality and tourism sector from March 2009-March 2019. Directly and indirectly, nearly 400,000 employees were employed in this sector. The number of people directly employed in tourism was 229,556, and this was 8.4% of the total number of people employed in New Zealand. The number of people indirectly employed in tourism was 163,713, which was 6% of the total number of people employed in New Zealand. This results in a total of 14.4% of all employees in the New Zealand workforce (Statistics New Zealand, 2019).

Out of these nearly 400,000 employees, 133,000 were employed directly in the hospitality sector in New Zealand at the end of March 2019. There were 17,895 hospitality businesses operating in New Zealand in 2018 (Restaurant Association of New Zealand, 2019).

Figure 0.3. Tourism expenditure March 2009-March 2019



Source: Statistics New Zealand (2019)

Figure 2.3 shows that the combined spending of international and domestic tourists reached NZ\$ 40.9 billion by the year ending March 2019. This was an increase of NZ\$ 15 billion from NZ\$ 26 billion in 2009. International visitor spending increased from NZ\$ 11 billion in 2009 to NZ\$ 17 billion in 2019, and in the same period, domestic tourist spending increased from NZ\$ 15 billion to NZ\$ 23 billion. Tourism generated NZ\$ 16.2 billion a direct contribution to gross domestic production of 5.8%. Indirect value-added industries to tourism contributed a further NZ\$ 11.2 billion which was 4% of gross domestic product (Statistics New Zealand, 2019).

### 2.3 The Importance of Higher education in the Hospitality Industry

Alongside growth in the hospitality sector, the higher education sector also offered degrees, which impacted the worldwide hospitality and tourism industry. The hospitality industry cannot meet its demand for skilled hospitality workers even with the growth in higher education sector (Richardson & Thomas, 2012). Major and Evans (2008) noted that the varied nature of the hospitality and tourism industry makes it challenging for higher education institutes to train and educate a diverse labour force. Moreover, hospitality employers prefer apprenticeship entry to the hospitality workforce.

López-Bonilla and López-Bonilla (2014) argue that higher customer service skills, technical skills, communication skills, and other competences are required by hospitality workers to deal

with speedy market changes, environment instability, and dealing with important industry issues such as new regulations, deregulation, and extreme customer service. To handle these issues, Major and Evans (2008) suggest that the hospitality industry needs critical and reflective thinkers such as university graduates in hospitality management. Educating and developing these graduates will be the responsibility of university faculty and lecturers.

## **2.4 Who Joins the Hospitality Industry?**

Some young people join the hospitality industry because of the glamour of the industry and entertaining atmospheres (Grobelna & Marciszewska, 2016; Mooney et al., 2016). According to Mooney et al. (2016), young people can obtain career development and a successful career. Hospitality workers performing lower level entry jobs are mostly new migrants. These migrants have limited options for employment in other sectors and are willing to work for low pay. In many countries, including New Zealand, hospitality employment is temporary, dissatisfying, and pays poorly (Baum, 2015; Poulston, 2008, 2009). Working in the hospitality sector is also regarded as low status as found by Mooney et al. (2016), but management positions such as hotel managers and other senior management staff are well paid and recognised.

Guerrier (2008) suggests that the hospitality industry has low-level entry qualifications for employment and the perception of hospitality work is unskilled. Due to low-level entry qualifications for hospitality work, many migrants are attracted to hospitality work. Hospitality jobs are considered as low skilled, low status, poorly paid, dirty, and servile. Because many migrants are employed in the hospitality industry, hospitality is also seen as an industry associated with this particular group. Hospitality is also an industry where many females and students easily find employment.

As cited by Poulston (2008, 2009, 2015), working conditions in the hospitality industry are often very poor, and workers can be exposed because they are mostly migrant, female, young, low status, and part-time workers. Poulston (2015) argues that people are attracted to hospitality work even though the industry has a reputation for unsatisfactory working conditions. Some tasks are repetitive, hard, and menial. Poulston (2008) further argues that there is a wide range of impediments to working in the hospitality industry. Some people work in hospitality because they cannot find work elsewhere (Poulston, 2009), or as Cockburn-Wooten (2012) state, they can tolerate difficult cultures. Interestingly, Chuang and Dellmann-Jenkins (2010) note that the majority of students studying hospitality management in

universities are female, and females form the majority of similar undergraduate cohorts. McIntosh and Harris (2012) query if you would encourage your daughter to work in the hospitality industry on a long-term basis and if the work is even satisfying. Williamson (2017) points out that even though there are thousands of hospitality jobs created and career choices for students, hospitality remains a 'dummy subject' in New Zealand schools. Williamson (2017) further posits that parents would prefer their children to do any other work but hospitality.

There are many reasons for people to choose not to work in hospitality, but many people do choose to work in hospitality as it is a large global industry. Worldwide demand for hospitality education makes it clear that many are looking to make a career in hospitality industry (Poulston, 2009), and one in eleven jobs created globally is related to the hospitality and tourism industry (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014). Many young people are attracted to hospitality careers, and career pathways are generally on an upward trend from a lower level position to a higher management position as described by Mooney et al. (2016) and Poulston (2009).

Arora and Rohmetra (2010) outline that due to migration, the hospitality industry has a vast and diverse multicultural workforce. Cultural diversity improves the chance of individual success regardless of a person's background, and can add benefits such as cross-cultural relationships and better service recovery and complaint handling. Dawson et al. (2011) state that the hospitality industry has a unique and different culture compared to other industries.

Zeithaml et al. (2013) recommend that hospitality employees are reflective of a service-oriented culture and that this is passed onto the customer. Zeithamal et al. (2013) note that front of house employees have to embody the organisation in the customers' eyes. This aspect is certainly an important aspect for hospitality work. This can involve hospitality workers crossing some boundaries between external customers and organisations.

Kim and Jogaratnam (2010) outline that the attraction to hospitality work is more intrinsic. Hospitality work provides opportunities to meet social and relationship needs. Motivation is created to stay in the job and a feeling that doing a job well increases satisfaction and is an intrinsic motivator.

O'Neill (2012) explains that an entertainment culture with music and night life in night clubs, discotheques, and casinos involves employees socialising at work. While employees work hard

to make customers happy, which is the most important factor, this image of the hospitality industry is not enough to tempt young people to select hospitality as a long-term career (Jiang & Tribe, 2009). Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016) propose that the hospitality industry incorporates a wide range of other sectors. This heterogeneity is considered to influence young people to make the choice of selecting hospitality as a career.

## **2.5 Long Working Hours and Work Overload**

Mkono (2010) notes that long working hours are embedded in the hospitality industry. Front of house employees usually have no choice with hours, and supervisors and managers also work long hours. Employees in the front office and food and beverage work around the clock. These working patterns can create stress and conflict between work and personal life as cited by Haldorai et al. (2019) and O'Neill (2012). According to Haldorai et al. (2019), the 24/7 operation of the hotel industry creates a stressful work environment. Food and beverage and front office workers face erratic and unreliable work patterns which may lead to being worn out and stressed (Yang, 2010). Haldorai et al. (2019) describe that this stress can be further intensified with increasing economic pressures, and management's appetite to increase employee productivity. Front of house employees very often experience heavy workloads and are stressed because of additional work demands.

Work and personal life conflict in this industry may lead employees to look for other sources of employment outside the hospitality industry (Blomme et al., 2010; Haldorai et al., 2019). Poor pay and long working hours are two other main reasons contributing to high turnover in the hospitality industry (Haldorai et al., 2019).

## **2.6 Low Pay**

Taniguchi et al. (2006) explain that remuneration in the hospitality industry is low for unskilled low-level jobs. In New Zealand and many countries worldwide hospitality employees are paid minimum wage. These unskilled jobs are mostly taken by new migrants, students, and women looking for flexible working hours (Guerrier, 2008).

Although the industry offers flexible working hours, Parker and Arrowsmith (2012) argue that the benefits are poor, shifts are uncertain, and dangerous working conditions exist for these precarious workers. Hospitality work involves emotional labour and requires emotional competencies (Reece et al., 2011).

Nickson and Warhurst (2007) state that frontline hospitality employee's nature of work is compounded with the attitude and appearance of the service encounter. Ruetzler et al. (2012) note that frontline employees have direct contact with customers and engage in boundary spanning roles for the organisation. Frontline hospitality workers are also required to be professional in presentation and attire, leading to positive approaches from employers about job prospects.

Atef and Al Balushi (2017) argue that due to the hospitality industry being dominated by the private sector and offering lower pay, higher pay in government jobs attract the majority of hospitality graduates in Oman. This has led to the vast majority of hospitality roles being occupied by migrants mainly from west Asia.

Zampoukos and Ioannides (2011) express the view that the hospitality industry relies heavily on hourly-paid casual and part-time workers as opposed to permanent workers. These hourly-paid casual and part-time workers are mainly employed in lower level positions. Permanent workers receive better pay packages and other benefits. As management always looks at increasing profits for the hotels, they therefore employ more hourly-paid casual or part-time workers instead of full-time workers.

## **2.7 Why Such High turnover?**

Anvari and Seliman (2010) explicated that the hospitality sector considers high staff turnover as a common occurrence and this is a global problem in hospitality. McIntosh and Harris (2012) state that young workers in the hospitality industry are more often considered temporary workers. According to Williamson (2017), in New Zealand, the hospitality industry has one of the highest employee turnover rates compared to all other industries. The hospitality industry pays the lowest hourly rate compared to any other industry. Employee turnover is a big concern for employers, and an ongoing challenge for the hospitality industry. High employee turnover means high staffing costs and more work for human resources (Blomme et al., 2010).

Blomme et al. (2010) argue that the high turnover of educated hospitality workers (graduates with higher educational qualifications) is a major concern for the hospitality industry. These graduates have a better chance of becoming successful in attaining higher management positions. This generation of workers are well informed and motivated about career development. Hospitality organisations should therefore try to retain these well-educated

trained graduates who can contribute to organisation's competencies and success with their knowledge bases (Blomme et al., 2010).

According to Wolfe and Kim (2013), enhancing emotional factors and interpersonal skills among employees is critical for success in hotel management and influences employee commitment. Hospitality graduates may still leave the industry if any of their commitment is taken away from them at an early stage, and graduates may become disappointed. To encourage hospitality graduates to stay, factors such as commitment, passion, empowerment, and engagement could encourage increased worker performance and curtail employee turnover. Focussing on the important factors for graduate employees' retention and establishing these factors, can help retain graduate employees in the hospitality industry and assist graduates in becoming more successful.

Mohsin et al. (2013) outline that another reason for high turnover in the hospitality industry is the high number of students employed. Most part-time hospitality jobs are filled by this sector. These students aim to earn some extra money until they complete their studies, or are students studying in the hospitality industry who want to obtain work experience. Hospitality work is the most attractive and the best available choice for any type of student, due to flexible hours and seven days a week employment.

Choudhury and McIntosh (2013) state that the majority of hospitality students in New Zealand prefer to work in hotels rather than restaurants. Other students often work in restaurants, and leave restaurant work as soon as they finish their studies. This in turn contributes to the high staff turnover in the hospitality industry. Small hospitality organisations find employee retention more difficult than large hospitality organisations. Pimentel (2011) cited that larger organisations can afford to provide higher salaries, more benefit, and career growth opportunities. Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) found that many graduates leave the hospitality industry due to low job satisfaction, poor working conditions, and absence of motivating factors.

The negative impacts of employee turnover can have tangible and intangible costs, such as loss of guest loyalty and productivity (Michel et al., 2013). Young and Corson (2009) expressed the view that the end result is being short of trained staff and increased pressure on remaining staff. Some employees in the hospitality industry completely leave the industry due to negative work experiences. Employee turnover can occur at an organisational or occupational level.

## **2.8 Training and Development**

Poulston (2008) notes that all hospitality organisations train employees in the duties they must perform. However, the hospitality industry still has a poor training record. Senior managers are reluctant to invest in training in fear of staff leaving their employment. Managers are also busy recruiting and performing other duties, and do not spend enough time on staff training. Poulston (2008) expresses that a lack of training will bring poor service quality, which may embarrass employees and display evidence of poor training. Training and development provides job satisfaction and helps staff retention. Hotels that do not invest in training will have high staff turnover, poor service standards, and make less profit.

At the same time, if trainees feel that training programmes are boring and burdensome, their interest in the hospitality industry will diminish. Loss of interest in training programmes may make trainees seek other career possibilities (Patah et al., 2010).

According to Lashley et al. (2007), managers comment that training and development contributes to higher sales, profits, and customer and staff satisfaction. Training and development can make managers think more about the business, as opposed to the operation and making a positive professional impact. Training and development also helps managers and staff develop new skills. The benefits of training and development cannot always be measured financially, and measures must be a mixture of tangible and intangible and from a variety of stakeholders (Lashley et al., 2007; Maier, 2011).

## **2.9 Importance of Educated Workers**

Kuslivan and Kuslivan (2000) insist that the hospitality and tourism industry cannot underestimate the importance of well-educated and trained hospitality workers. This new generation of hospitality workers are familiar with the labour market and knowledgeable about workplace opportunities. There is a lot of competition and demand for educated and attractive candidates. As outlined by Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016), developing management and human resources standards by hotel managers, will motivate young qualified graduates career paths with respect to their work, with an increased demand for graduates at all managerial levels.

Choudhury and McIntosh (2013) argue that efficient and consistent service provided by qualified staff will ensure the success of the hospitality industry. In order to provide quality

service to customers, high employee turnover must be addressed. High employee turnover means an employer has to re-hire and re-train employees. This results in poor and unpredictable service and the ability for a business to be competitive. Therefore, it is important for the hospitality industry to understand the value of enforcing employee retention strategies. These strategies will not only save costs but will also help maintain a high-quality level of service and enable business can be more competitive.

Choudhury and McIntosh (2013) further claim that finding reasons for employees to stay or leave are short-term strategies. Organisations need to look into long-term strategies such as counselling, training programmes, providing childcare, and career development. Short- and long-term strategies can both play important roles in addressing staff turnover.

Cho et al. (2009) commented that organisational culture, organisational support, and support from immediate managers and supervisors are strong reasons for employees to stay in any organisation.

Michel et al. (2013) found that good relations with supervisors and co-workers can improve commitment levels towards the organisation and a longer career in an organisation. Managers' supportive assistance also helps corporation between staff and the service environment. Kim and Jogaratnam (2010) make a case that quality supervision can encourage employees to stay longer in organisations.

Robinson et al. (2016) suggest that in today's uncertain world, with rapid changes and global travel opportunities for employees, the hospitality and tourism industry constantly faces many challenges. One of the major challenges how to attract and retain workers with good capabilities, knowledge, and competencies that the hospitality and tourism industry demands.

According to McGinley et al. (2014), organisations that provide a career pathway for employees, create good relationships with employees and invest in a bilateral relationship with employees. Lack of career development is a strong reason for senior managers to resign. According to Wong et al. (2017), fair promotions and a clear career pathway are important factors for Generation Y employees.

Zopiatis et al. (2014) state that career progression is the most important factor for Generation Y employees, and employee retention (especially long-term career development) is a key motivator for them. Employees who are looking at their career progression and who gave

guided and developed by managers to perform higher roles, will remain in employment (Chan et al., 2016).

## **2.10 Influences of Internships on Students' Careers**

It is very important to understand the internship experiences of higher education students. The manner this experience influences the career of the student's intentions and outcomes, the hospitality and higher education providers highlight the importance of these issues (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). Ko (2008) and Teng (2008) identified that work experience situations can influence a student's choice to continue work in the hospitality industry after graduating. If the work experience was positive, the student's interest to continue working in hospitality increases. If the student had poor experiences and their expectations were not met, their choice to continue the industry will be affected.

Kim and Park (2013) and Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000), point out that students who do not proceed with a hospitality career after their internships is a considerable concern for the hospitality industry. This is an important factor for the higher education sector and the higher education sector needs to provide students with a more detailed view of a real working life in the hospitality industry.

Chen and Shen (2012) and Kim and Park (2013) note that although some students decide not to enter the industry because of negative experiences during their internships, there are many positive outcomes for students from internships. Internships help to improve future employment chances, provide a better understanding of the hospitality workforce, and help students learn about the career opportunities the industry can offer.

A student's first choice is not always a hospitality degree. There are other positive and important general outcomes from internships, such as increased self-confidence and maturity (Ko, 2008), improved labour market value, further familiarisation with professional practice the ability to be adaptable (Kim & Park, 2013), work engagement and knowledge exchange, and proper work placement of graduates as identified by (Zopiatis and Theocharous (2013).

Internships can be considered a very important in influencing graduates to consider whether to enter the hospitality workforce or not (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013; Lee & Chao, 2013; Zopiatis & Theocharous, 2013). Kim and Park (2013) comment that after undergraduates complete their internships some can become discouraged about future employment. During

internships, undergraduates can find their social experiences to be a motivating factor that can curb negative experiences and increase their interest to work in hospitality as a career. Internships are the most important critical influence for graduates when deciding whether to enter the hospitality industry workforce (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013; Lee & Chao, 2013; Zopiatis & Theocharous, 2013).

There are two important factors to consider in internships. The first, as defined by Chen and Shen (2012), is the quality of internship programme planning and industry involvement. This includes assignments and performance evaluations from the university throughout the entire period of the internship. The other factor described by Zopiatis and Theocharous (2013) is industry participation. This involves providing a safe workplace, necessary support from all personnel for problem solving, on the job training, and fair and reasonable evaluations.

### **2.11 How Do Students decide on Career?**

According to Patah et al. (2010), students mostly make decisions on their careers based on information they have read, seen, received, or been told. Others decide based on prior work experiences or internship experiences. Students acknowledge that direct and vicarious exposure to work experiences can also help their career choices. Their career aim can be moulded if they have already decided their chosen career industry. Patah et al. (2010) further explain that students research and explore employment opportunities in industry sectors of interest to help identify the best career choice. Students who follow this experimental process expose themselves to career exploration activities such as job shadowing and internships. This process helps students clarify their interests and the required values and skills, and helps make their career choice (Patah et al., 2010). Bubany et al. (2008) state that students' identified interests are important when considering their career decisions. A combination of interests is considered useful and helps students explore and identify industries of interest. This is referred to as experimental engagement. Experimental engagement can be an internship or practicum, and may be an important medium to develop interests and help students choose an industry to start a career in. Bubany et al. (2008) argue that participating in experimental engagements may be helpful for students to clarify and affirm their interests and influence students' confidence to make their career decision.

Gebbels et al. (2020) suggest that career inheritance is another option for students when deciding on a lifelong career. Parents' influence, as well as family history in a career, may

influence students. Students may be influenced towards a certain career if there is a family inherited business, they want to get involved in.

## **2.12 Career Theory**

A popular description of a career is explained by Sullivan and Baruch (2009). They note that a career includes an employee's work-related and other related experiences inside and outside of organisations over their lifetime. A traditional view of a career is, which has clearly explained organisational structures, controlled by accepted workplace processes (Mooney et al., 2016).

Inkson et al. (2012) explain that a career is an ongoing partnership between a person and their work. This partnership connects individual and organisation with other social institutions. Present day career theory uses a range of non-traditional career explanations or relational career models to explain more uncertain employment arrangements and the surge of various composition of workforces (Rodrigues & Guest, 2014).

The viewpoint of today's boundaryless career, as a career orientation, against a particular career, with current unstable organisational environment will no longer help employees to go up the corporate ladder in one organisation (Inkson et al., 2012; Wang, 2013). Inkson et al. (2012) further note that rite of passage is important in any career development and helps career development points. Organisational change and redesign create new career boundaries, to change management affects and affected employees' career focused responses (Inkson et al., 2012).

According to Tams and Arthur (2010), the first promotion or transfer to a higher position in another department can be a very important development in an individual's career. Tams and Arthur further note that an individual's potential and ability to negotiate boundaries is considerably affected by organisational contexts, such as size of the organisation, degree of centralisation and formalisation, and the organisational structure. Societal contexts such as the culture of the individual, where the individual was educated and lives, and people and institutions with whom they socialise are also important (Tams & Arthur, 2010).

According to Savickas (2013), career construction theory is explained as follows. A career journey is not about developing or following a clear path. Individuals design their own personal career development. Adapting to different social contexts and opinions influences their career growth and progress.

Savickas (2013) further explains that individuals carry out three separate roles in their careers. These are actor, agent, and author. The actor role concerns how individuals build their careers. External role models and their reputations are crucial when building career competencies. An individual's personality develops internally, and reputation is based on an individual's social networks. The agent role comprises an individual's career motivations, self-regulation, thinking about the future, curiosity, and self-confidence to achieve their personal goals. In the author role, individuals put together their career themes and personal viewpoints to design their own special career story (Savickas, 2013).

### **2.13 Hospitality Career Development**

Career development can be explained as a boundaryless career path. According to Wang (2013), it is a lifelong process managing work, leisure, and change to go forward and achieve an individual's decisive choice of their preferred future. For most individuals, career development comprises nearly 70% of their developmental tasks. Young employees always accept that work plays a major role in their lives, and believe they will have to accept it (Grobelna & Marciszewska, 2016).

Wang (2013) explains that employees in the hospitality industry pursue a self-directed career. These employees seek career advancement strategies to develop skills, knowledge, and experience to develop their careers. Employees working in the hospitality sector generally work in intense work environments and have high level career advancement with promotions (Wang, 2013). According to Beheshtifar (2011), hospitality employers require employees to have adaptive skills, to obtain individual life skills, and meet organisational competitiveness. Beheshtifar (2011) further suggests that from the view of management, a positive approach towards promoting employee strengths will further increase employees' chances of career progression. A good understanding of employees' expectations, priorities, and career aspirations can help employers prepare work conditions that are more likely to retain and attract young employees (Grobelna & Marciszewska, 2016).

### **2.14 Career Success Competencies in the Hospitality Industry**

In the present environment, career competencies have become more important (Kong et al., 2012). De Vos and Soens (2008) and Kong et al. (2012), assert that a positive working attitude is an important ability for career success. According to De Vos and Soens (2008), readiness to

accept challenges, energy and enthusiasm, hard work, honesty, resilience, and professional appearance are positive work attitudes and attributes.

Munar and Montaña (2009) note that the ability to communicate and interact well with others are important interpersonal skills for all hospitality employees. These skills help hospitality employees build good relationships, communicate well, negotiate, use appropriate language, and actively maintain and develop social networks with co-workers and customers (Sewell & Pool, 2010).

Other beneficial skills for successful hospitality careers are the ability to innovate, flexibility to environment changes, flexible working methods (Sewell & Pool, 2010), volume of learning ability to gain skills and knowledge, problem solving skills, career planning and development, long-term goal setting, resource management and fitting employees' careers to the business setting (Joo & Ready, 2012).

Beheshtifar (2011) further argues that managing resources, time, stress, and teamwork are also important competencies for hospitality employees' career success. Wang (2013) states that four behavioural based factors, namely, ethics and integrity, time management, self-development and flexibility, and adaptability are competencies for both employees and organisations. Wang (2013) further explains the influence of employability on career development and career success, and that career attitudes of a worker have a major role in determining their career success.

As suggested by Kong et al. (2012), personal competencies reflect on models of knowing. There are three different models of knowing in career competencies. They are knowing why, knowing whom, and knowing how. Knowing why is connected to career motivation, personal meaning, and identification. Career networks and contacts are relevant to knowing whom, and knowing how includes career related skills and work-related knowledge (Kong et al., 2012). Explained further by Kong et al. (2012), organisational career management enables employees to understand their strengths and weakness and establish specific goals, which helps to increase their 'knowing why' competencies. Organisations can help employees develop new skills and set up internal and external networks. These help increase 'knowing how' and 'knowing whom' career competencies. Organisations can increase 'knowing how' competencies by providing organisational training and development (Kong et al., 2012). According to Wang (2013), there

is a positive relationship between career competencies and job satisfaction, and career planning with career satisfaction.

Wang (2013) suggests that career success has two aspects objective career success and subjective career success. Objective career success includes high pay, higher level senior management positions, and quick promotion that are all external measurements. Subjective career success is an individual's perceptions of their career development such as satisfaction and accomplishment about their career development. With the concept of a boundaryless career, many articles widely discuss subjective career success as the main focus to assess careers. When a person is aware of their career expectations, they can meet career standards or achieve satisfaction.

Wang (2013) stated that personal career success is similar to career satisfaction. In many articles, researchers mention that measuring only objective career success is not enough, because many people value subjective career success such as development and skills, challenge, work and life balance, and sense of achievement. Therefore, Wang (2013) argues that we can see a relationship between career competencies and career satisfaction.

## **2.15 Career Mobility in the Hospitality Industry**

Baum (2015) states that one of the most important characteristics for a hospitality career is job mobility. Job mobility is movement from one organisation to another organisation or between the same organisation (Baum, 2015). For career success, a high degree of job mobility is required. In many countries, hospitality workers can achieve higher executive positions by frequently moving between different hospitality organisations (Mooney et al., 2016). According to Mooney et al. (2016), hotel chains in China consider promotions to happen internally, a feature connected with traditional organisational careers. Many senior hospitality managers may continue their hospitality careers in the same organisation without moving to other organisations, if they will not achieve a higher position or higher pay.

The hospitality industry may influence the subjective career constructs of hospitality workers, but mobility of workers in low positions will have more costs than benefits. Seasonal hospitality workers may experience non-traditional careers that do not progress as a career, and may not achieve higher positions or higher pay (Mooney et al., 2016).

A higher wage is categorised as an important motivator and is valued by all employees. Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016) suggest if a higher wage is provided, the wage factor may create motivation and satisfaction for younger employees. This financial aspect can be classed as a hygiene factor that helps individuals' basic needs, and is an important motivating factor considered by youth when deciding on an employment career in hospitality industry.

Richardson and Thomas (2012) argue that with along with a good wage, students are also looking for an interesting job that will provide them with a chance for advancement and development. This young generation of hospitality students have very high expectations of pay and promotions. A range of opportunities and enjoyable and interesting work are some of the most important aspects for students when deciding on their lifelong career (Richardson & Thomas, 2012).

The following main points from the literature review will be carried forward for discussion. Firstly, the trend of more females being employed in the hospitality industry. Secondly, graduates' work experience or internships during their studies is discussed, followed by the employment sector the graduates enter after graduating, and the roles graduates take for employment in the hospitality industry. The other ideas carried forward are graduates mobility, promotions, career development, and graduates leaving the hospitality industry for employment in other industries.

## **Chapter 3 Research Methodology**

This chapter presents the methodology and methods used for this research. The chapter starts by reiterating the research objectives, followed by a discussion on the research design used to achieve the research objectives and a discussion of the sampling strategy for data collection. Finally, the statistical methods that were used to analyse the collected data are presented.

### **3.1 Research Aim**

The aim of this research was to explore the career pathways of hospitality management graduates in New Zealand. This study focuses on one specific qualification, the Bachelor of International Hospitality Management offered by AUT.

### **3.2 Research Questions**

- Which industry sectors were undergraduates employed in during their studies?
- Which industry sectors did graduates choose for full-time employment?
- What roles did graduates obtain to enter the hospitality industry and what roles did they progress into?
- How long did graduates work in their first place of hospitality employment and did they advance within the same organisation or move to other hospitality organisations/sectors?
- What sectors do graduates move into and how long do they spend in hospitality organisations after graduation?
- Was there a difference in career pathways between male and female graduates?
- Was there a difference in career pathways of graduates passed out in different years?
- Was there a difference in career pathways of international vs domestic graduates?
- How do the findings based on the above questions relate to current literature on hospitality careers and labour studies?

### **3.3 Research Definitions**

Sekaran (2013) defines research as an organised, methodical, data-based scientific investigation into a specific problem with the objective of looking for answers. Wilson (1997) suggests that research is a process of principled compromise, informed by professional knowledge of the techniques and limitations of research methods, progressed through personal enthusiasm, presented honestly, and bringing together the research objectives.

### **3.4 Research Paradigms**

Long (2007) describes that a paradigm is a prerequisite of a belief or opinion. What you see depends on what you look at, the way you are thought to think, and how you look at something. Bryman (2015) explains that a paradigm helps a researcher to decide what to study and influences data collection and analysis. A paradigm is also a framework of theoretical or methodological beliefs that help resolve a particular problem.

Paradigms are constructed by logical connections between reciprocal ontological and epistemological beliefs, and with a methodological choice that helps research to take place in a systematic way. These three components construct the paradigms of research. One paradigm can have many methodologies and a researcher can select any one of them. Methodologies can be used by researchers to conduct systematic research (Brotherton, 2015; Mason, 2014).

Three common paradigms are described by Mason (2014). These are positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. These paradigms can be further categorised by examining their ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies. Mason (2014) refers to a paradigm as a set of ideas, values, beliefs, and habits that that are thought about in the real world. A paradigm is an example, model, or pattern.

The two basic approaches in social science for research methods are positivism and interpretivism. Positivists mostly use scientific quantitative methods, while interpretivists often use humanistic qualitative methods (Brotherton, 2015; Mason, 2014).

Brotherton (2015) argues that a research paradigm is a worldview about conducting research. A paradigm provides researchers with ideas for choosing a research design and research method. Research paradigms direct how researchers view a phenomena and help researchers identify which method to follow.

According to Mason (2014), there are three important questions when comparing paradigms:

- What is real? (ontology)
- How can we know anything? (epistemology)
- What methods should we use to conduct research? (methodology)

### **3.5 Ontology**

Mason (2014) explains that “what is real” can be studied within the concept of ontology, and there can be two responses to this question depending on the type of paradigm. In paradigms there is both a single objective truth or reality, and also no such thing as a single objective truth, but simply a number of subjective truths. Gray (2018) argues that a realist believes in a single objective truth to be discovered, and a relativist accepts that numerous versions of reality can be understood, mainly depending on an individual’s experiences, interactions, and perceptions.

### **3.6 Epistemology**

Mason (2014) states that “what is real” affects how knowledge is obtained. What we perceive as reality has an effect on our own knowledge. Every paradigm has a different perception of reality and a different perception of knowledge. In other words, epistemology is the study of knowledge. Gray (2018) argues that knowledge gives an understanding of how people know what they know, and provides the basis for justifying the authority and adequacy of that understanding.

Objectivism, as explained by Mason (2014), is the belief that certain things, especially moral truths, exist independently of human knowledge or the perception of them. A researcher cannot interact with what is being researched.

Constructivism is the approach, and who believe in relation to research and no objective reality, but the reality is made by each individual. Reflecting on our experiences and constructing on their own understanding (Brotherton, 2015; Mason, 2014).

Subjectivism, as stated by Gray (2018), is based on the idea that meaning is established by individuals, but in epistemology, inner values are initiated by cultural, social, and religious ethics, values and influences, dreams and imagination and are inflicted by the external world.

### **3.7 Methodology**

Mason (2014) argues that when an individual gains knowledge of reality, then that is the moment when they accept their understanding of the effects of reality. The acceptance of reality helps an individual to conduct research about reality. This is what is termed as methodology. The links between ontology, epistemology and methodology are summarised by Mason (2014) as follows, “the belief about the nature of the world (ontology) adopted by an enquirer will affect their belief about the nature of knowledge in the world (epistemology) which in turn will influence the enquirer’s belief as to how that knowledge can be uncovered (methodology)” (p.52). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) explain that epistemology in terms of a relationship, between a researcher and what researcher is researching, in the quantitative method the researcher and what is researched are considered as independent of each other. In a qualitative method they are interactive and inseparable. Quantitative researchers view reality as single and tangible. At the same time, qualitative researchers view reality as constructed and multiple (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Teddlie and Tashakkori further describe that ontology and epistemology differ from the research methods being used. Quantitative researchers use deductive approaches and qualitative researchers use inductive approaches.

### **3.8 Research Approaches**

Brotherton (2015) and Mason (2014) state that deductive research is mostly conducted by quantitative researchers. This type of research may involve known theories and laws applied to new contexts. Researchers using this method can predict what will happen, because there may be previous research about the topic, and they can use earlier results to argue their findings.

Inductive research does not start from a theory and having a hypothesis is unlikely. The researcher starts with a problem or a question to address. The researcher may then try and link data from available theories about the topic to start a new theory. This method of research is more open ended, and may be modified as to how it is conducted, who gets involved, and if the first research does not give results (Brotherton, 2015; Mason, 2014).

### **3.9 Paradigm Choice**

A realist ontology and an objectivist epistemology leads to a positivist paradigm for this research. Positivism is the best choice for a paradigm when seeking empirical proof. The type of research questions in this study explore a realist ontology that allows results to be replicable and can demonstrated to be true, accurate, or justified. The research questions in this study do

not explore perceptions of opinion and not influenced by others. Binding the research questions of career choices of graduates and a realist ontology can lead to objective epistemology.

In this study, the researcher selected objectivism as their epistemological position to be independent and neutral in the research. The research questions in this study do not let the researcher interact with what is being researched.

According to Brotherton (2008), the importance of objectivist and positivist research is to generate and test hypotheses that requires impartial, empirical, logical, value free scientific research. The data in this study and the findings can be regarded as objective. Positivists want to identify important factors, measure them, and compare them with previous research. The intentions of researchers involved in positivist research are to discover key factors and cause and effect relationships.

To answer the research questions in this study, a quantitative research method was applied to measure the employment patterns and career choices of a large sample of graduates who completed a degree in Bachelor of International Hospitality Management at AUT. A quantitative methodology was used to collect data from the graduates' profiles on the LinkedIn career website. The study accepts the findings generated from the data as objective reality.

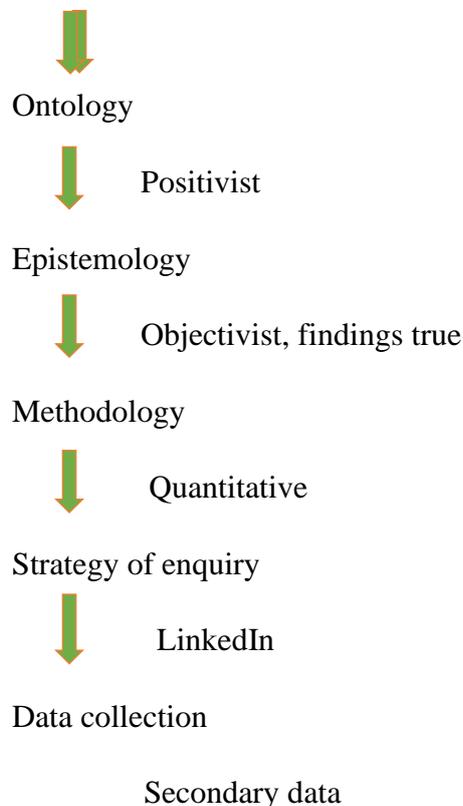
This study could be researched in a quantitative method or a qualitative method. The researcher investigated both advantages and disadvantages of qualitative methods and quantitative methods when deciding which methodology to choose.

Figure 3.1. Comparison between qualitative and quantitative research methods

Qualitative Research Method	Quantitative Research Method
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Methods include focus groups, in-depth interviews, and reviews of documents for types of themes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Surveys, structured interviews &amp; observations, and reviews of records or documents for numeric information</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Primarily inductive process used to formulate theory or hypotheses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Primarily deductive process used to test pre-specified concepts, constructs, and hypotheses that make up a theory.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More subjective: describes a problem or condition from the point of view of those experiencing it</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More objective: provides observed effects (interpreted by researchers) of a program on a problem or condition</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Text-based</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Number-based</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More in-depth information on a few cases (more and deep collect information but few cases...)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Less in-depth but more breadth of information across a large number of cases (less and shallow information but large number of cases)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fixed response options</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Unstructured or semi-structured response options</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Statistical tests are used for analysis</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>No statistical tests]</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Can be valid and reliable: largely depends on the measurement device or instrument used</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Can be valid and reliable: largely depends on skill and detail of the researcher</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Time expenditure heavier on the planning phase and lighter on the analysis phase</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Time expenditure lighter on the planning end and heavier during the analysis phase</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>More generalize</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Less generalize</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Human behavior model</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Natural science model</li> </ul>

Source: <https://majinawhkawng.weebly.com/mixed-paradigms.html>

Figure 3.2. Formulated research paradigm for this study



This of research paradigm was formulated by going through the images of the research onion.

### **3.10 Literature Supporting the Chosen Paradigm**

Brotherton (2015) and Mason (2014) state that a research paradigm needs to make sense towards the context of the phenomenon being researched. There has to be a link between ontology, epistemology and methodological outcomes. Brotherton (2008) argues that positivism is the main approach for many studies in business and management. This infers that the most common research approach in hospitality and tourism falls under positivism. Brotherton (2008) further states that researchers who use positivist approaches in the hospitality field believe that whoever involved behave in a logical, rational way with self-interest being the main motivator. Researchers using a positivist approach also believe that events can be explained by cause and effect laws (Brotherton, 2015; Mason, 2014). According to Mason (2014), positivist research is more difficult when the researcher uses research paradigms that are not easily measured.

Gray (2018) states that as an example, a positivist paradigm is the most suitable for a realist ontology and an objectivist epistemology. Positivism is the paradigm of choice for many researchers.

Denscombe (2010) argues that when research is designed, there are some important steps that must be followed. Researchers have to understand their philosophical assumptions. Out of these philosophical assumptions, positivism is one of the epistemological positions which considers that justifiable knowledge is limited to measure social phenomena (Bryman & Bell, 2011). A quantitative approach is the best method to measure social phenomena as stated by (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

### **3.11 Quantitative Research**

Positivism is one of the important research paradigms. Most positivist research makes use of a deductive research process and is most often quantitative (Brotherton, 2015; Mason, 2014). Data collection methods used for quantitative research are surveys, experiments, observations, and content analysis. When analysing quantitative data, the data will be numerical. Simple maths and more advanced statistical analysis can be used to explore commonalities or patterns in the data. The results are generally recorded in graphs and tables using Microsoft Excel or SPSS (Brotherton, 2015; Gray, 2018; Mason, 2014).

Scientific enquiry and theory development normally originate from deductive and inductive approaches. Quantitative research is mainly associated with deductive theory testing. With a deductive approach, investigating the objective features of the data, can adopt a positivist paradigm. A positivist paradigm can be defined as generating knowledge through collecting and analysing facts (Brotherton, 2015; Gray, 2018; Mason, 2014). In quantitative research, researchers and subjects are independent and there is less investigator influence. The validity of the findings are firm, and findings can be viewed as true (Mason, 2014). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) state that traditional approaches to research in social sciences, such as in the hospitality sector, have traditionally been positivist and quantitative. This study can also be termed secondary research. According to Mason (2014), secondary research uses previously published material. This type of research normally involves a new kind of analysis or a re-interpretation of what has been already published. Secondary research is also known as theoretical research.

### **3.12 Data Collection**

The amount of secondary data available for researchers through online databases and websites is increasing rapidly. Researchers have a sea of data available. Due to the large availability of secondary data, researchers can experience problems finding relevant data easily and quickly (Schuster et al., 2014). Schuster et al. further states that with more information and data available, technology, digital devices, people using more powerful devices and more people are interacting with information. Digital information increases ten-fold every five years. There has been a rapid shift from information scarcity to information overload. Secondary data also help researchers spend less time collecting data and more time analysing data.

Schuster et al. (2014) argue that using secondary data will create a better research project. Secondary data costs much less to acquire than primary data, is much quicker than any other data collection method saving valuable time, and sometimes it is not possible for researchers to collect quantity of primary data that is available through secondary sources. Collies and Hussey (2009) state that a researcher can analyse the data in a more efficient and effective manner, because the data can be pre-coded in advance by a previous researcher.

For this study, existing data was gathered from LinkedIn, a professional online social media network. All data sourced is secondary data from profiles in the LinkedIn network.

### **3.13 Data Collection Method**

LinkedIn is the world's largest professional online social network with more than 675 million members worldwide. In New Zealand, by 2019, there were more than 2 million LinkedIn users. LinkedIn connects professionals to make them more productive and successful. LinkedIn is an employment-oriented network service that provides a website and mobile app, and allows both employers and job seekers to make profiles and build connections with each other (LinkedIn, n.d.). LinkedIn represents the real world of professional relationships and is used for professional networking, and involves employers posting job advertisements and employment seekers posting their CVs. A LinkedIn profile is a professional landing page for any user and can be managed by the profile owner. LinkedIn is the best way for people to tell employers who you are and what you do, by telling people about your academic career, professional career, experiences, and achievements. LinkedIn can also be used for people to search for people, companies, advertising, training, and to use as an address book, to establish a professional identity, and provide group collaboration (LinkedIn, n.d.).

All data was collected from existing profiles of Bachelor of International Hospitality Management graduates from the AUT alumni group. The criteria to select data was graduates from 2008-2018. There were only 130 graduate profiles for the period of 2008-2018 available in the data base.

The researcher developed a self-administered method to collect existing data from selected graduate profiles. All participants were selected using a relevant criterion for the study's objectives by creating a purposive sample. The data collected were: 1. Name; 2. Gender; 3. Domestic or international student; 4. Year graduated; 5. Type of employment during studies as an undergraduate; 6. Chosen employment sector after graduating; 6. Roles entered in the hospitality industry after graduation; 7. Length of stay at first place of employment after graduation; 8. Job advancement at first workplace; 9. Which sector did graduates move to from hospitality; and 10. Time spent in the hospitality industry.

### **3.14 Sampling Strategy**

A sample is a representative group of respondents taken from a larger population and the population can vary in size. The importance of using a representative group is that when the results are presented, the researcher wants to feel reasonably satisfied that what was found can

be generalisable to the overall population. If not, the sample results are close as possible to be exact as the entire population would have acknowledged. If the researcher had the time and resources, it is possible to approach the whole population (Brotherton, 2015; Creswell, 2014; Mason, 2014). Ryan (1995) outlines a few steps to ensure that a sample is representative of the population. The sampling unit needs to be distinctly identified. In most tourism research, the sampling unit is an individual. The next step is the relevance of the sampling frame which is a list of various units. This study targeted a specific academic qualification-the Bachelor of International Hospitality Management degree.

The LinkedIn network has a population of 70,200 plus members in the AUT alumni group. From this population, 44,753 members completed a degree (any type of study) during the period 2008-2018. The researcher selected a sample of 130 profiles who completed a Bachelor of International Hospitality Management degree at AUT. A cross section of the hospitality industry is represented in this population. Most of the graduate population were based in New Zealand and some were based overseas. The population was well spread throughout different hospitality departments such as rooms division, food and beverage, reservations, sales and marketing, and human resources.

### **3.15 Reliability and Validity**

The use of reliability and validity is strongly connected with positivist paradigms and are very common in quantitative research. Reliability and validity are essential tools when using a positivist epistemology (Golafshani, 2003). Golafshani defines reliability as the degree to which results are consistent during a time period, and how representative the sample of a study is. If the results of the study can be reproduced with the same methodology, then the research instrument is regarded reliable. There are three types of reliability attached to quantitative research. These are:

1. The degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same.
2. The stability of a measurement over time.
3. The similarity of measurements within a given time period.

A high degree of stability means a high degree of reliability, which indicates that results are repeatable (Golafshani, 2003).

Validity is rooted in positivist traditions, and to a certain extent, positivism can be defined by a systematic theory of validity. Validity determines if the research really measures what was intended to measure or how real the results are (Golafshani, 2003).

Golafshani (2003) further argues that in a positivist tradition, validity resides amongst the result and culmination of other conceptions, which are evidence, truth, deduction, reason, actuality, objectivity, universal laws, facts, and mathematical data. In this study, the findings were reliable. Validity is one of the main goals of quantitative research. From a quantitative perspective, reliability means that the results are replicable, and validity is mainly concerned with the accuracy of the measurement used (Golafshani, 2003)

### **3.16 Research Ethics**

The researcher for this study did not apply for ethics approval from the AUT ethics committee as obtaining ethics approval was not a requirement. The researcher did not contact any participant for the purpose of collecting data. All data collected was secondary data and was sourced directly from LinkedIn. Any member who has a professional membership profile in the LinkedIn network can search other LinkedIn members' profiles. The researcher used LinkedIn and collected all the necessary data from existing graduate profiles who had completed a Bachelor of International Hospitality Management degree during 2008\*2018. Although the researcher did not seek ethics approval for this study, it is the sole responsibility of the researcher to maintain confidentiality of the data sourced from LinkedIn and how the findings are reported. Finally, as Creswell (2014) notes in order to assure that no deception occurs and to maintain the researcher's integrity, the data cannot be misinterpreted to meet a specific need.

### **3.17 Data Analysis**

The analysis of data collected from LinkedIn was conducted using SPSS. SPSS is used for many types of research including complex data analysis. This is a very useful tool because of its generalisation and helps the researcher to specify what the researcher want to do.

For this study, the statistical analyses used were frequency distribution analysis, cross tabulation analysis, and chi-square tests.

### **Frequency Distribution Analysis**

Babbie et al. (2015) define frequency distribution as a “numeric display of number of times (frequencies) and relative percentage of time each value of a variable occurs in a given sample” (p. 56). A frequency distribution is an overview of all distinct values in a variable and how many times they occur. This explains how frequencies are distributed over values. Babbie et al. (2019) further explain that frequency distribution analysis is extremely useful when evaluating frequency distribution of scores. Frequency distribution analysis can be used to produce descriptive statistics that can be clearly presented in the form of pie charts, bar charts, line charts and frequency tables. Frequency distribution analyses were often used to produce descriptive statistics in this study, as it helped to identify a graduate’s statistical data relating to the population, and sample groups attitudes towards working in the hospitality industry.

### **Cross Tabulation Analysis**

According to Babbie et al. (2015), a cross tabulation is a matrix that shows the distribution of one variable for each category of a second variable. Cross tabulation is a method to quantitatively analyse relationships among multiple variables. Babbie et al. (2015), describe that cross tabulations also show when a correlation changes from one variable grouping to another. Cross tabulations help researchers examine relationships within data that may not be readily apparent when analysing total data responses. Cross tabulation analysis of two variables is considered as the most simple type of cross tabulation. Bivariate analysis involves a cross tabulation analysis between an independent variable and a dependent variable. Cross tabulation analysis was conducted to analyse graduates’ career choices in the hospitality industry and demographic profiles.

### **Chi-Square Tests**

Babbie et al. (2015) state that chi-square is a measure based on cross tabulations. Chi-square is widely used for tests of significance, is most relevant for nominal items, and can be used with ordinal variables or a mix of nominal and ordinal variables. The data used in a chi-square calculation should be random, raw, and mutually exclusive from independent variables and from a larger sample. Babbie et al. (2015) further clarify that the null hypothesis of a chi-square test is that no relationship exists on the categorical variables in the population and that they are independent. The use of a *p*-value can help researchers determine the significance of the results.

In statistics, a  $p$ -value indicates the probability of getting results as extreme as the observed results statistical hypothesis test, assuming that null hypothesis is correct. A  $p$ -value helps determine the likelihood of determining the probability of assuming the null hypothesis is true. A  $p$ -value can help to observe more critical test statistics in the direction of an alternative hypothesis than the observed result. A  $p$ -value is a number between 0 and 1 and a  $p$ -value less than 0.05 is statistically significant. A  $p$ -value indicates strong evidence against the null hypothesis. A low  $p$ -value means there is a higher chance of the hypothesis being true. A low  $p$ -value ( $< 0.05$ ) indicates strong evidence against the null hypothesis, so you can reject the null hypothesis whereas, a high  $p$ -value ( $>0.05$ ) indicates weak evidence against the null hypothesis, and you fail to reject the null hypothesis.

## Chapter 4 Findings

This chapter presents the findings of the quantitative data collected from LinkedIn relating to hospitality graduates. This section begins with an overview of the graduates' demographics, employment, promotions, and career aspirations. The chapter concludes by providing a summary of all findings and factors relevant to the graduates and research questions.

All data was obtained from AUT alumni on the LinkedIn website. The total membership of AUT alumni on LinkedIn was 77,536. After filtering this membership, 17,078 had a bachelor's degree and 1,745 had a Bachelor of International Hospitality Management/Tourism degree. This sample comprised 131 graduates who graduated with a Bachelor of International Hospitality Management degree between 2008 and 2018. All 131 member graduates data information was valid with no missing values.

All of the findings of frequency distribution analyses and cross tabulation analyses are recorded in the form of percentages with decimal numbers rounded. All *p*-values and explanations are shown in the original way with relevant decimal points without any alterations as shown in the Chi-square tables.

Table 4.1

Statistics		
N	Valid	131
	Missing	0
Mean		.72
Median		1.00

## 4.1 Demographic Findings

Figure 0.4. Frequency distribution of male and female graduates

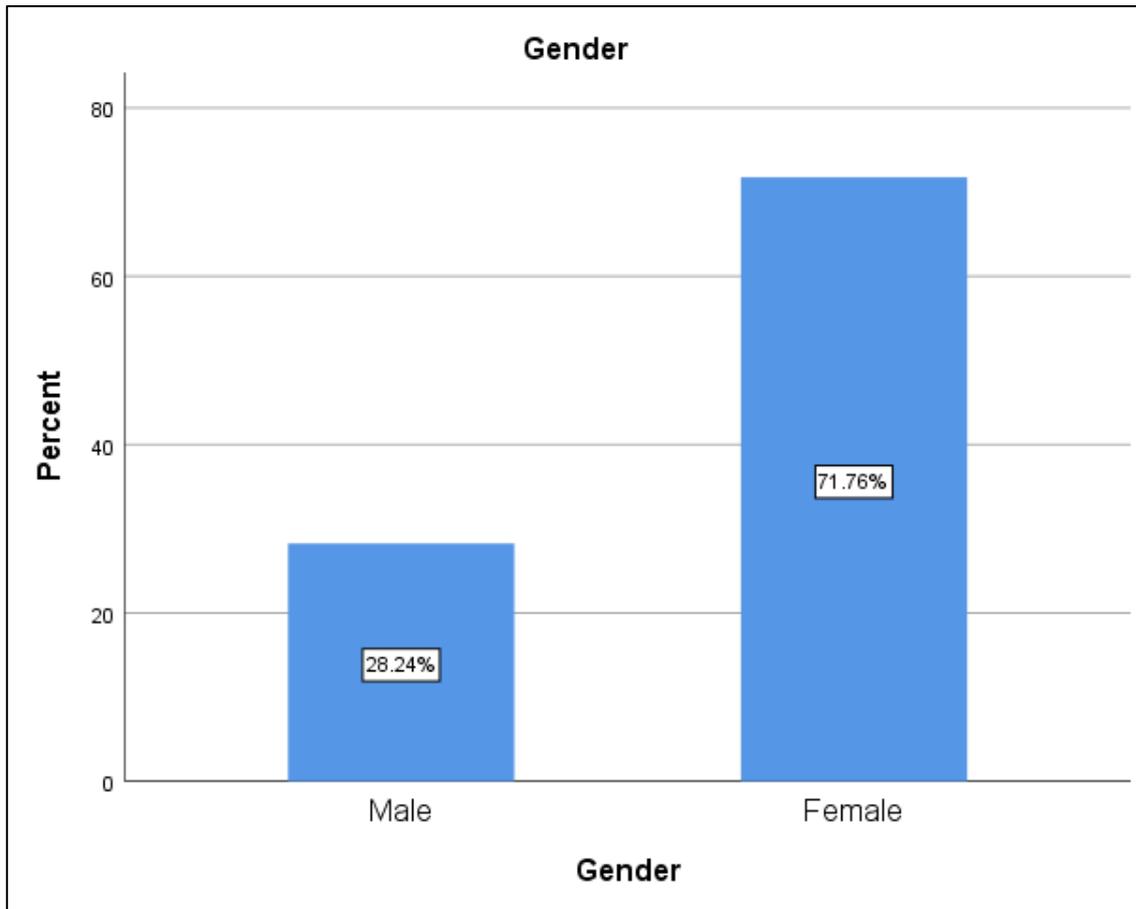


Figure 4.1 shows the frequency distribution of male and female graduates. There were 72% female graduates and 28% male graduates. There were 42% more female graduates than males.

Figure 0.5. Frequency distribution of domestic and international graduates

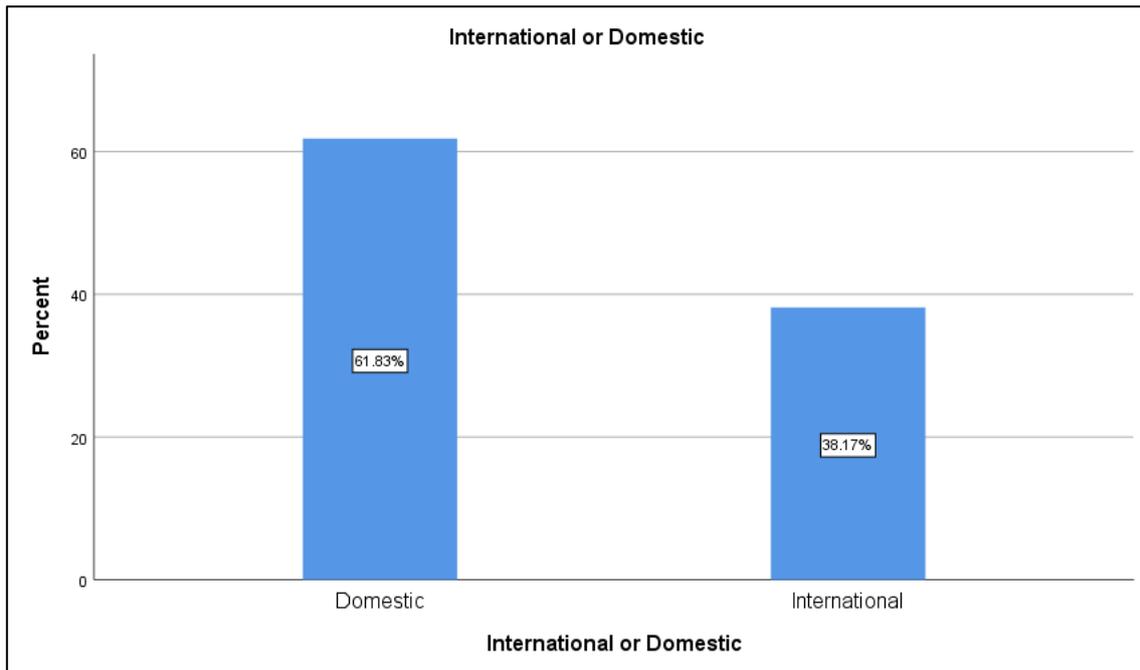


Figure 4.2 shows the frequency distribution of domestic and international graduates, comprising 62% domestic graduates and 38% international graduates. There were 24% more domestic graduates than international graduates.

Figure 0.6. Cross tabulation of gender and international or domestic graduates

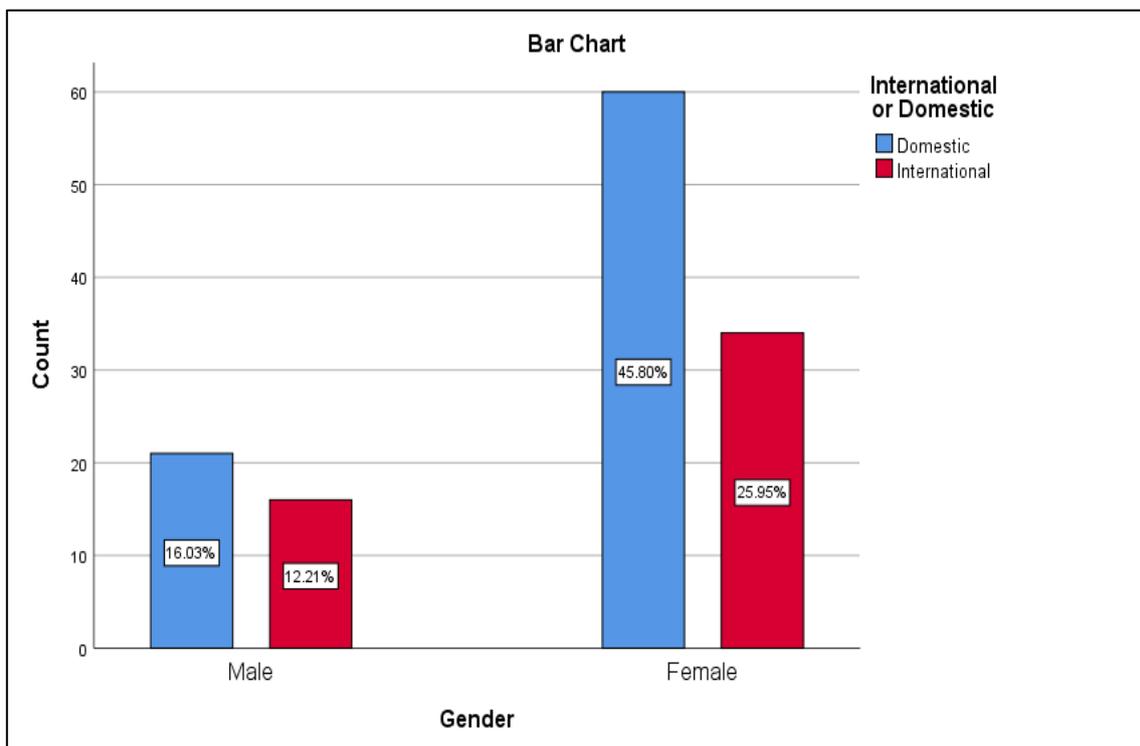


Figure 4.3 presents a cross tabulation of gender verses domestic and international graduates' results. Out of 72% female graduates, 46% were domestic females and 26% were international female graduates. Of the 28% male graduates, 16% were domestic males and 12% were international males.

## 4.2 Employment Sector During Studies

Figure 0.7. Frequency distribution of graduates' employment sector during studies

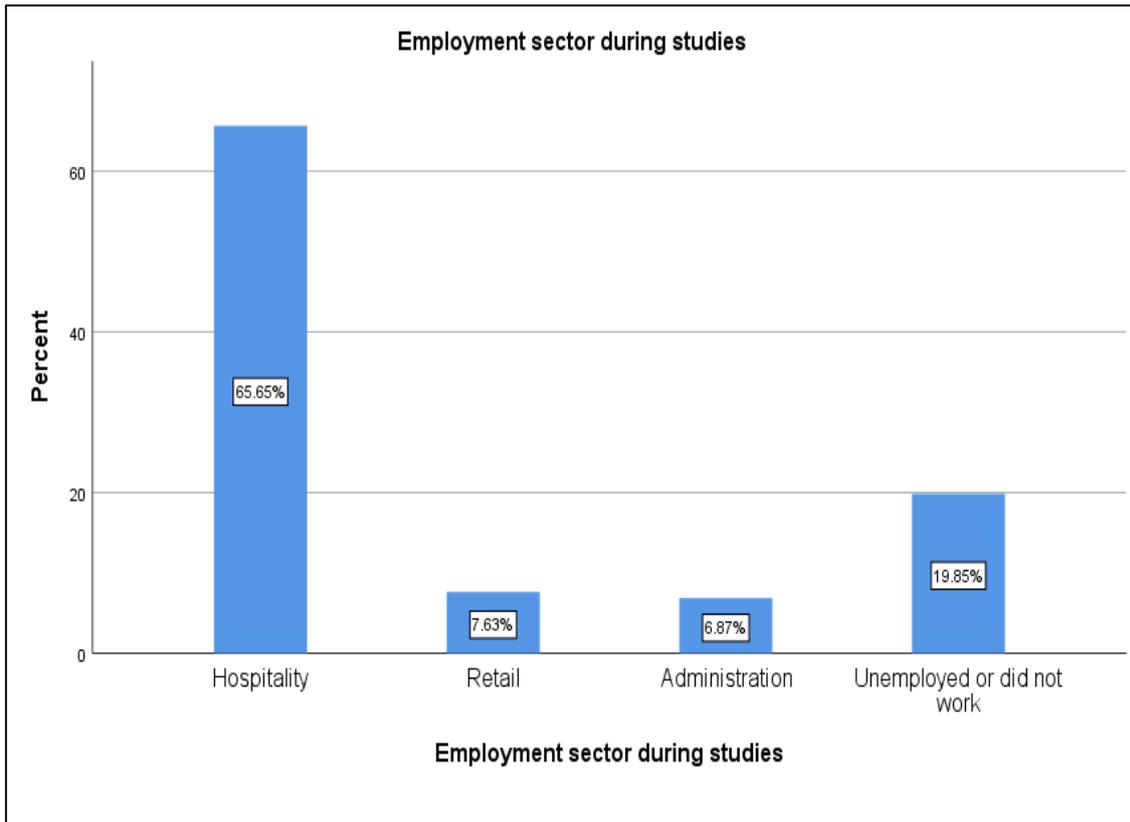
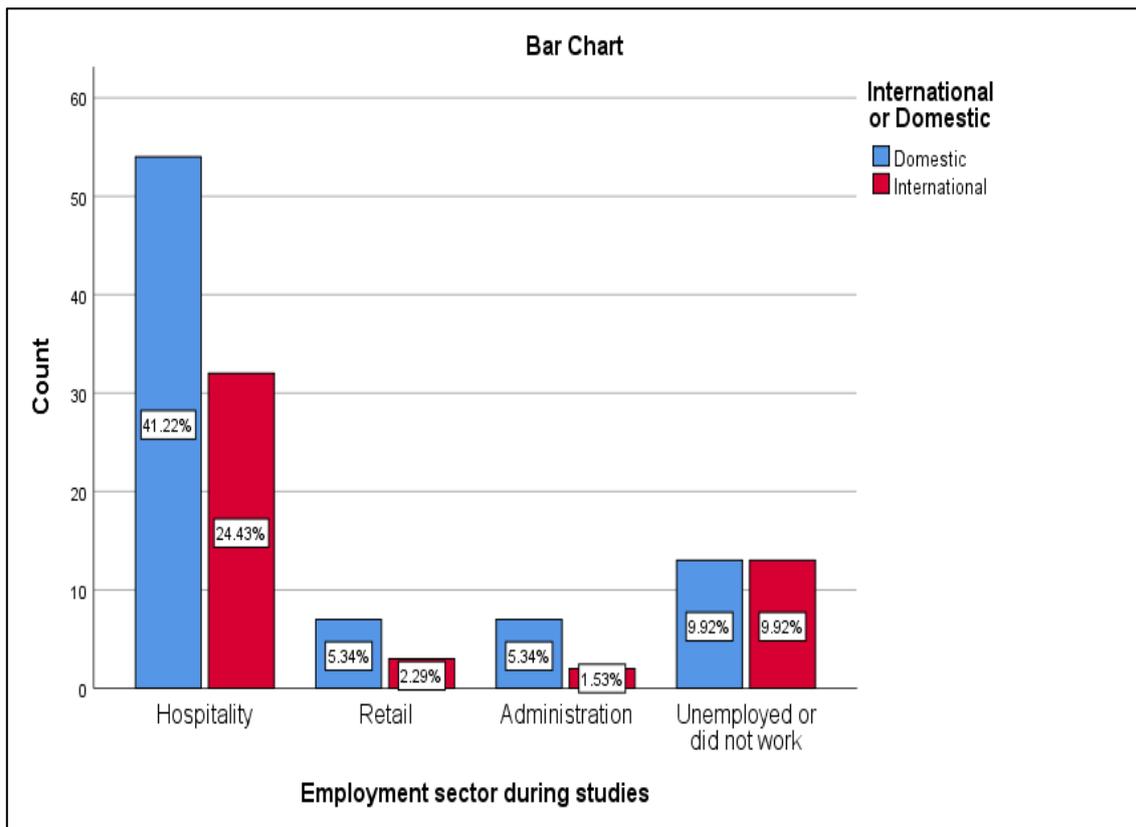


Figure 4.4 shows that 66% graduates chose to be employed in the hospitality sector during their studies with 7% choosing to work in the retail industry, 7% working in administrative jobs, and 20% were unemployed or did not work during their studies. A total of 80% of graduates were in employment during their studies.

Figure 0.8. Cross tabulation of graduates' employment sector during studies and international vs domestic students



The majority of domestic and international students were employed in the hospitality sector (41% and 24% respectively) as shown in Figure 4.5. That is 66% of domestic and 62% of international graduates working in the hospitality sector during their studies when compared with Figure 4.2. The retail sector employed 5% of domestic and 2% of international graduates during their studies. In administration roles, 5% of domestic and 2% of international graduates were employed during their studies, and 10% of both domestic and international students were unemployed or did not work.

Figure 0.9. Cross-tabulation of gender and graduates' employment sector during studies

The Chi-square test gave a  $p$ -value of .032 and was statistically significant.

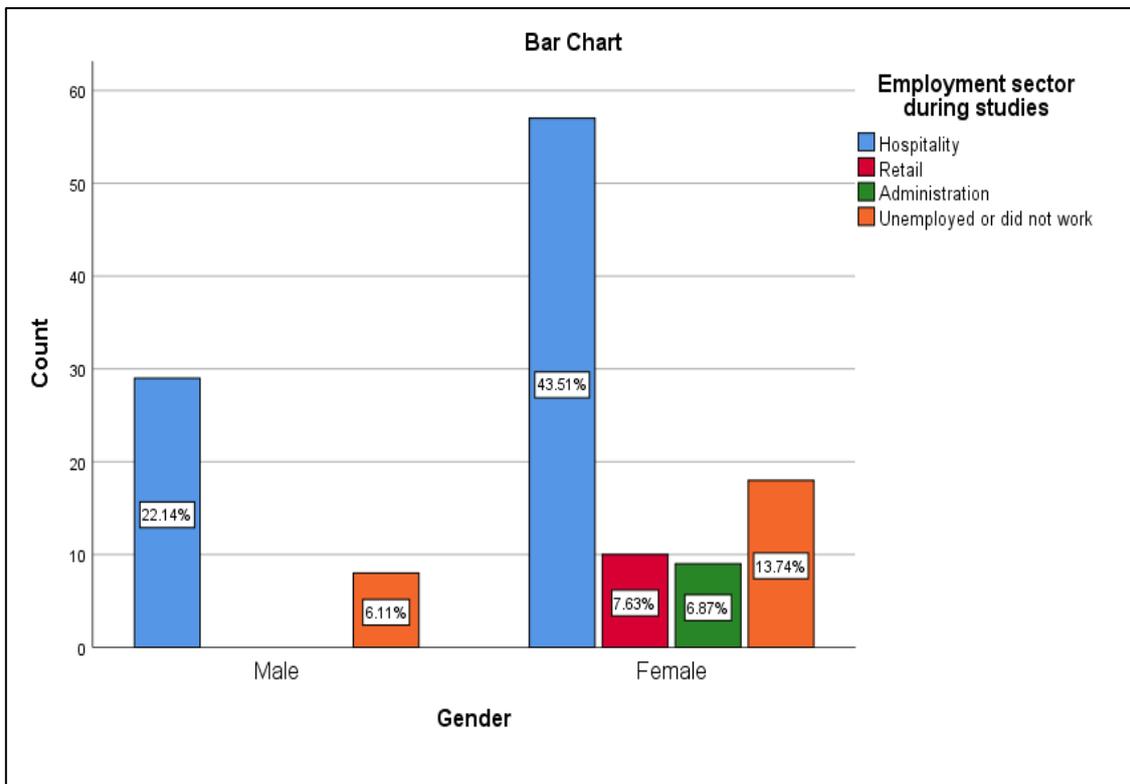


Figure 4.6 shows that 22% of males were employed in the hospitality industry and 6% of males were unemployed during their studies. 44% of females were employed in the hospitality sector, 8% were employed in the retail sector, 7% were employed in administrative work, and 14% were unemployed or did not work.

The chi-square test for the above was valid as two cells had an expected count of less than 5. The chi-square value was 8.833 with a degree of freedom of 3. The  $p$ -value was .032 which is less than 0.05. Therefore, the relationship between gender and employment sector during their studies was statistically significant at the .032 level. There is strong confidence that more female graduates are interested in hospitality work and in other sectors as well, and that male graduates worked only in hospitality.

### 4.3 Employment Sector After Graduation

Figure 0.10. Frequency distribution of graduates' employment sector after graduation

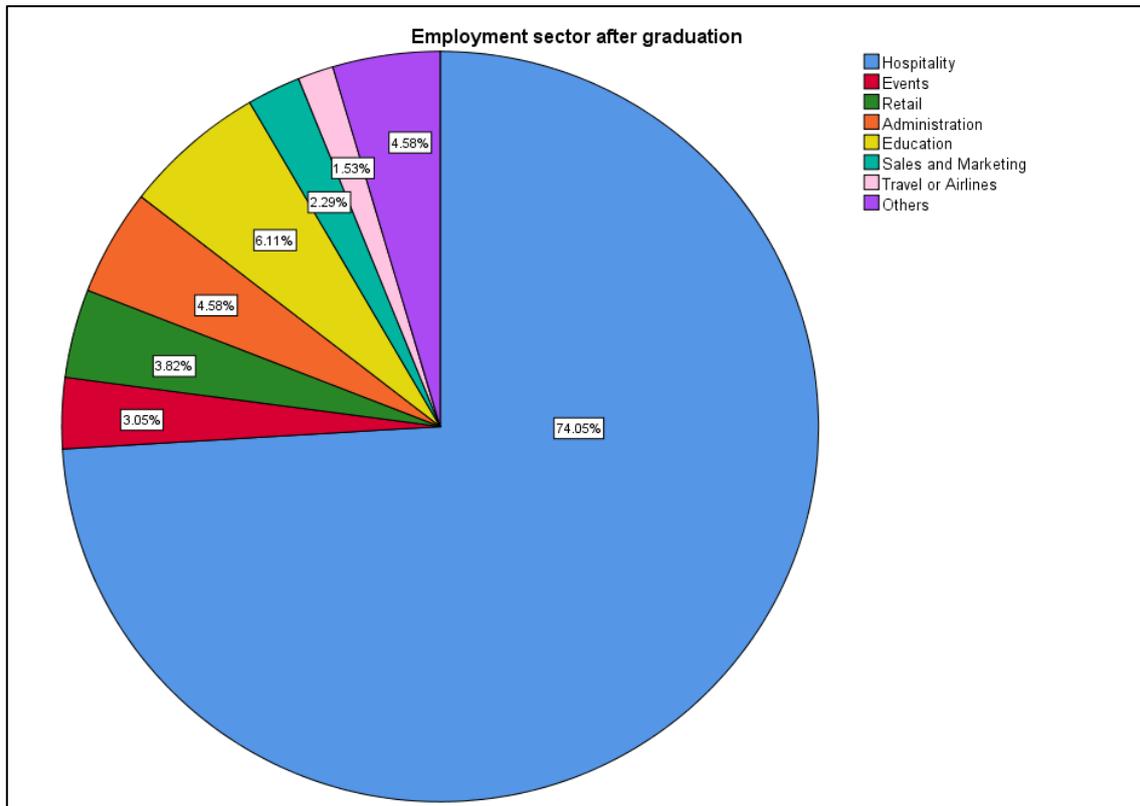


Figure 4.7 shows what employment sectors the graduates chose to work in after graduating. 74% of graduates decided to work in the hospitality sector as soon as they graduated, 26% decided not to work in the hospitality sector after graduation, 3% were employed in events, 4% were employed in retail, 5% were employed in administrative jobs, 6% were employed in education, 2% were employed in sales, marketing, and advertising, 1% were employed in travel and airlines, and 5% were employed in other sectors such as telecommunications, logistics, and finance.

Figure 0.11. Cross tabulation of gender and employment sector after graduating

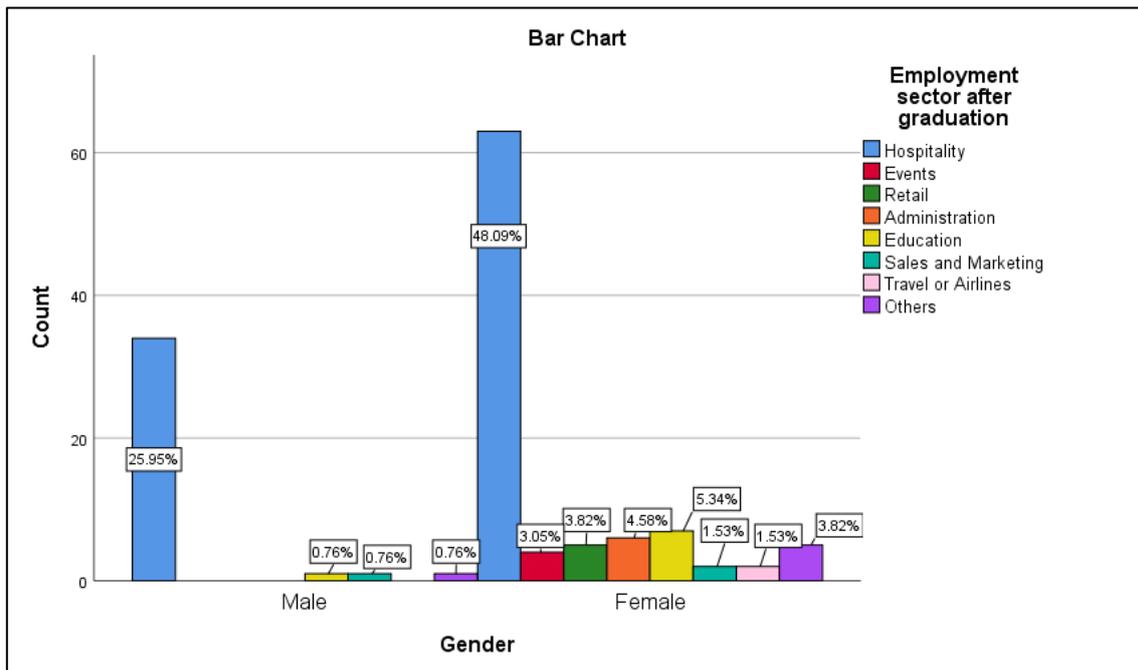


Figure 4.8 shows that 26% of male graduates chose hospitality work, 1% were employed in the education sector, 1% were employed in the sales sector, and 1% were employed in other sectors. 48% of female graduates joined hospitality work, 3% were employed in events, 4% were employed in retail work, 5% were employed in administrative work, 5% were employed in education, 1% were employed in sales and marketing, 1% were employed in the travel or airline sector, and 4% were employed in other sectors.

Figure 0.12. Cross tabulation of employment sector after graduating for international and domestic graduates

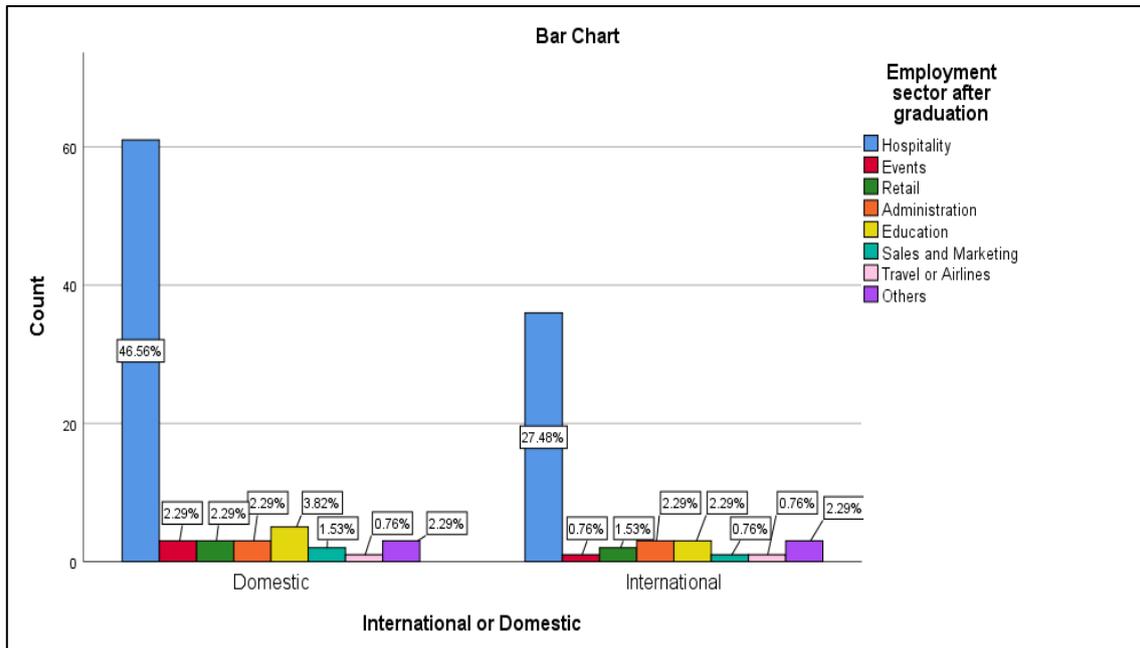


Figure 4.9 shows that from the domestic graduates, 47% selected hospitality work after graduation, 2% selected events, 2% selected retail work, 3% selected administrative work, 4% selected the education sector, 1% selected sales and marketing, 1% were selected travel or airlines, and 3% selected other employment sectors. From the international students, 27% selected hospitality work, 1% selected events, 2% were selected retail, 2% selected administrative work, 2% selected the education sector, 1% selected sales and marketing, and 2% selected other employment sectors.

#### 4.4 Roles entered in the Hospitality Sector

Figure 0.13. Hospitality sector roles that graduates entered into after graduation

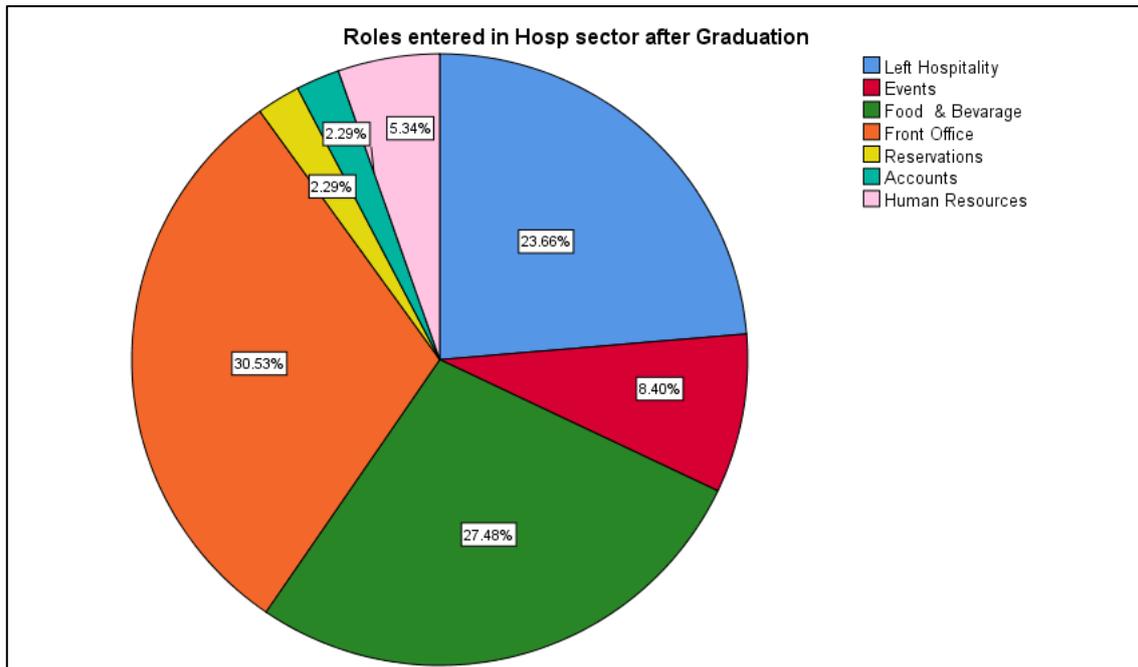


Figure 4.10 shows what roles the graduates entered into after graduating. 31% of graduates entered into employment in front office, 28% entered food and beverage, 8% entered events, 5% entered human resources, 2% entered reservations and 2% entered accounts. 24% of graduates left the hospitality industry.

Figure 0.14. Hospitality sector roles entered into by domestic and international graduates

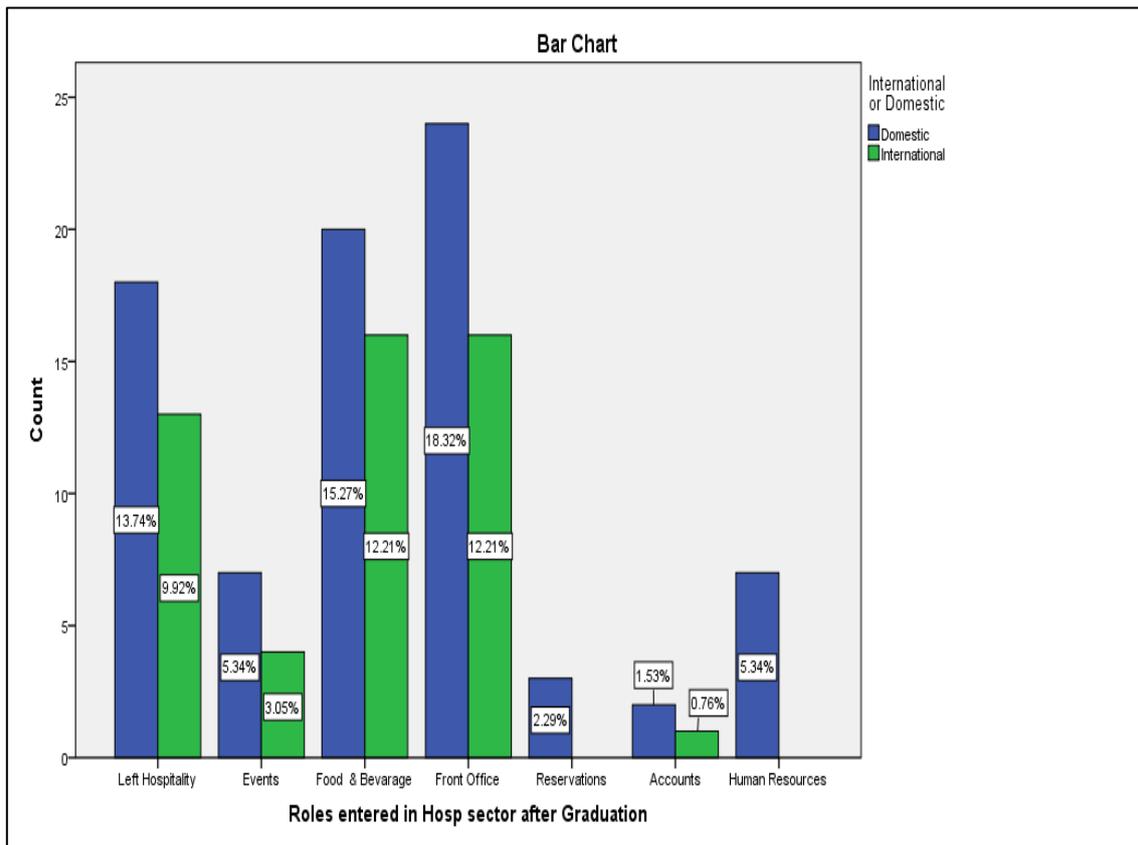


Figure 4.11 shows us that 18% of domestic and 12% of international graduates preferred employment in the front office, and 16% of domestic and 12% international graduates preferred to work in the food and beverage department. This is a total of 58% of all graduates. 5% of domestic and 3% of international graduates selected events and 1% selected accounts. From the domestic graduates, 5% chose human resources, 2% chose reservations and 2% chose accounts. A total of 24% of graduates left the hospitality sector after graduating, out of which 14% were domestic and 10% were international graduates.

Figure 0.15. Gender vs hospitality roles that graduates entered

The chi-square test gave a  $p$ -value of .014 and was statistically significant.

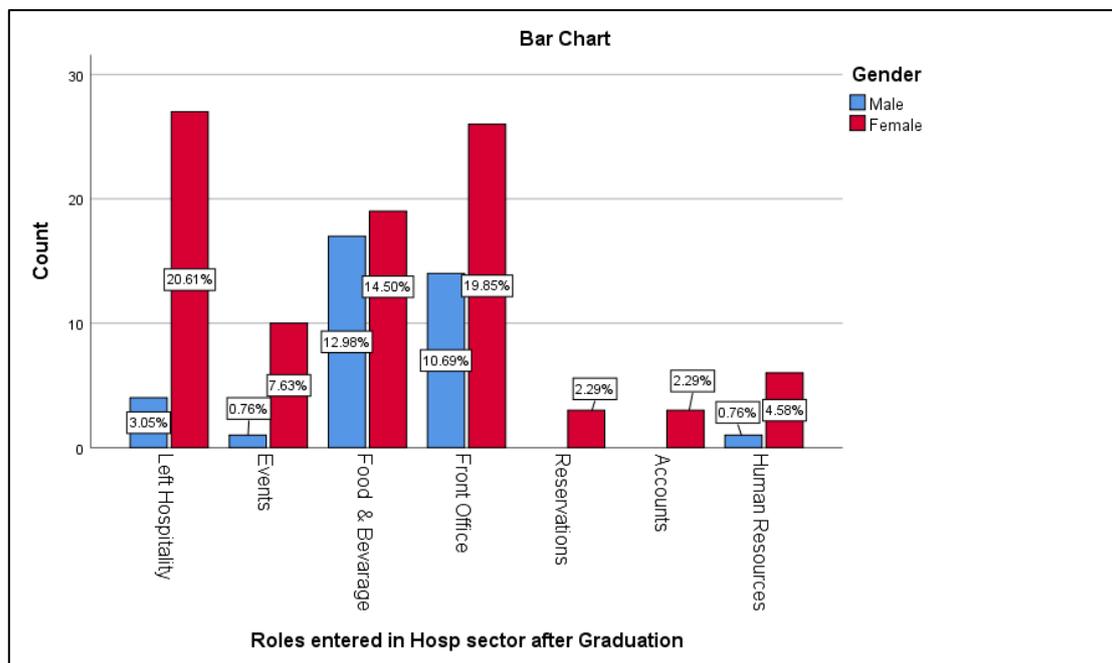


Figure 4.12 shows the employment roles in the hospitality sector that different genders chose. 13% of male graduates selected roles in the food and beverage department and 11% selected roles in the front office. 3% of male graduates left hospitality, 1% selected events, and 1% selected human resources roles.

Out of the female graduates', 20% selected front office roles, followed by food and beverage with 14%, 8% chose events, 4% chose human resources, 2% chose reservations and 2% chose accounts. 21% of female graduates left the hospitality industry after graduating.

The chi-square test with six cells had an expected count less than 5 and was valid. The Chi-square value was 15.924 with a degree of freedom of 6. The  $p$ -value was .014 which is less than 0.05. Therefore, the results indicate that the relationship between gender and the hospitality roles they entered into after graduation was statistically significant at .014. This means that we can generalise that males are more likely to work in the hospitality sector than females after graduating. Most of the male graduates preferred to work in the front office and food and beverage departments. Female graduates looked into employment opportunities in all departments in the hospitality sector. More female graduates left the hospitality sector than male graduates.

## 4.5 Length of Stay at First Place of Employment

Figure 0.16. Graduates' length of stay at first place of employment

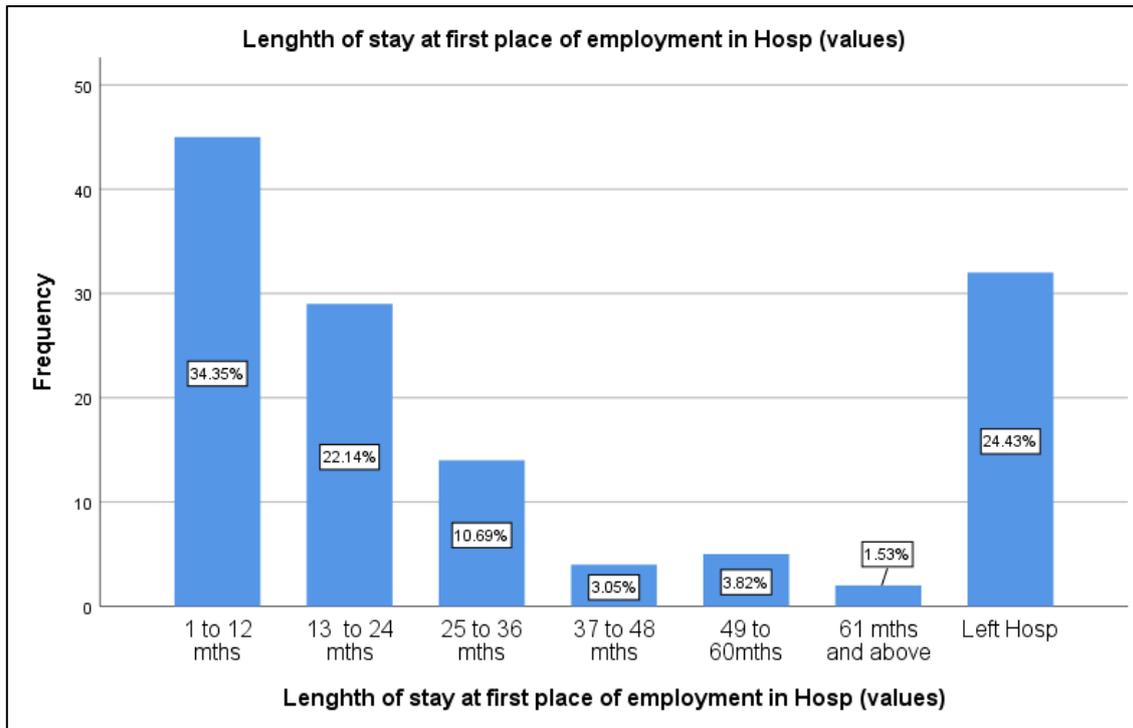


Figure 4.13 shows details of graduates' length of stay at their first workplace. 34% of graduates left their first place of employment within one year, 22% decided to leave their employer within two years, 11% left their employers within three years, 3% left their employers within four years, 4% of graduates left their employers within five years, and 2% left their employers after six years. 24% of graduates left the hospitality industry after graduating.

Figure 0.17. Length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality by gender

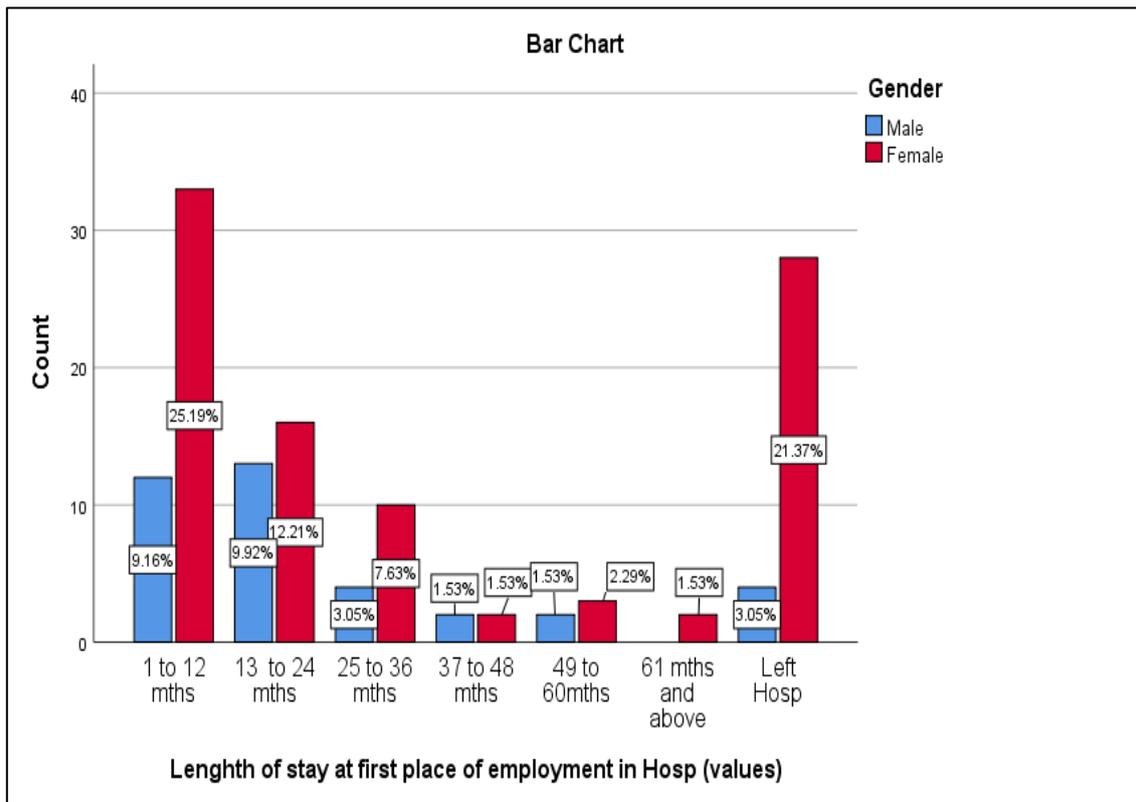
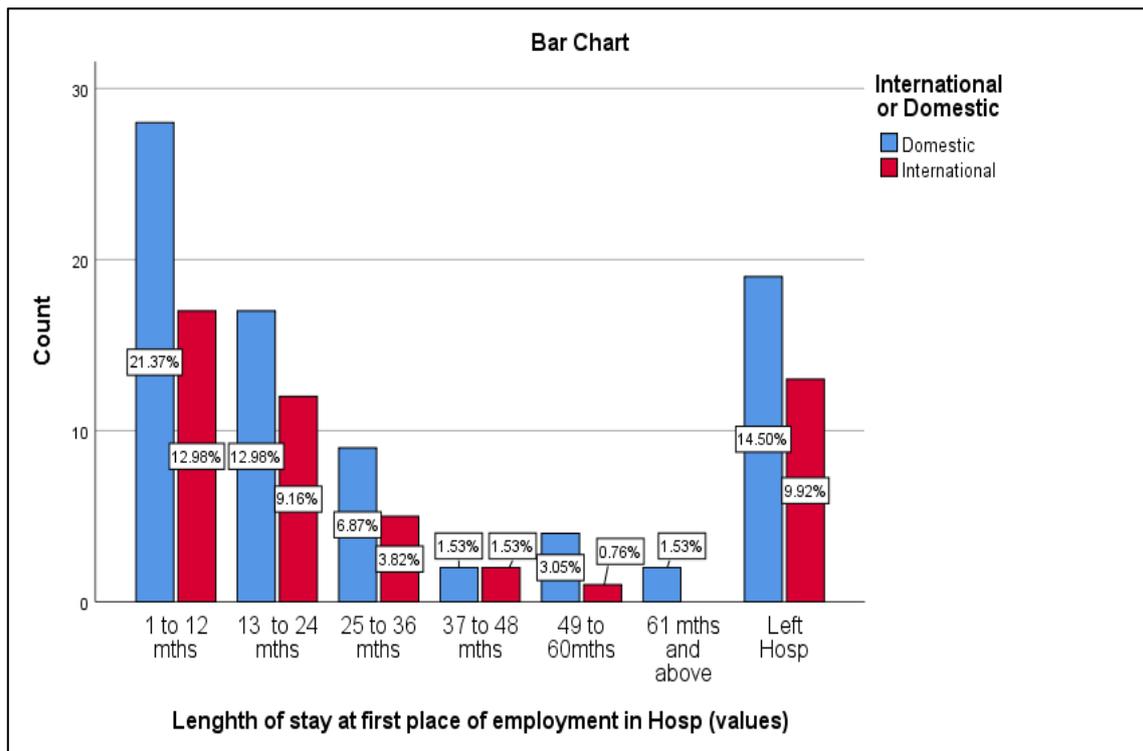


Figure 4.14 shows that 9% of male and 25% of female graduates left their employer in the first year, 10% males and 12% females left their employer within the second year, 3% of males and 8% of females left their employer within three years, 1% of male and female graduates left their employer within four years, 1% of male and 2% of female graduates left their employer within five years. 3% male and 21% female graduates left hospitality after graduating.

Figure 0.18. Length of stay of domestic and international graduates at first place of employment in hospitality



In the first year of employment as per Figure 4.15, 21% of domestic and 13% of international graduates left their first place of employment. In their second year, 13% of domestic and 9% of international graduates left their employment, in their third year, 7% of domestic and 4% of international graduates left their employer. In their fourth year, 2% domestic and international graduates left their employment. In their fifth year, 3% of domestic and 1% of international graduates left their employer. 14% of domestic and 10% of international graduates left hospitality after graduating.

## 4.6 Advancement at First of Employment

Figure 0.19. Graduates' job advancement at first place of employment

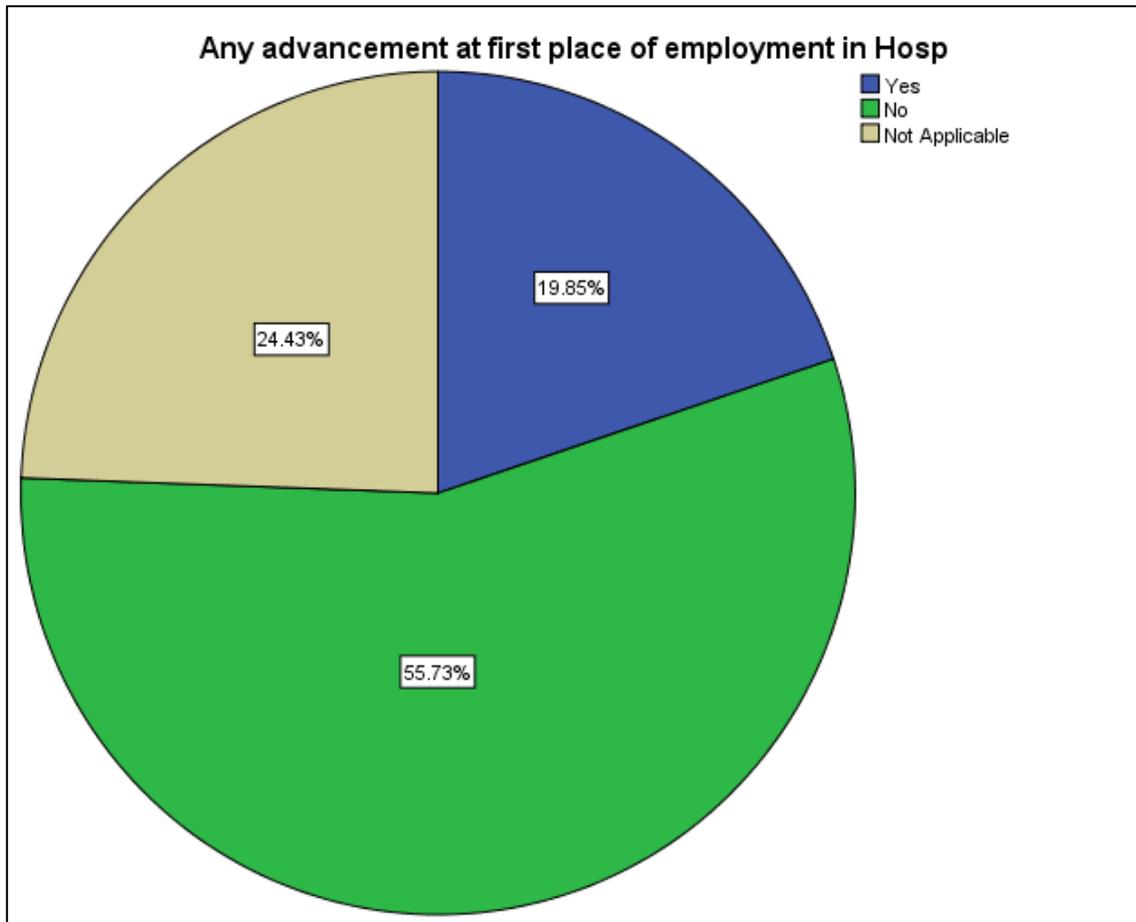


Figure 4.16 shows that 20% of graduates employed in the hospitality sector had an advancement within their first place of employment, 56% of the hospitality sector employed graduates did not have any advancement during their first place of employment, and 24% left the hospitality industry.

Figure 0.20. Graduates' gender vs job advancement at first place of employment

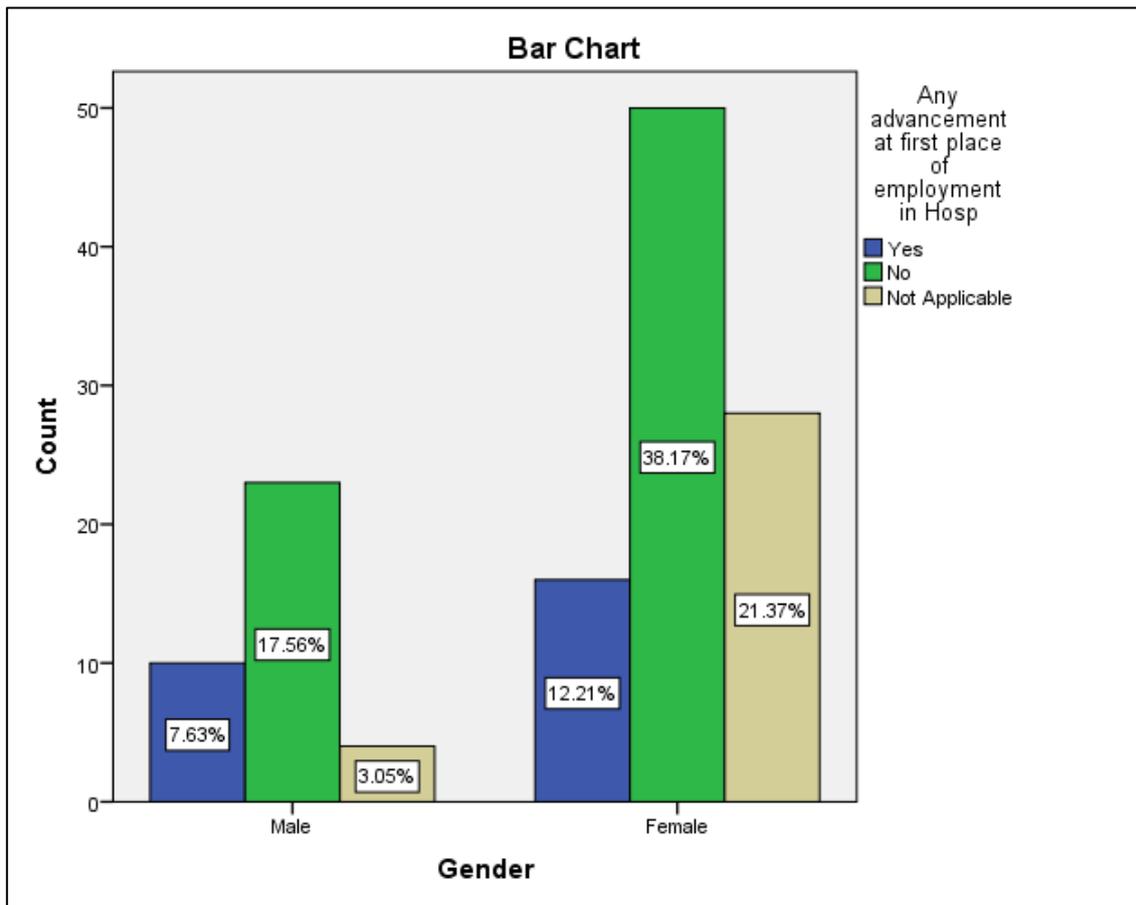


Figure 4.17 shows that 8% of males advanced at their first place of employment, 18% of males did not get an opportunity for job advancement, and 3% of males left the hospitality industry. 12% of females advanced at their first place of employment and 38% of females did not get an opportunity for job advancement. 21% of female graduates left hospitality industry.

Figure 0.21. Domestic or international graduates' vs job advancement at first place of employment

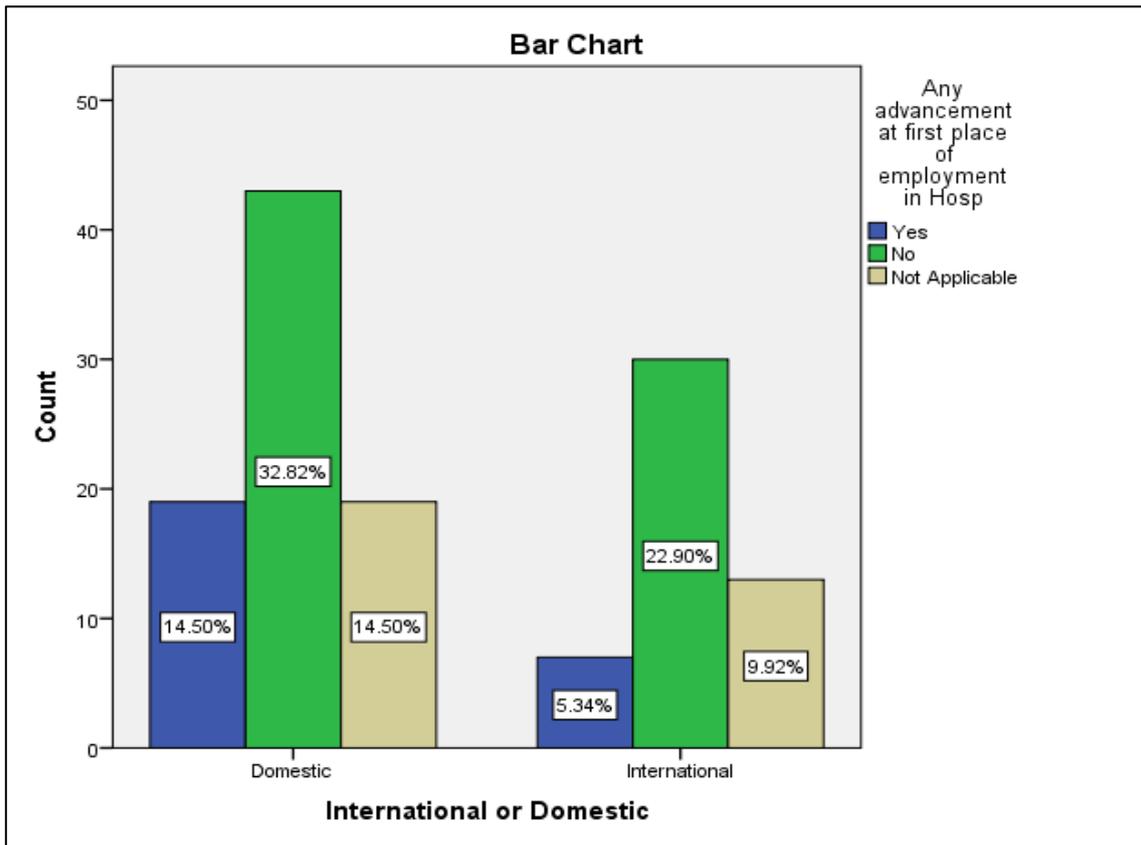


Figure 4.18 shows that 15% of domestic graduates advanced in their first place of employment, 33% did not get any chance for job advancement, and 14% left the hospitality sector. 5% international graduates advanced at their first employment, and 23% did not get an opportunity for advancement. 10% of international graduates left the hospitality industry.

Figure 0.22. Job advancement at first place of employment

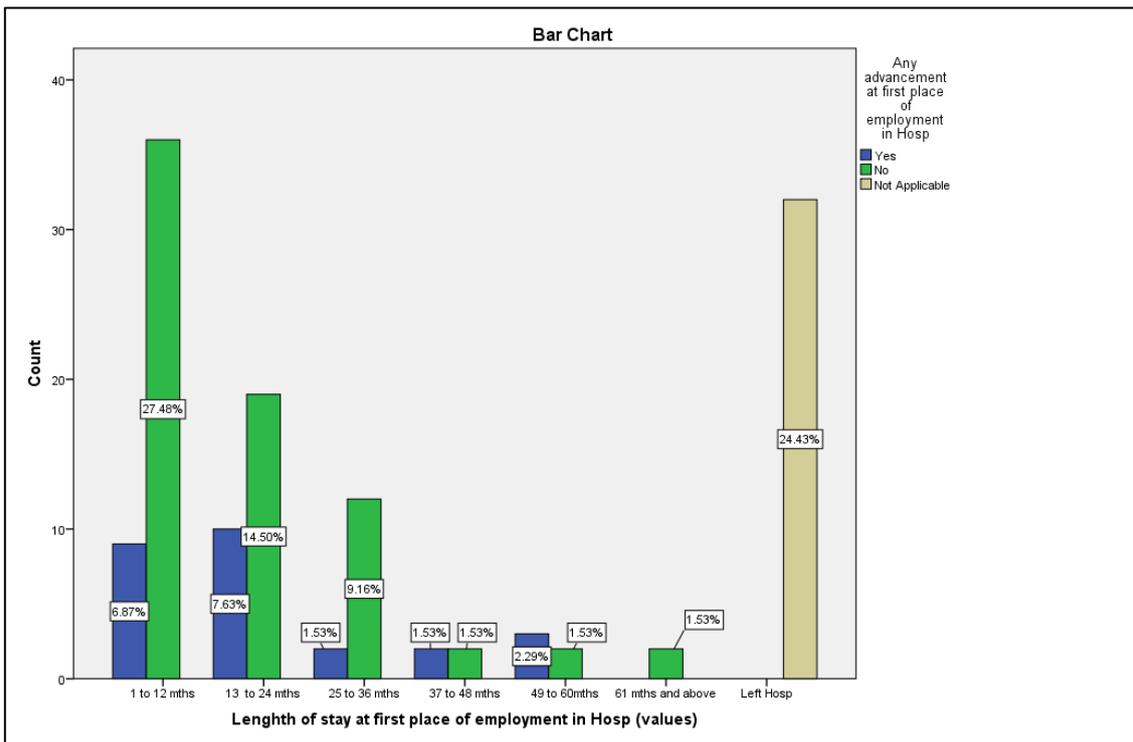


Figure 4.19 shows that 7% of the graduates had job advancement in their first year and 8% had a job advancement in their second year. 3% had job advancement in their third and fourth years followed by 2% experiencing job advancement in their fifth year.

## 4.7 Time Spent in Hospitality After Graduation

Figure 0.23. Time spent in hospitality after graduating, before leaving hospitality

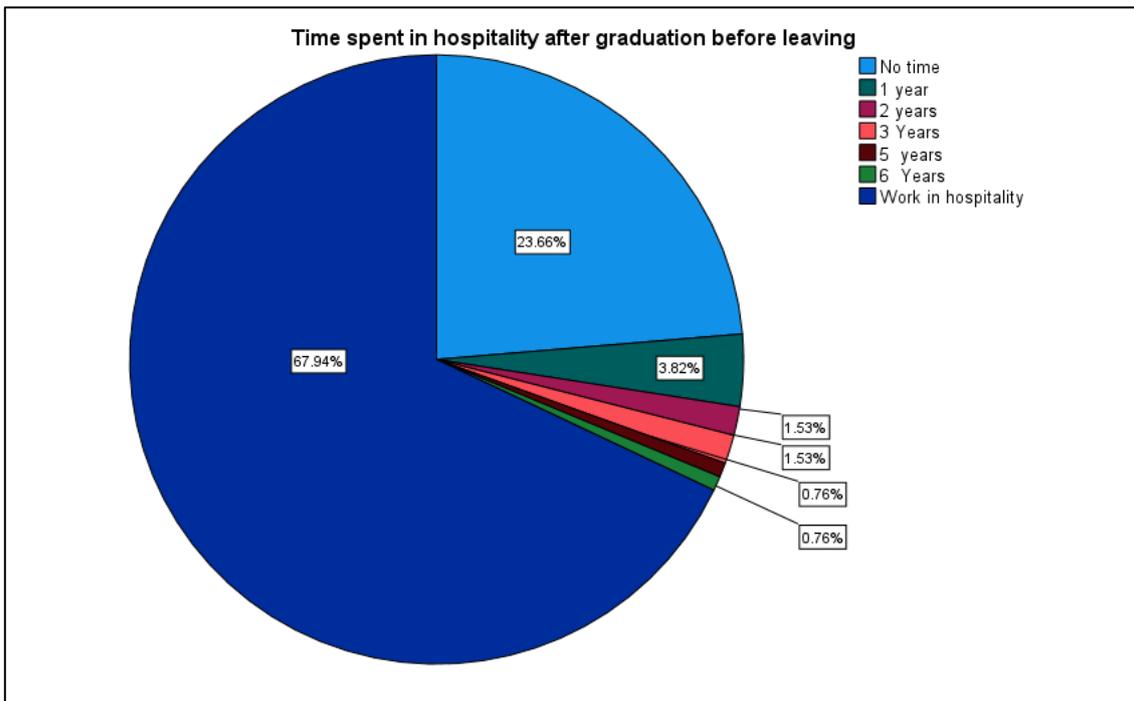


Figure 4.20 shows that 68% of the graduates were currently employed in the hospitality sector with 24% leaving the hospitality industry after graduating. 4% of graduates left after one year in hospitality, and just over 3% graduates left hospitality between two and three years in hospitality. A further 1% of graduates left hospitality between five and six years. 24% of graduates spent no time in hospitality after graduating.

Figure 0.24. Domestic and international graduates' time spent in hospitality after graduating

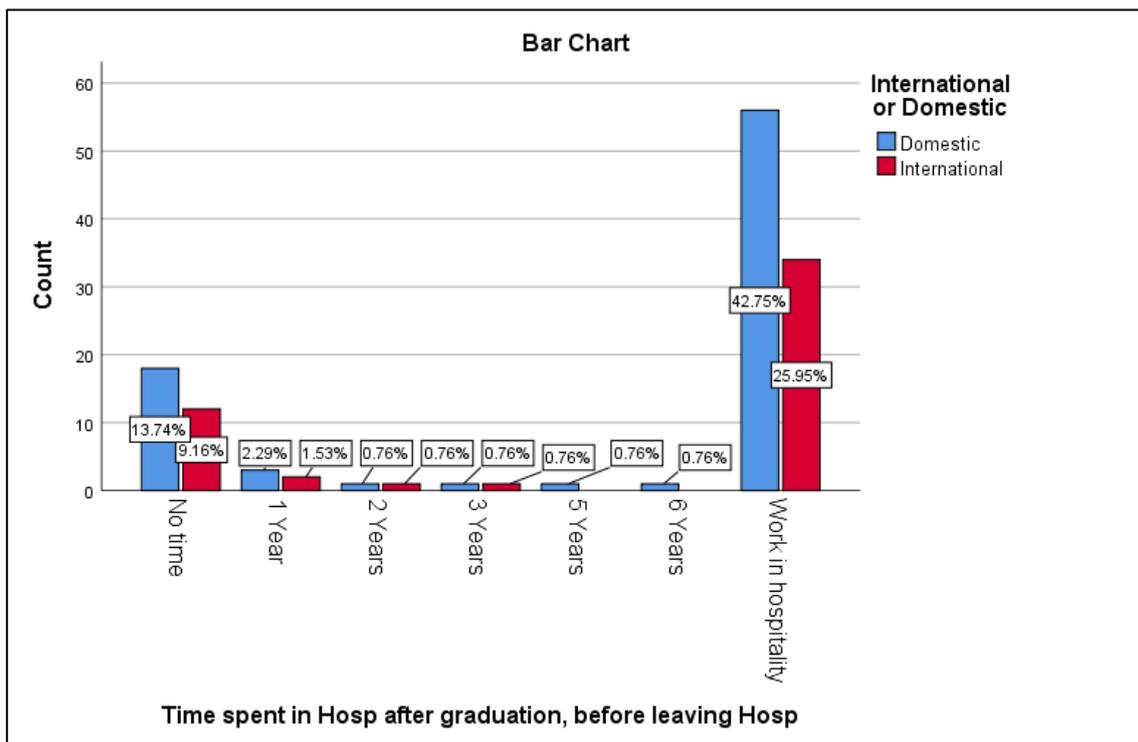


Figure 4.21 shows us that 43% of domestic graduates and 26% of international graduates continued to work in hospitality. 14% of domestic and 9% of international students left the hospitality sector soon after graduating, 2% of domestic and 1% of international graduates left the hospitality sector after one year. 1% of domestic and 1% of international graduates left the hospitality industry after two years, 1% of domestic and 1% of international graduates left the hospitality industry after three years. 1% of domestic graduates left the hospitality industry within five to six years.

Figure 0.25. Graduates' time spent in hospitality after graduation by gender

The chi-square test gave a  $p$ -value of .022 and was statistically significant.

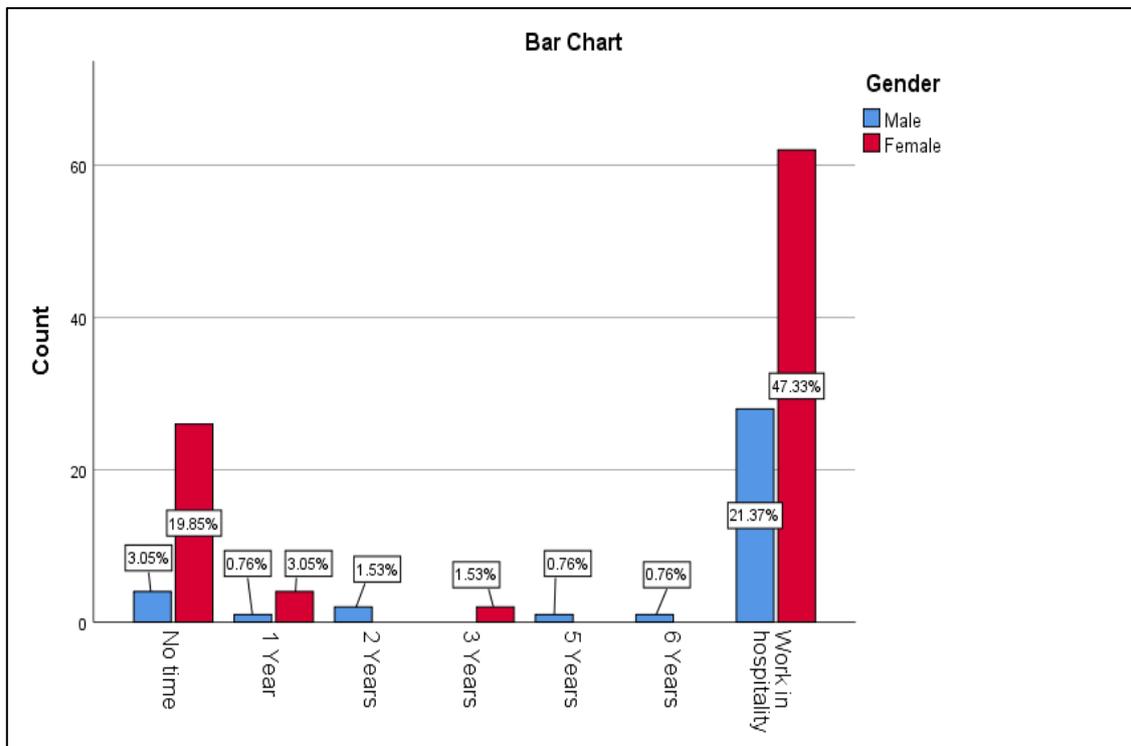


Figure 4.22 shows details of graduates' time spent in hospitality after graduating by gender. 21% of males and 47% of females continued to work in hospitality. 20% females and 3% of males did not spend any time working in hospitality. In the first year, 3% females left hospitality work compared to 1% males. In their second year of employment, 2% of males left their employment and 2% of females left hospitality employment in their third year. 1% of females left hospitality within five and six years.

A valid chi-square test gives a value of 14.773 with a degree of freedom of 6. The  $p$ -value was .022 and is less than 0.05. Therefore, the relationship between gender and graduates' time spent in hospitality after graduating is statistically significant at the .022 level. More females leave hospitality than males after graduating.

## 4.8 Leaving the Hospitality Industry

Figure 0.26. Graduates who stayed in hospitality and who left hospitality

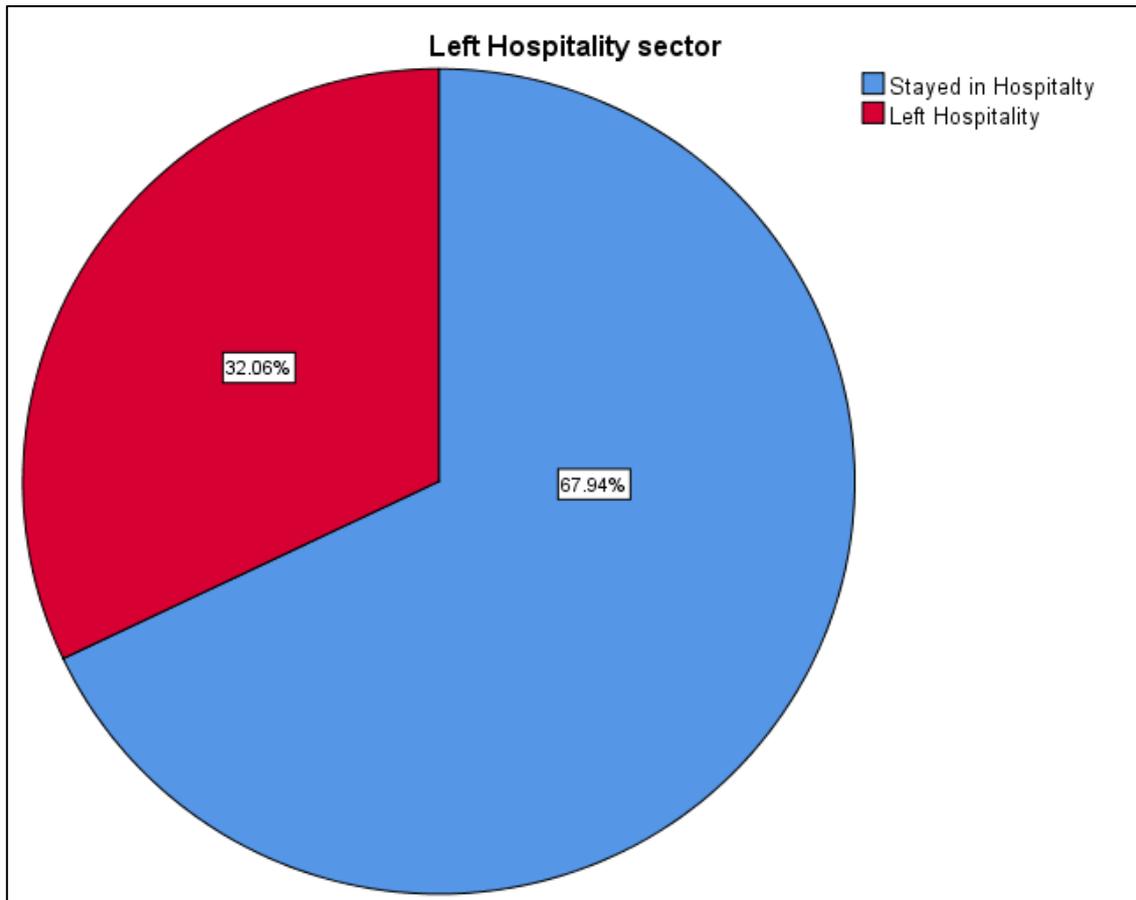


Figure 4.23 shows that overall, 68% of graduates continued to work in the hospitality industry and 32% graduates decided to leave the hospitality industry.

Figure 0.27 Employment sector during studies and graduates who left the hospitality sector

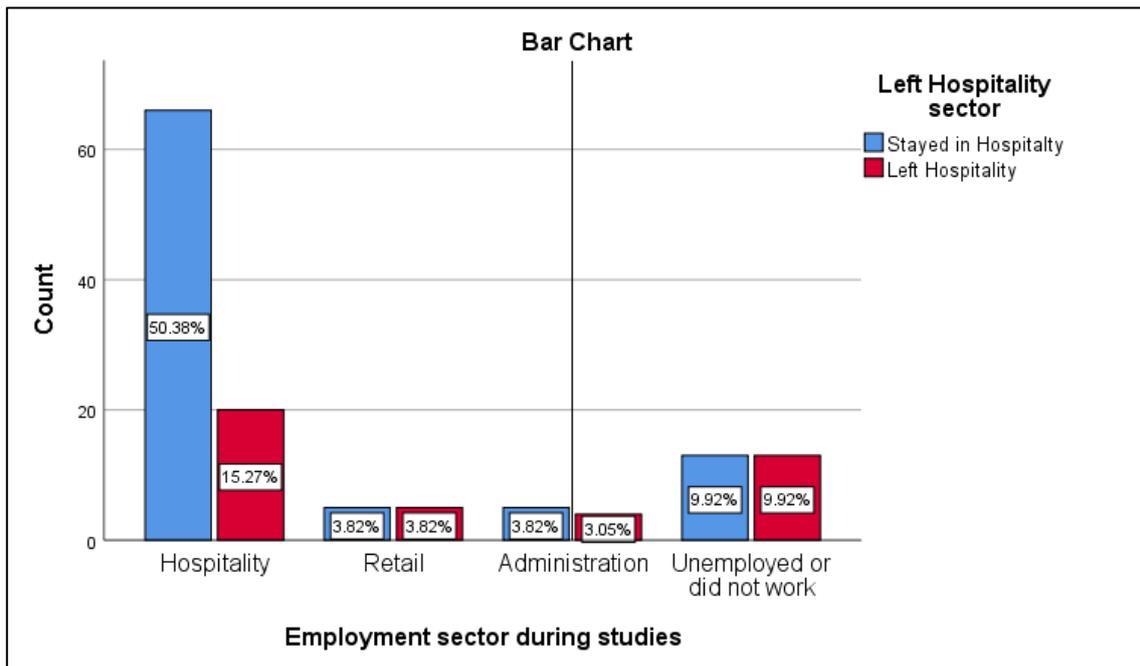


Figure 4.24 shows the graduates' employment sectors during their studies and graduates who left the hospitality industry. 15% of graduates who were in hospitality work during their studies left the hospitality industry and 4% of graduates who were employed in the retail industry during their studies left hospitality work. 3% of graduates employed in administrative work during their studies left the hospitality industry and 10% of graduates who were not employed during their studies left the hospitality industry.

## 4.9 Year Graduated

Figure 0.28. Year graduated

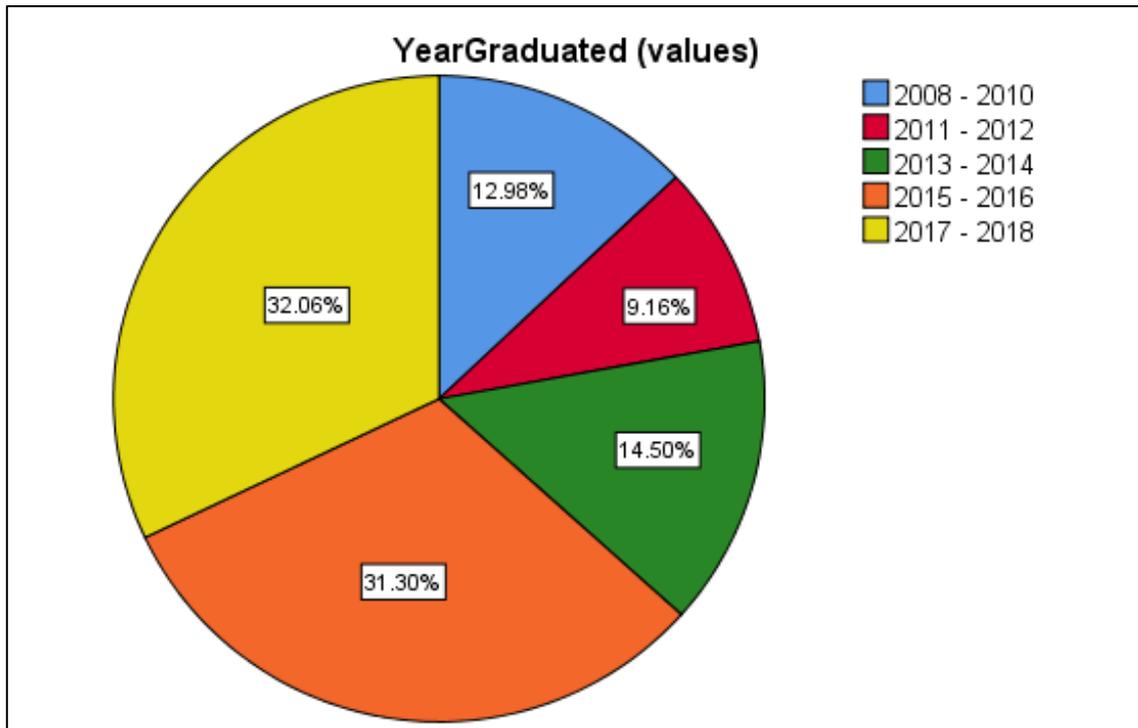


Figure 4.25 shows that in this study, 13% of graduates graduated between 2008-2010, 2008 and 2010, 9% between 2011 and 2012, 15% between 2013 and 2014, 31% between 2015 and 2016, and 32% between 2017 and 2018.

Figure 0.29. Employment sector of graduates during their studies and graduation year.

The chi-square test gave a  $p$ -value of .017 and was statistically significant.

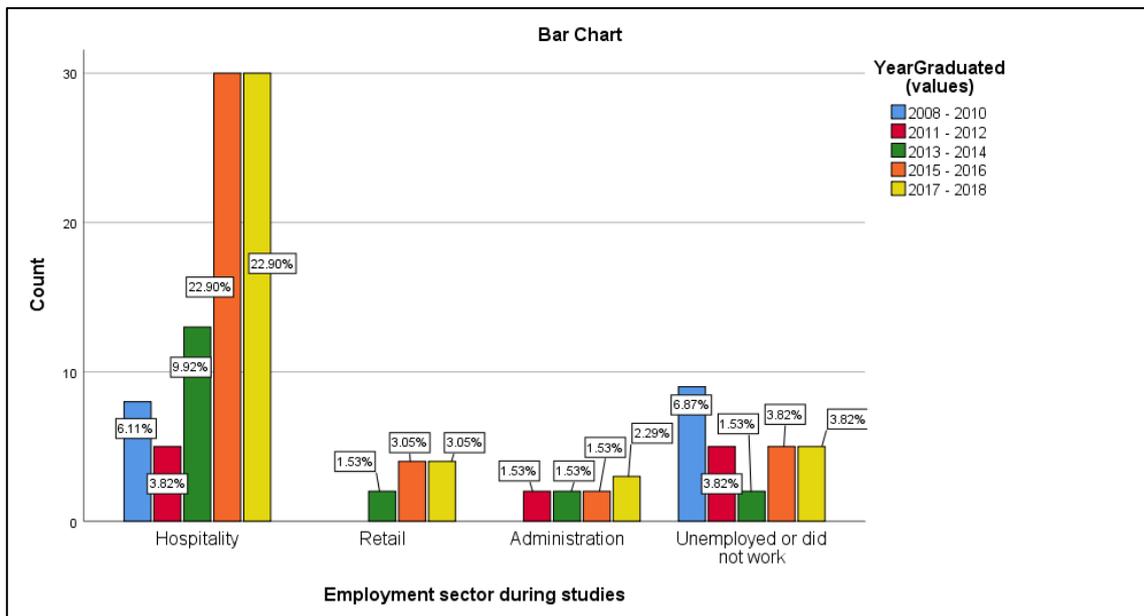


Figure 4.26 shows that of the 66% graduates who were employed in hospitality during their studies, 23% graduated between 2017 and 2018. Another 23% graduated between 2015 and 2016, 10% graduated between 2013 and 2014 and 4% graduated between 2011 and 2012. 6% graduated between 2008 and 2010. 7% of graduates were employed in the retail sector during their studies. 3% graduated in between 2017 and 2018, 3% graduated between 2015 and 2016, and 1% graduated between 2013 and 2014. 7% of graduates were employed in administrative work during their studies. 2% graduated between 2017 and 2018, 2% graduated between 2015 and 2016, 2% graduated between 2013 and 2014, and 1% graduated between 2011 and 2012. Of the 20% of graduates who were unemployed or did not work, 7% graduated between 2008 and 2010, 4% graduated between 2011 and 2012, 1% graduated between 2013 and 2014, 4% graduated between 2015 and 2016 and 4% graduated between 2017 and 2018.

With a valid chi-square test performed, 13 cells had an expected cell count less than 5. The chi-square value was 24.487 with a degree of freedom of 12. The  $p$ -value was 0.017 which is less than 0.05. This result shows that the association between the graduates' employment sector during their studies and year graduated was statistically significant.

Figure 0.30. Graduates' employment sector after graduation vs year graduated

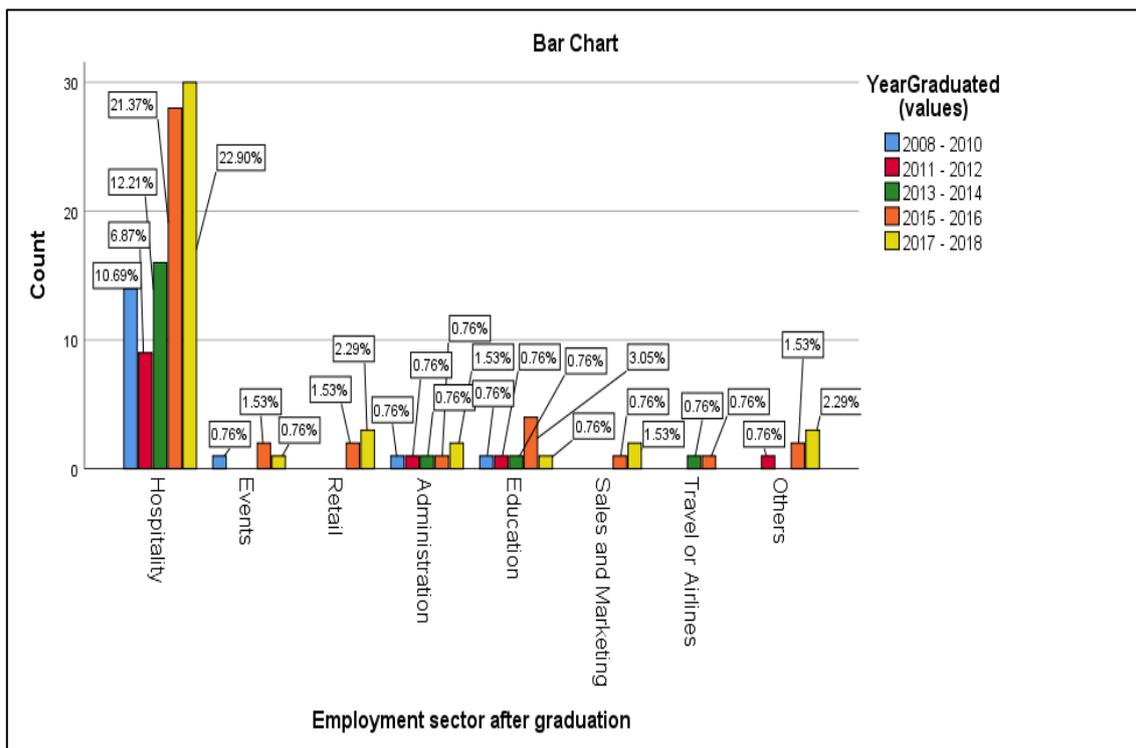


Figure 4.27 shows that 74% of all graduates were employed in the hospitality sector after graduating. 23% of the students graduated between 2017 and 2018, 21% graduated between 2015 and 2016. 12% graduated between 2013 and 2014 and 7% graduated between 2011 and 2012. 11% graduated between 2008 and 2010. The rest of the 26% of graduates went into other employment sectors. This 26% is divided between 3% in events, 4% in retail, 4% in administration work, 6% in education sector, 2% in sales and marketing, 1% in travel or airlines, and 5% in other employment sectors.

Figure 0.31. Gender vs year graduated

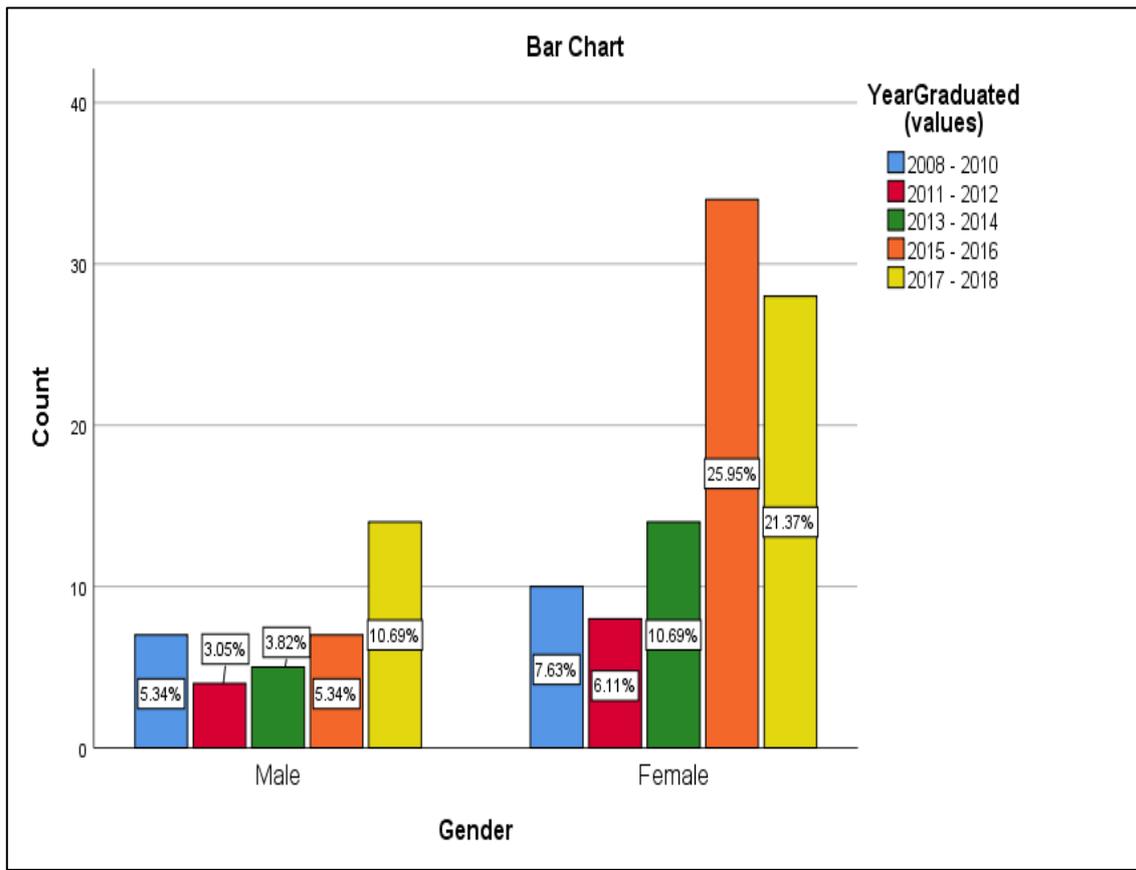


Figure 4.28 show that of 11% males graduated between 2017 and 2018. 5% male graduates graduated between 2015 and 2016. 4% males graduated between 2013 and 2014. 3% of males graduated between 2011 and 2012 and 5% between 2008 and 2010. 21% of females graduated between 2017 and 2018. 26% females graduated between 2015 and 2016. 11% females graduated between 2013 2014. 6% of females graduated between 2011 and 2012, followed by 8% of females graduating between 2008 and 2010.

Figure 0.32. Year graduated by domestic and international graduates

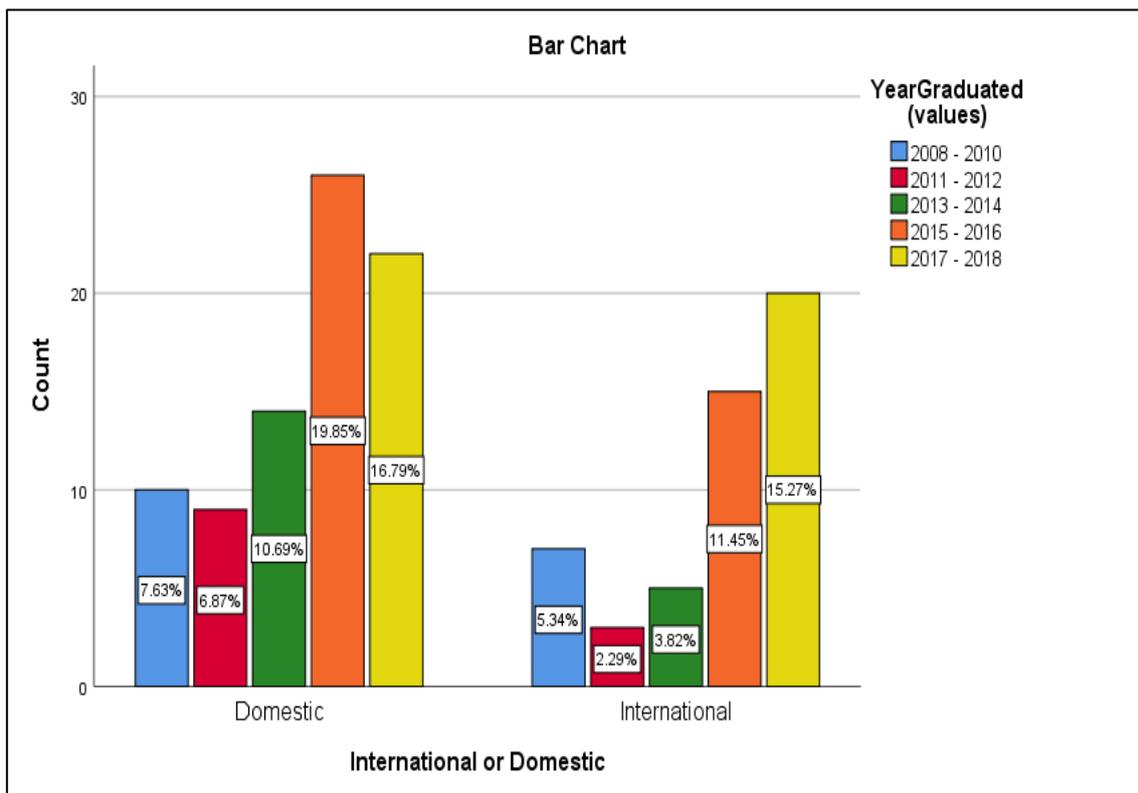


Figure 4.29 shows that 8% of domestic students graduated between 2008 and 2010. 7% of domestic students graduated between 2011 and 2012. 11% of domestic students graduated between 2013 and 2014. 20% domestic students graduated between 2015 and 2016 followed by 17% between 2017 and 2018. 5% of international students graduated between 2008 and 2010. 2% of international students graduated between 2011 and 2012. 4% international students graduated between 2013 and 2014. 12% of international students passed graduated between 2015 and 2016 followed by 15% of international students graduating between 2017 and 2018.

Figure 0.33. Year graduated and time spent in hospitality after graduation and before leaving hospitality

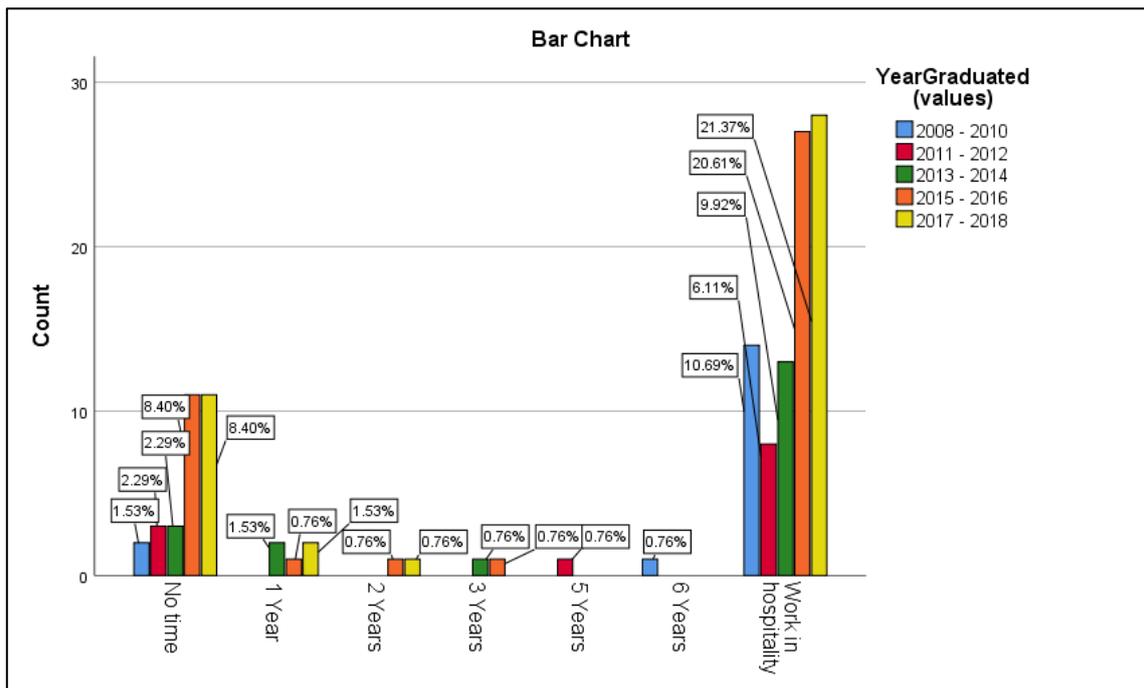


Figure 4.30 shows the tenure, year graduated, and time spent in the hospitality sector before leaving the hospitality industry. A total of 23% of graduates from 2008-2018 did not spend any time in hospitality. 17% of the graduates were from years 2015-2018. The rest of the 6% graduates were from years 2008-2014. 4% of graduates left the hospitality industry in one year and graduated between 2013 and 2018. 3% left after two years and three years employment in hospitality work and 1% left after five years in hospitality employment. 69% continued to work in the hospitality sector that graduated from 2008-2018.

The cohort from 2008-2010 is 13% from the study's population according to Figure 4.25. This cohort of graduates have been in the hospitality industry until 2020 where this study was focused. Figure 4.30 shows that 11% of this cohort was still employed in the hospitality industry and only 2% left the hospitality industry (1.53% soon after graduation and 0.76% after six years of employment). This cohort of graduates have been in hospitality industry for ten years or more. All other cohorts have worked less in the hospitality industry since they have passed out from years 2011-2018.

#### 4.10 Summary of Findings

1. More females study hospitality than males, with 72% being female compared to 28% male.

2. The majority were domestic graduates consisting 62% compared to 38% international graduates.
3. Graduates' employment during their studies were limited to only three sectors. 65% were employed in the hospitality sector, 8% in retail work, and 7% in administrative work. 20% were unemployed or did not work.
4. Male graduates only worked in the hospitality sector during their studies and female graduates worked in hospitality, retail, and administrative work.
5. After graduating, 74% were employed in the hospitality sector. 26% of graduates were employed in other sectors. 9% of graduates who were employed in other sectors during their studies chose to work in the hospitality sector after graduating.
6. After graduation, most male graduates were employed in the hospitality sector compared to female graduates. Female graduates looked for more opportunities outside the hospitality sector.
7. From the graduates who entered the hospitality sector, 31% decided to work in front office and 28% in food and beverage departments. 17% were in other departments. Out of the 17%, only 4% of international graduates were employed in other departments and the remaining 13% were domestic graduates. Only 1% of males were employed in other sectors. All other males were employed in front office and food and beverage.
8. Graduates' movements from organisation to organisation are high in the first two years. 34% of graduates moved employers in the first year and 22% moved employers in the second year, which gives 56% of the graduates moving employers in the first two years. More female graduates moved in the first two years at 37%. The 34% who moved within two years were domestic graduates and 22% were international graduates.
9. 20% graduates received an advancement at their first place of employment. Out of these graduates, 8% were males and 12% were females. 15% were domestic graduates and 5% were international graduates.
10. 68% of graduates continued to work in hospitality, 23% left hospitality after graduating and the remaining 8% left between one year and six years. 4% left in the first year. That is, 23% after graduating and 4% in their first year of employment. That is, a total of

27% of graduates who left hospitality work within one year. The remaining 4% left between their second and sixth year of employment.

11. Students who graduated between 2015 and 2018 secured more employment in other sectors than graduates from 2008-2014.
12. Finally, 68% were still employed in the hospitality sector and 32% left the hospitality sector.
13. Of the 32% who left the hospitality industry, 15% were graduates who were employed in the hospitality sector during their studies. 10% were unemployed during their studies and 7% were employed in retail and administrative work during their studies. 17% of graduates who left had no hospitality experience at all and 15% graduates who left had hospitality experience during their studies.

#### **4.11 Statistically Significant Findings**

1. Graduates' gender and employment sector during studies gave a  $p$ -value of .014.
2. Graduates' gender and roles entered in the hospitality sector after graduating gave a  $p$ -value of .032.
3. Graduates' gender and time spent in hospitality after graduating before leaving hospitality gave a  $p$ -value of .022.
4. Graduates' employment sector after graduating and employment sector during their studies gave a  $p$ -value of .001.
5. Graduates' employment sector after graduating and length of stay at first place of employment gave a  $p$ -value of .000.
6. Graduates' employment sector after graduating and job advancement at first place of employment gave a  $p$ -value of .001.
7. Graduates' employment sector after graduating and roles entered in hospitality sector after graduating gave a  $p$ -value .000.
8. Graduates' employment sector after graduating and graduates who left hospitality sector gave a  $p$ -value of 0.001.

9. Graduates' employment sector during studies and graduates who left hospitality sector gave a  $p$ -value of 0.29.
10. Graduates' employment sector during studies and year graduated gave a  $p$ -value of .017.

## **Chapter 5 Discussion**

This chapter discusses the research outcomes relevant to the findings of the study. The discussion begins with the graduates' demographics, their work experience during their studies, and employment after graduating. Thereafter, the roles that the graduates entered into, the length of stay at their first place of employment, promotions received at their first place of employment, and time spent in the hospitality industry before leaving are discussed. Finally, the year they graduated compared with employment sector, time spent in employment in the industry, and the graduates who left hospitality sector are discussed.

This research explored the career pathways of graduates who obtained a Bachelor of International Hospitality Management degree from AUT. This chapter will discuss the important findings from this research in relation to the research questions and in comparison, with existing academic literature.

### **5.1 Demographics**

The demographics in this study broadly match those from international literature. Figure 4.1 shows us that 72% are female graduates and 28% are male graduates. Figure 4.2 shows that this was a mixture of 62% of domestic and 38% of international graduates. Figure 4.3 shows that female graduates made up 46% of domestic and 26% of international graduates. The male graduates comprised 16% domestic and 12% of international graduates. These results broadly match the work of Chuang and Dellmann-Jenkins (2010) and Richardson (2010), showing that the majority who study hospitality management in international universities are female. Richardson (2010) shows that in Australia, 66% of hospitality students are female and 34% are male. The New Zealand cohort of predominantly females, with a significant number of international students, demonstrates that the participants in this study are generally consistent with international trends regarding gender and migrant status in international hospitality studies (Baum, 2015; Guerrier, 2008; Mooney et al., 2016).

The demographic profile of New Zealand participants raises concerns that the well documented problems in the hospitality labour market in the literature will occur locally. Poulston (2008, 2009) argues that poor working conditions in the industry are partly the result of a young, migrant, and predominately female workforce who are inherently vulnerable and can therefore be more easily exploited. The combination of youth and migrant status often results in part-

time or casual work contracts, and this in turn exacerbates labour turnover and poor conditions (McIntosh & Harris, 2012; Williamson, 2017).

Results from Figure 4.1 shows that 72% are female graduates and 28% are male graduates. The difference is 43% more female graduates than male graduates. Figure 4.2 shows that this a mixture of domestic and international graduates. 62% are domestic graduates and 38% are international graduates. Figure 4.3 shows that out of the 72% female graduates, 46% are domestic female graduates and 26% are international female graduates. Out of 28% male graduates, 16% are domestic male graduates and 12% are international male graduates. These findings show that there is a big difference in the number of male and female graduates. The findings from Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 also show that domestically and internationally more females study hospitality management than males. These findings are in agreement with Chuang and Dellmann-Jenkins (2010) and Richardson (2010), that the majority who study hospitality management in universities are female. Richardson (2010) also found that in Australia, 66% were female students and 34% were male students who studied hospitality management, which demonstrates that the findings in this study are consistent with international trends regarding gender in hospitality study.

## **5.2 Work Experiences During Studies**

One of the key findings of this study is that that 80% of hospitality graduates were employed throughout their studies. An area of argument between hospitality employers and hospitality educators is the extent to which educators provide ‘work ready graduates’ with ‘real world’ experience (Major & Evans, 2008; Richardson & Thomas, 2012). Often employers will argue that tertiary educators fail to provide graduates with the required skills and attributes due to a lack of work-based experience (Major & Evans, 2008; Richardson & Thomas, 2012). However, these findings (Figure 4.4) show that a great majority of graduates have significant workplace experience over the three years of their degree.

The same finding shows that out of the 80% who were employed, 66% of the graduates were employed in the hospitality sector. While these results are encouraging for tertiary hospitality educators, they may come as a surprise to practitioners. That being said, these findings are supported by similar findings in Richardson (2008), who states that about three-quarters of the student participants in his study had significant work experience in the hospitality industry.

Most of the participants of this study fall under Generation Y, and according to Wong et al. (2017), many Generation Y students achieve significant work experience before graduating.

The results of Figure 4.4 also show that 20% of students were unemployed during their studies. From the 80% of employed graduates, 14% were employed in retail and administrative work during their studies.

Figure 4.5 presents a breakdown of the 66% of graduates who were employed in the hospitality sector, 41% being domestic and 25% being international graduates.

The same Figure 4.5 shows that 10% domestic and 4% of international graduates were employed in retail and administrative work, and 20% of international and domestic graduates were unemployed. Figure 4.5 suggests that more domestic graduates were looking at other employment experiences and options during their studies. These results agree with those obtained by Richardson (2010), who states that international students are more concerned with finding employment in the hospitality sector while studying, than domestic students who may look at other employment sectors.

The most surprising correlation among male and female graduate employment sectors during their studies was that all employed male graduates worked only in the hospitality sector, and female graduates were employed in the hospitality and other employment sectors. This was an unexpected outcome.

However, Figure 4.26 shows that most graduates from 2013-2018 were in employment compared to graduates from 2008-2012. This result further supports the findings of Richardson (2010) and Wong et al. (2017); that Generation Y graduates may look for other options of employment while studying, try out various employment options during their studies, and gain work experience and look for career changes if necessary.

Many results confirm the association between students' work experience and how work experience may influence a student to continue working in the hospitality industry that is, if the work experience met the student's future intentions and outcomes (Ko, 2008; Robinson et al., 2016; Teng, 2008). If the work experience met the student's future intentions and outcomes for a career in hospitality, their interest to continue work in the hospitality may increase. If the student's future intentions and outcomes for a hospitality career were not met while working in the hospitality industry, their future may be affected (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). Ko (2008)

further states that if the work experience was not successful, students are less likely to consider hospitality work in the future. Several reports have shown that there are many positive outcomes from work experience for students. These results, based on hospitality graduates, found that work experience can help improve a student's chances for future employment, provide a good understanding of the hospitality industry, and to come to know what the hospitality industry can offer (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013).

Ko (2008) further support the importance of work experience and explain that work experience can give students more self-confidence and maturity. Similarly, Kim and Park (2013) state that work experience helps students with professional experience and adapt them to the work environment. Zopiatis and Theocharous (2013) focused on students' work engagement, knowledge exchange, and real work placement of graduates during work experience.

Many previous studies have expressed findings of the importance of work experiences during graduates' studies (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013; Ko, 2008; Richardson, 2010; Robinson et al., 2016; Teng, 2008; Zopiatis & Theocharous, 2013). What stands out from Figure 4.4 is that 80% of graduates had work experience during their studies, and 66% graduates had work experience in the hospitality industry. This time spent in work experience may have influenced the graduates to look for future career work in the hospitality sector. Work experience may also affect some graduates, and some may not consider working in the hospitality sector in the future. Given the high turnover post-graduation (Atef & Al Balushi, 2017; Groblena & Marciszewaka, 2016; Smith et al., 2018), this raises the question about the quality of work experience that graduates experienced. According to Lee and Chao (2013), organisations that give graduates work experience need to have a properly designed internship work programme in place. Graduates who undergo such work experience programmes may have a positive work experience that may influence them to pursue a career in the hospitality industry.

### **5.3 Employment Sector After Graduating**

Another significant outcome of this study is that 74% of graduates entered into hospitality employment as per Figure 4.7. This is an increase of 8% on the number of graduates who worked in the hospitality sector during their studies. This result is also a positive outcome for the hospitality industry and hospitality education sector.

However, the outcome of this result is very different to findings from Oman by Atef and Al Balushi (2017), who stated that only 41% of graduates worked in the hospitality industry after graduating, and only 21% chose hospitality as a future career. The rest other 20% worked in hospitality until they found employment in their preferred sector. These employment sector findings are supported by findings from Poland by Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016), who state that 59% of graduates worked in the hospitality industry after graduating and 41% graduates looked into other employment sectors.

Another result that needs to be discussed from Figure 4.7 is the number of graduates leaving the hospitality industry for employment in other industries. Interestingly, 26% of hospitality graduates found employment in different sectors such as events, education, sales and marketing, travel, airlines, telecommunications, logistics, and finance. Figure 4.2 provides a breakdown of the 20% of unemployed graduates during their studies who have now joined the workforce. This result tells us that the hospitality workforce had increased from 66% during their studies to 74% after graduating. The workforce in other employment sectors increased from 14% during their studies to 26% after graduating.

For graduates to enter the hospitality workforce, work experience can influence career intentions (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). 74% graduates from this study may have been influenced to seek employment in the hospitality industry.

If graduates' work experience was negative, this experience may have influenced graduates to leave the hospitality industry (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013). Other possible reasons for graduates to find employment in other sectors, according to Patah et al. (2010), are that most students research and explore employment opportunities in their interested industry sectors that are in-line with their interests, values, and skills. Bubany et al. (2008) explain that students' identified interests and strengths are important when considering a career. These findings may agree with the 26% of graduates who investigated similar aspects and also the literature of the above authors, when graduates considered their future career and found suitable employment outside of the hospitality industry.

The results in Figure 4.8 show that 48% of female and 26% of male graduates entered the hospitality workforce after graduating, and 2% of male and 24% female graduates entered other employment sectors. Mooney and Jameson (2018) and Teng (2008), also report that the majority of hospitality management students are female.

The findings in Figure 4.8 also suggest that a higher percentage of male graduates continue to work in the hospitality industry, and a higher percentage of female graduates seek employment in other sectors after graduating.

Figure 4.9 provides a breakdown of international and domestic graduates' employment sectors. It is apparent from this figure, that 47% domestic and 27% international graduates entered the hospitality workforce after graduating. From the same data, it can be seen that 15% of domestic and 11% international graduates joined other employment sectors. This finding shows that the difference is only 4% between domestic and international graduates employed in other sectors. When comparing these findings with those of other studies such as Kuslivan and Kuslivan (2000) and Richardson (2010), it confirms that international hospitality students strongly agree that they would do any job in the hospitality industry after graduating. This statement aligns with the results in Figure 4.5 that shows 24% of international students were employed in the hospitality industry as students and 27% were employed after graduation. It is encouraging to compare this with Figure 4.2 and see that 70% of international graduates in this study were employed within the hospitality sector compared to domestic graduates.

These results are likely related to findings by Richardson (2010) and Robinson et al. (2016), who state that international graduates find hospitality jobs more interesting. International students also believe that hospitality work gives better social status compared to domestic students. The higher percentage of international graduates working in the hospitality sector in this study, may also find hospitality jobs interesting and reflect those found in studies by Kim and Park (2013) and Richardson (2010).

#### **5.4 Roles that Graduates Entered into After Graduating**

Once the graduates decided to continue in a career in the hospitality field, their next step was deciding what roles they would like to work. Since the hospitality industry covers accommodation providers, restaurants, bars, and certain event services, there are more opportunities for graduates in direct customer contact jobs (front of house) than back of house jobs. In this study, the majority of graduates opted to work in the front office and food and beverage departments. As shown in Figure 4.10, 58% of the graduates secured employment in food and beverage and front office departments, followed by 8% in events and 10% in human resources, reservations, and accounts. Graduates' personal attributes, career orientation,

personality traits, and employment aspirations can help graduates choose their choice of career role in the industry (Teng, 2008).

Figure 4.10 shows us that a higher percentage of graduates worked in direct customer contact roles, by making their employment aspirations and choice of their future career roles.

Graduate roles were compared with other studies and show similar findings that around 31% of graduates seek employment in front office roles and around 33% of graduates seek employment in food and beverage departments (Hai-yan & Baum, 2006; Janta, 2011). Jung and Yoon's (2012) findings give a slightly higher percentage of hospitality graduates (36%) employed in food and beverage departments. These results are in agreement with those obtained from this analysis.

The finding that 10% graduates seek employment in back of house operations may be linked to the nature of the hospitality industry work schedule.

Work and family conflicts are a major reason for employee turnover, and can be attributed to long working hours (Blomme et al., 2010). Graduates who work in back of house roles are more likely to work on a schedule and avoid shifts of long hours and other hospitality work-related conflicts.

Figure 4.11 presents international and domestic graduates' roles in the hospitality industry. 19% of domestic graduates took roles in the front office compared to 12% of international graduates. In the food and beverage roles, 19% were domestic graduates compared to 12% of international graduates. In the field of events, domestic graduates took 5% of the roles and 3% were international graduates. Out of the 10% of back of house roles (human resources, reservations, and accounts), 9% of those roles were performed by domestic graduates compared to 1% international graduates. This is a significant outcome, and further supports the finding that international graduates are mostly employed in front office and food and beverage roles, compared to domestic graduates who take up roles in all departments. Richardson (2008) states that graduates believe that they will get opportunities to use their skills and ability in their areas of interest. A graduate's personal congeniality fits well with employment in the hospitality industry.

Demographic findings of graduates' roles in the hospitality industry is provided in Figure 4.12. Front office roles had 20% female and 11% male graduates, followed by 14% female and 13%

male graduates in food and beverage roles. In events roles, there were 7% female and 1% male graduates. From the rest of the graduates, 9% females took roles in reservations, accounts, and human resources, and 1% of male graduates went into human resources roles. This result shows the dominance by female graduates in events, reservations, human resources and accounts roles. These results also show that female graduates take roles in all departments in the hospitality sector compared to male graduates.

### **5.5 Length of Stay at First Place of Employment**

The length of time a graduate stays in their first place of employment is another interesting result from this study and is shown in Figure 4.13. From this finding, 56% of graduates had left their current employer in the first two years, and another 11% in the third year which is a 67% turnover. Only 20% of graduates were still employed at their first place of employment after two years. Graduates turnover may occur due to long working hours in front of house due to round the clock shifts (Mokono, 2010). These work patterns of long hours and shift work may create stress and conflict between work and personal lives and result in being worn out (Haldorai et al., 2019; O'Neill, 2012; Yang, 2010). High turnover is an ongoing challenge for the hospitality industry (Williamson, 2017) and can lead to high costs and additional work for the human resource teams (Blomme et al., 2010).

The first three years were when job mobility was highest for graduates. Most of the changes happened in the first two years of employment. A study in United States of America by Smith et al. (2018), found that 83% of graduates moved organisations in the first two years. This behaviour may have adverse implications for organisations' retention plans (Smith et al., 2018). The mobility of hospitality graduates has been explored by Baum (2015) and Mooney et al. (2016). According to Baum (2015) and Mooney et al. (2016), hospitality industry employees in many countries achieve higher positions by moving frequently from one organisation to another, and job mobility helps career progression. The reason for 56% of graduates moving employers in the first two years may have been for similar reasons and moving for higher positions and career progression.

Most of the participants of this study were Generation Y. According to Wong et al. (2017), Generation Y graduates entering the hospitality workforce can create an unreliable organisational structure, with employees often moving from employers within the same industry or different industries.

Another study points out that most graduates are of the opinion that they are qualified to hold junior management or supervisory positions and look for such positions (Richardson, 2008, 2010). Richardson's findings contribute to this high mobility of graduates between organisations for higher positions. Mobility of graduates from this study was high during the first two years, and graduates of this study also may have similar ideas for higher positions and made job mobility for career progression.

Figure 4.13 shows the high turnover (67% in three years) of hospitality graduates and how mobile hospitality graduates can be. A supporting explanation by Chan et al. (2016), is that job advancement will mean less intentions for employees to leave an organisation.

Figure 4.14 shows that 25% of female and 9% of male graduates moved employers in their first year. This was the highest of movement of graduates in this study. During the second year, 12% of female and 10% of male graduates moved employers. Within two years, 37% of female and 19% of male graduates moved within organisations. In the third year, 8% of female and 3% of male graduates left their employers. This shows that females in this study moved employers faster than males possibly for more exposure, promotions, career development, and other fringe benefits.

Figure 4.15 shows a comparison of the length of stay at their first place of employment, for domestic and international graduates. Within the first year, 21% of domestic graduates and 13% of international graduates left their first place of employment. This was followed by 13% of domestic and 9% of international graduates in the second year, and 7% of domestic and 4% of international graduates left their employers in their third year. This result shows that 34% of domestic graduates and 22% of international graduates left their employers in the first and second years of employment. Further analysis shows that more domestic graduates were mobile between employers compared to international.

Briefly analysing how much of the movement from the first role was for career advancement and how much was due to exiting the industry, Figure 4.23 shows that 24% students left soon after graduation, 4% after one year, 3% left after two and three years and 1% left between five and six years of hospitality employment. Total of 32% left hospitality work. Figure 4.19 shows that 7% graduates had job advancement in the first year and 8% got job advancement in the second year at their first place of employment. Figure 4.13 shows that 56% graduates moved

employers within two years. Mobility of hospitality graduates for career advancement is documented by Baum (2015) and Mooney et al. (2016) in previous studies.

## **5.6 Job Advancement at First Place of Employment**

Figure 4.16 shows that only 20% of graduates achieved job advancements in their first place of employment. The remainder of graduates did not get any job advancements at their first place of employment.

All graduates have career ambitions and this group of Generation Y graduates are more ambitious towards getting promotions as part of their career plan (Wong et al., 2017). Securing the first job advancement in a graduate's career is a huge achievement. Job advancement can provide motivation and career success for graduates. The first promotion can be a very important development in a graduate's career (Chen et al., 2015; Tams & Arthur, 2010). In this study, Generation Y employees were interested in seeking career advancement strategies to develop skills, knowledge, and experience to develop their careers. These employees also have high career advancement in promotions (Wang, 2013). All organisations must have fair promotions and a clear pathway for career progression. These are important factors for Generation Y employees, and will help retain qualified graduates in any organisation (Wong et al., 2017). This is an important development for these students. It proves that these students are making plans for their future careers, developing skills, and gaining experience to become managers in the hospitality industry. These job advancements also make way for graduates to work in an organisation longer. Chan et al. (2016) state that employees who get organisational rewards such as promotions, choose to remain longer in their organisation. Graduates who received promotions also had the same opinion.

Another widely researched fact regarding promotions is employee mobility. For career success, a high degree of job mobility is required. In many countries, hospitality workers can achieve higher executive positions by frequently moving between different hospitality organisations (Baum, 2015; Mooney et al., 2016). Many graduates in this study were mobile across employers according to results of Figure 4.13. In two years, 56% of graduates moved employers and may have used job mobility for promotions.

When employees achieve a promotion, they are also looking for a more interesting job that will provide them with an opportunity for advancement and development (Richardson & Thomas, 2012). A promotion will also provide a higher wage for employees alongside other fringe

benefits (Wang, 2013). These graduates (Generation Y) have very high expectations of pay, career path, other benefits, and promotions at their workplaces. A promotion can also give graduates a wide range of opportunities, such as enjoyable and interesting work, which are some of the most important aspects for students when deciding on their lifelong careers (Richardson & Thomas, 2012).

When graduates achieve promotions (20%), they may be able to access benefits that are offered by many hospitality organisations and may also lead to employees working longer in an organisation, thus reducing high turnover.

The graduates who did not get promotions, were more likely to look at to look at job mobility for career progression. Job mobility is a successful way of getting promotions and is also recommended in other studies (Baum, 2015; Mooney et al., 2016).

When looking at job advancement and comparing with gender as shown in Figure 4.17, out of the 20% graduates who achieved promotions, female graduates achieved more promotions (12%) than male graduates who got 8% of promotions at their first place of employment.

Figure 4.18 shows how domestic and international graduates fared with job advancement at their first place of employment. A first promotion was mostly achieved by domestic graduates with a higher ratio of 15% compared to 5% international graduates.

Training and development are also important for employees' career development. Many hospitality organisations do not spend enough time on training and development. Some managers are reluctant to spend money on training and development, in fear that employees will leave after training. Organisations that do not invest in training will have a high turnover of employees and poor service standards. For employees, training and development gives job satisfaction and career development. Organisations will benefit from staff retention, as training will provide career development for employees (Poulston, 2008). Employees who receive promotions stay longer in an organisation (Chan et al., 2016; Chen & Shen, 2012; Smith et al., 2018).

Figure 4.18 shows that 33% of domestic graduates did not achieve a promotion at their first place of employment, compared to 23% of international graduates.

When reviewing the literature, it was found that international students were happy how promotions were given in the hospitality industry, compared to domestic graduates who were not very pleased how promotions were handled by their managers (Richardson, 2010).

### **5.7 Time Spent in the Hospitality Industry After Graduating and Before Leaving the Hospitality Industry**

Figure 4.20 shows how long graduates spent in the hospitality industry after graduating and before leaving the industry. There are striking observations from this figure which are significant and key findings. A total of 68% of graduates continued working in the hospitality industry, which is a remarkable outcome for the industry. Another key finding is that 32% of graduates left the hospitality industry for employment in other sectors. That is almost one-third of graduates leaving the hospitality industry. This is an area of concern for the hospitality industry and hospitality educators. Many studies have been conducted that identify the reasons for graduates leaving the industry immediately after graduation, and an area of concern is internship/training during their time of studies (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013; Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). Bad work experiences during internships and real-life experiences of the hospitality industry are major reasons for leaving the hospitality industry (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013; Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008).

From further examination of the results, it is more concerning that another 8% of graduates left the industry between one and five years after working in the industry. Employees leaving the industry is a wide area for discussion and many scholars have looked into possible reasons such as low pay, long working hours, poor working conditions, family life, and negative work experiences during internships ( Kuslivan , 2000; McIntosh & Harris, 2012; Poulston,2008,2009). However, the results of this study show that there were 68% of graduates from 2008-2018 working in the hospitality industry and this is encouraging, but 32% graduates leaving the hospitality industry is discouraging. It is interesting to compare these figures with that found by Atef and Al Balushi (2017), which is totally contrary to this result. In Oman, only 41% graduates worked in hospitality after graduating and 20% worked in hospitality until they found suitable employment in other sectors, leaving only 21% to continue work in the hospitality industry as a career.

The fact that 80% of graduates left the industry is a surprising finding and suggests that the effort of Omanization (localisation of employment in Oman) programme is not successful for

the hospitality industry. The main reason for Omanization being unsuccessful is due to Omani government jobs paying a much higher salary than the private sector, and the hospitality industry being dominated by low salaried Asian expatriate workers (Atef & Al Balushi, 2017). This finding and several similar reports have shown that low pay and migrant workers are key topics in the global hospitality industry (Poulston, 2008, 2009).

It is also documented that the hospitality industry underestimates the importance of qualified hospitality graduates, even when there is demand and competition to attract and retain these graduates (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). It is suggested that qualified staff will ensure the success of the hospitality industry by providing an efficient and consistent service to the customers (Choudhury & McIntosh, 2013).

Further analysis in Figure 4.21 shows that of the 68% graduates who continued to work in the hospitality industry, 43% of them were domestic graduates and 26% were international graduates. Figure 4.21 also shows that 14% of domestic graduates and 9% of international graduates left the industry after graduating. When comparing these results with Figure 4.22, it can be seen that the percentage of international and domestic graduates working in the hospitality industry and leaving the hospitality industry after graduating is almost the same.

Figure 4.22, as discussed previously, shows that more females were engaged in hospitality work. Interestingly, these results provide more strong evidence to the finding that 47% of female and 21% of male graduates continued to work in the hospitality industry. Another striking result to emerge from the same findings is that of the graduates who left the hospitality sector after their graduation, 20% were female and 3% were male. The ratio of this result is somewhat surprising and an interesting outcome.

It seems possible that these results are due to the findings in Figure 4.23, that show more females were engaged in work outside the hospitality industry while they were studying, and all males were who were employed while studying were engaged in hospitality work. These results provide further support for the argument that male graduates in this study were more likely continue to work in the hospitality industry than females, who were the majority that continued to work in and also leave hospitality work.

Work experience in other sectors may also have had a positive impact on their careers, and made them decide to quit the hospitality industry after graduating; or the opposite happened, where a negative work experience in the hospitality industry made them quit the industry. It is

clear that many graduates do not consider to proceed with a hospitality career after their internship (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013).

It is of grave concern for educators and practitioners when hospitality graduates leave the hospitality industry after graduating. In general, it seems that the higher education sector takes more responsibility toward educating hospitality graduates with a deeper view of what a real working life would be in the hospitality industry (Kim & Park, 2013; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).

### **5.8 Employment sector After Graduating and Year Graduated**

Results of graduates' employment sectors after graduation and the year they graduated is shown in Figure 4.27. In accordance with these results, 74% of graduates chose to work in the hospitality sector after graduating.

Between 2008 and 2014, 30% graduated. The same data show us that 7% of graduates left the hospitality sector for other employment who were graduates between 2008 and 2014.

Between 2015 and 2018, 44% graduated. According to this same data, 19% of graduates who left the hospitality sector for other employment were graduates between 2015 and 2018. This group of graduates from 2015-2018 were the highest percentage working outside of the hospitality industry.

However, these results also further support the association between graduates affinity with employment in other industries. A strong relationship between the hospitality graduates and their employment in other sectors has been reported in Figures 4.4 and 4.7.

Another important finding was that out of the 37 % graduates from 2008-2014, 23% still continued to work in the hospitality industry. When compared with the 63% of graduates from 2015-2018, only 25% continued to work in the hospitality industry.

These results show that graduates between 2008 and 2014 were more likely to continue to work in the hospitality industry, than graduates from 2015-2018. Very little evidence was found in previous literature when comparing the difference between graduates from different years.

It seems possible that these results are due to Generation Y dominant group replacing an older workforce. A job for life philosophy is replaced with an uncertain career structure and changing

employers occurs more often. This generation of employees are more demanding and organisations face recruitment and retention problems (Richardson & Thomas, 2012).

The demographics of the graduates and the years they graduated is shown in Figure 4.28. From the 37% of graduates from 2008-2014, 25% were female and 12% were male. From 2015-2018, 63% of the graduates passed comprised 47% female and 16% male.

The correlation that more females work in the hospitality industry and the increase of female graduates from 2015-2018 is a striking result identified from this analysis. Female dominance of the hospitality industry is very common and has been widely explored by many researchers (Chuang & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010; Poulston, 2008, 2009).

The results, as shown in Figure 4.29, describe the years that domestic and international students graduated. Between 2008 and 2018, 62% were domestic graduates. 25% domestic students graduated between 2008 and 2014, and 37% of domestic students graduated between 2015 and 2018.

During the same period of 2008-2018, 38% of international students graduated. 12% of international students graduated between 2008 and 2014, and 27% of international students graduated between 2015 and 2018.

There was a steady increase of domestic and international students graduating between 2015 and 2018.

Throughout this study, international graduates were the minority. Surprisingly, the difference between the domestic and international graduates in 2017-2018 is only 2%. This finding was unexpected, and suggests that the number of international students studying hospitality management in New Zealand is increasing. This information is encouraging for the hospitality education sector and the industry. Several reports have shown that there are many negative aspects to studying hospitality to make a career in the hospitality industry. There is a big demand for hospitality education worldwide due to the continued growth of the hospitality industry. Many youth are attracted to hospitality careers, and career pathways are generally on an upward trend from a low to a higher position (Mooney et al., 2016; Poulston, 2009).

This also accords with our earlier observations, that more international graduates in the hospitality workforce due to migration is creating a diverse multicultural workforce (Arora & Rohmetra, 2010).

### **5.9 Time Spent in Hospitality After Graduation Before Leaving Hospitality and Year Graduated**

The results obtained from the correlation analysis of graduates' time spent in the industry after graduating and the year graduated is presented in Figure 4.30.

It is apparent from this data that out of the 13% graduates from 2008-2010, only 2% left the industry and the rest 11% continued to work in the hospitality industry. Soon after graduation (1%) and after five years (1%) of graduates left the hospitality industry.

Further analysing the data, 24% students graduated between 2011 and 2014. 16% of graduates continued to work in the hospitality industry. A total of 8% left the hospitality industry for employment in other sectors. 4% graduates left soon after graduation, 2% of graduates left within one year, 1% left within three years, and 1% within five years.

Of the 63% of students who graduated between 2015 and 2018, 42% of graduates continued in hospitality work. A total of 21% left the hospitality industry for employment in other sectors. 17% of graduates did not spend any time in the hospitality industry. 2% graduates left within one year and 2% graduates left within two and three years.

The above results indicate that a higher number of graduates from 2008-2014, have continued to work in the hospitality industry compared to graduates from 2015-2018.

However, this result has not been explored much previously in the literature. Therefore, there is not much evidence available for comparison.

### **5.10 Leaving the Hospitality Sector**

The most significant and contributing result from this study was how many graduates continued to work in the hospitality industry after graduating, and how many graduates left immediately after graduating or after working in the hospitality industry. The final outcome of this analysis is shown in Figure 4.31. Figure 4.31 shows that 32% of graduates left hospitality work and 68% graduates continued to work in the hospitality industry. This result is an interesting

outcome from this research. The continuation of 68% of graduates in this sector is a result that was unexpected. This is great news for the hospitality industry and the hospitality education sector. The result of 32% of graduates leaving the industry is a rather disappointing outcome and an area for further investigation. Analysing these findings further, out of the 32% graduates who left the hospitality industry, 15% of the graduates had hospitality experience during their studies. 10% of graduates who left were unemployed during their time of studies, and 7% of graduates were employed in other employment sectors. The final analysis is that 17% of graduates who left did not have any hospitality work experience during their studies, and 15% of graduates had hospitality work experience during their studies.

The results of this current study are well supported by Wijesundara (2015) from a study in Sri Lanka. The study found that two-thirds of graduates had positive perceptions of the hospitality industry and continued to work in the hospitality industry. An interesting finding is that the positive perceptions for graduates in Sri Lanka are very different (and opposite) to the findings of graduates in the hospitality industry in New Zealand. Working in the hospitality industry in Sri Lanka provides graduates high status, good pay and other fringe benefits, good promotion opportunities, good positions and employees are skilled and knowledgeable. The positive perceptions of Wijesundara's (2015) study in Sri Lanka are almost negative perceptions of the hospitality industry in New Zealand.

However, the findings of the current study do not support some previous research. When comparing the findings with those of other studies, Richardson and Thomas (2012), found that 61% of graduates leave the hospitality industry for other employment and Atef and Al Balushi (2017) found that 79% of graduates leave the hospitality industry for other employment. The findings of a study in Poland by Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016), state that only 59% of graduates worked in the hospitality industry after graduating. The result of this study, with 68% graduates employed in the hospitality industry and 32% leaving the hospitality industry, is rather an unexpected and remarkable outcome.

The number of graduates who left the hospitality industry were much fewer than some studies from other countries, and it is a worrying concern why these graduates left the hospitality industry for other employment.

When reviewing the literature, one of the most discussed and debated topics in the hospitality industry is the reasons that employees leave the hospitality industry. Many scholars have noted

a range of negative reasons that affect hospitality employees to continue work in the hospitality industry, thus making hospitality a lifelong career. The factors below may explain the relatively good correlation between hospitality employees and reasons for leaving the hospitality industry.

Poor pay, temporary employment and dissatisfying work has been mentioned as issues related to leaving hospitality work (Baum, 2015; Poulston, 2008, 2009). Hospitality work is regarded as low status (Mooney et al., 2016). Work and personal life conflict may lead an employee to look for other employment sources (Blomme et al., 2010; Haldorai et al., 2019). Long working hours with a low pay is a main contributor to leaving hospitality work (Haldorai et al., 2019). Employee retention is difficult for small operations, because larger establishments offer higher wages and extra benefits including career growth (Pimentel, 2011). There is evidence that graduates leave employment due to low job satisfaction, poor working conditions, and due to lack of motivation (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). Less training and development in many establishments may lead to low job satisfaction, poor service standards, and high employee turnover (Poulston, 2008). Organisational culture, organisational support, and support of the immediate manager or supervisor can have a strong impact on employees to stay or leave any organisation (Cho et al., 2009). Career progression is an important factor for Generation Y employees (Zopiatis et al., 2014). If managers do not develop and guide employees for career progression and develop for higher roles, Generation Y employees will not remain in an organisation (Chan et al., 2016). Work experience or internships influences students' career intentions (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). Negative work experiences can influence employees to leave the hospitality industry (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013). It is also considered that high employee turnover is a common occurrence in the hospitality industry (Anvari & Seliman, 2010). These results corroborate the findings of a great deal of previous research that investigated reasons for high turnover in the hospitality industry.

This finding broadly supports other studies in this area that one-third of graduates leave the hospitality industry after graduating, and is consistent with international trends including the findings of Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016) and Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000).

According to Richardson and Thomas (2012), attracting skilled, well-educated, devoted employees, and retaining these employees in the hospitality industry is a major problem in the developed world.

Although there are many negative perceptions of the hospitality industry among employees which are unfavourable, positive perceptions have also been revealed in other studies. According to Wijesundara (2015), hospitality graduates gained positive perceptions by working in the hospitality industry in Sri Lanka. Wijesundara's (2015) study found that two-thirds of hospitality graduates had positive perceptions working in the hospitality industry. The graduates acquired skills and hospitality knowledge, compensation packages and fringe benefits, good promotion opportunities, positions graduates received, and high career status in the hospitality industry.

### **5.11 How do the Findings Based on the Research Questions Relate to Current Literature on Hospitality Careers and Labour Studies?**

The results from this study are mostly related to graduates who fall into the category of Generation Y. High turnover in the hospitality industry is a problem of concern. When comparing the turnover rates of hospitality graduates, 32% were found in this study, 59% in Poland (Grobelna & Marciszewska, 2016), 80% in Oman (Atef & Al Balushi, 2017), and 70% turnover in America (Smith et al., 2018). Although the percentage is low in this study compared to others, graduate movement is a big concern. There are strong critiques of Generation Y employees' lack of loyalty towards the hospitality industry. These actions and career attitudes of Generation Y employees may also contribute to high costs and stability for the hospitality industry's future (Smith et al., 2018). Another reason for Generation Y graduates high turnover is their interest in boundaryless careers, and willingness to change career paths if their life objectives are not met (Smith et al., 2018; Wong et al., 2017). Fair promotions and a clear career pathway are important factors for Generation Y employees (Wong et al., 2017).

The hospitality industry needs to retain these graduates. To achieve high retention of Generation Y graduates, the industry needs to feature an enjoyable work environment and an exciting and challenging career (Gebbels et al., 2020).

From the results of this study and the looking at the graduates' mobility of changing employers, 56% of graduates left their first employer within two years and 20% of graduates received promotions at their first place of employment. Comparing this to the report from Smith et al. (2018), 83% of graduates were mobile within the first two years.

The job mobility of graduates in this study may also continue until graduates achieve their desired position in their career (Mooney et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2018). Graduates who received promotions, as per this study (20%), may stay longer and also have further opportunities for career progression in the same organisation (Chan et al., 2016; Chen & Shen, 2012; Smith et al., 2018).

When graduates seek career progression, it is important that they seek vertically and horizontally until the end of their careers. Vertical career progression can be useful for promotions, higher pay, and higher status. Graduates also need to look at horizontal career progression to add value for graduates and the organisation by increasing knowledge (Smith et al., 2018).

Another crucial problem hospitality graduates face is that the hospitality industry does not recognise hospitality qualifications to a very high degree. When it comes to employment opportunities, hospitality graduates can be disadvantaged when competing for employment against those who have experience but no tertiary qualifications. The industry values experienced employees over graduates, which is very different to the normal expectation that a degree offers graduates an advantage of securing employment in their chosen career (Harkison et al., 2011).

The hospitality industry not giving proper recognition to tertiary qualifications is a big disadvantage for the careers of hospitality graduates in this study. All graduates in this study were employment ready, with 80% of them having work experience during their studies, and graduating with a bachelor's degrees in hospitality management.

It is important to look at the career impacts of internships. 66% of graduates in this study had work experience, a hospitality industry internship, or academic qualifications. In other studies by Chen and Shen (2012) and Smith et al. (2018), was noted that the role of the academic institution and academic programme with work experience or internship would prepare hospitality students for a rewarding career in the hospitality industry. Further, a positive work experience, incorporated with a well-resourced academic curriculum may lead favourably for career success (Chen & Shen, 2012; Smith et al., 2018).

Lee and Chao (2013) focused on the role of a host hospitality organisation and a student's decision to continue a career in the hospitality industry after graduating. For a graduate to pursue a successful career in the hospitality industry, the organisation where the graduates

internships or work experience must have a properly designed influential internship work programme.

The graduates in this study may have benefited if their place of work experience had an influential work programme that provided a positive work experience, and an academic programme to influence them to pursue a career in the hospitality industry after graduating.

Career inheritance can also influence one's career plans. A family with a long history of a certain career may be influenced by childhood experiences and expectations. Parents only influence their children at the time of tertiary education and career planning. Children also can be influenced by their parents' careers and mainly by inherited family business (Gebbels et al., 2020).

Lashley (2013) notes that most students' employment is in hospitality and tourism sectors. The primary reason for employment is for economic reasons. Restaurant and bar work is more attractive and also can overlap with students' social life. Most of these employers do not develop these students as employees. The students' work is very routine, unskilled, with no training or promotions, low pay, and casual hours all which benefit the employer. During peak periods, students may get more hours and minimum hours during low seasons.

A finding of this research is that 80% of graduates had work experience during their studies. The question is, how rewarding was the work experience for the graduates' career development and career progression? Guiding the students to get career development from work experience, and helping students with their career progression may be an area of thought for the tertiary educators.

Every place of work may provide some economic benefit for the students, but the work experience may not help the student to consider a lifelong career in the hospitality industry (Lashley, 2013).

Climbing the ladder or career progression is the ultimate goal for all hospitality graduates. Results from this study showed that 20% of graduates were promoted in their first place of employment, and 56% graduates moved employers which may have been for career progression. O'Brien (2017) focused on hospitality graduates' career ladders. A graduate with a degree in hospitality management, similar to graduates in this study, is in a favourable position to join a hotel or a hotel company as a management trainee receive their first promotion in

about one year and a steady vertical progress up to a general manager position. Obrien (2017) suggests that graduates who take the path of food and beverage, and reach the position of food and beverage manager, are in a likely position to achieve general manager post faster, followed by other divisions such as rooms and sales and accounting.

Looking at Figure 4.10, 27% of graduates were in food and beverage and 31% graduates were in front office. As explained by Obrien (2017), the graduates in this study may reach high positions during their career progression.

All graduates have career commitments. When graduates have career commitments, they can develop an ability to deal with disappointments while staying focused on their career goals. During a graduate's career they will face many disappointments. Gebbels et al. (2020) describe that graduates' self-efficacy and career commitment can overcome these obstacles to achieve career goals.

Graduates need to develop career adaptability to adjust for future changes, to manage challenges, for mobility, to fit into work environment and their other work and life related commitments. Career adaptability can also attract the intention to leave an organisation. Graduates who have career adaptability also facilitate their own career development (Chan et al., 2016).

From Looking at the results of this study, how can tertiary educators contribute to graduates' commitment to work longer in the hospitality industry? A review conducted in Taiwan found that academics provide valuable information, continuous career counselling, and mentoring for undergraduates from their first to final year. Providing hospitality profiles from different networks can show undergraduates real-life examples of hospitality professionals and their career paths. Presenting these facts and other support services can help undergraduates come to their own conclusions (Obrien, 2017).

Hospitality graduates have many opportunities for further career development (Wang, 2013), to develop the necessary career competencies (Kong et al., 2012), and to have a boundaryless career (Smith et al., 2018; Wang, 2013). Career adaptability will help graduates adapt for career development and work environments (Chan et al., 2016). Career commitment will help graduates achieve career goals (Gebbels et al., 2020) whereas career ladders will help graduates schedule their plan for development (Obrien, 2012), and a pathway for a boundaryless career (Wang, 2013).

## **Chapter 6 Conclusion and Practical Recommendations**

### **6.1 Summary**

The purpose of this research was to look at the career pathways of Bachelor of International Hospitality Management graduates from AUT. Specifically, this study explored graduates' demographics, work experience during their studies, their chosen employment sector after graduation, the hospitality roles that graduates entered into, length of stay at first place of employment, job advancement, length of their hospitality career and graduates that left the hospitality industry.

Although a lot of research has been conducted on hospitality employees' careers, high turnover remains a problem in the hospitality industry. The findings from this research may help to find out more about hospitality graduates' career movements. From the results of this study, more focus has been given to some of the findings explored, to understand more about hospitality graduates' careers.

A summary of the key findings of this research are presented in the following sections. This is followed by the study limitations and practical recommendations. Finally, recommendations for further research on hospitality graduates' career prospects will end this chapter along with concluding remarks.

### **6.2 Summary of Key Research Findings**

#### **1. Demographic Findings**

The demographic findings of this study are in very much in agreement that the hospitality industry in New Zealand and worldwide employ more females. This trend not only appears in the hospitality industry, but also in hospitality education institutes internationally (Chuang & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010; Richardson, 2010). Youth and migrant labour in the hospitality industry is common in New Zealand and in many other countries. This female dominated labour market has been discussed and concerns have been raised regarding poor working conditions, vulnerability, exploitation, and high turnover (Poulston, 2008, 2009). This study also found that more female employees study hospitality management, and leave the hospitality industry, thus creating a high turnover in the industry. According to the results of this study, male graduates are a minority but works longer in the hospitality industry than females. Male

graduates also work more in hospitality related industries than other industries compared to females.

## **2. Employment Sector During Studies**

Most graduates in this study had work experience at the time of graduation and were employment ready which is a good indication for the hospitality industry, as graduates with work experience fit into the industry faster. The industry can be optimistic in regard to recruiting industry ready graduates rather than apprentice employees according to these results. Wong et al. (2017) explain that Generation Y graduates are more employment ready with a qualification and training. This can also be a compliment for hospitality educators in preparing employment ready graduates. Work experience is one of the most important aspects for employment ready graduates. There are many positives for graduates that work experience offers (Chen & Shen, 2012; Kim & Park, 2013). Work experience can also provide graduates with a lifelong career in hospitality or make them leave the hospitality industry (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008).

## **3. Employment Sector After Graduation**

One of the most obvious findings to emerge from this study is that 74% of graduates were employed in the hospitality industry after graduating. This is an increase of 8% from the number of graduates who were employed in the hospitality sector during their studies. It is also important to note that 26% of hospitality graduates quit the hospitality industry immediately after graduation to start a career in another employment sector. During the time of their studies, 14% of graduates were employed in non-hospitality employment. This number has increased to 26% by the time they graduated. Results from other studies show much fewer graduates entering the hospitality industry after graduating. According to Grobelna and Marciszewska (2016), in Poland, only 59% of graduates enter the hospitality industry after graduation. Another study by Atef Al Balusfi (2017) in Oman, found that only 41% of graduates entered the hospitality industry after graduating. This result of 74% of graduates starting a hospitality career is a great result for industry and educators.

## **4. Roles Entered in the Hospitality Sector**

After graduated and deciding on a career in the hospitality industry, graduates decide their area of interest of employment. Interestingly, most of the graduates worked in front office and food and beverage departments which are front of house departments with direct customer contact

work. In this study, 58% of graduates were employed in front of house roles and 16% were employed in back of house roles. These findings match other findings which state that 64% of graduates work in front office and food and beverage departments (Hai-yan & Baum, 2006; Janta, 2011; Jung and Yoon, 2012). It was also observed that most of the back of house roles were performed by female domestic graduates. International graduates were mostly employed in front of house roles. Richardson (2010) states that international students are happy with any hospitality role after graduation.

## **5. Length of Stay at First Place of Employment**

The findings show that graduates were very mobile. 56% of graduates left their first employer within two years and a further 11% left in their third year. This may be a concern for hospitality organisations. Mobility in the hospitality industry can be advantageous for graduates to move to higher positions (Baum, 2015; Mooney et al., 2016). Graduates also expect junior management or supervisory roles after graduation (Richardson, 2010). Graduates who had job advancement in this study may have stayed longer at their first place of employment. Graduates may stay longer with their employers if they find job advancement opportunities (Chan et al., 2016). With many Generation Y graduates in this sample, mobility and unreliability can be expected (Wong et al., 2017). Job advancement can reduce mobility and extend graduates' length of stay at their first place of employment (Chan et al., 2016; Mooney et al., 2016).

## **6. Job Advancement at First Place of Employment**

Job advancement is a very crucial step for graduates. With 20% graduates achieving promotions at their first place of employment, these graduates length of stay may be longer at the first place of employment. If graduates do not get promotions, mobility may be high. The mobility of graduates in this study for the first two years was 56%. Graduates' first promotions are important and a major step in their career ladder (Chen et al., 2015; Tams & Arthur, 2010). Mobility can give promotions faster in the hospitality industry which is important for graduates' career progression (Baum, 2015; Mooney et al., 2016).

## **7. Length of Time Graduates Stayed in the Hospitality Industry**

The length of time graduates stayed in the hospitality industry is explained in three durations. Out of 13% graduates who graduated between 2008 and 2010, 11% still continue to work in the hospitality industry and 2% left for other employment. From the graduates between 2011

and 2014, 16% continue to work in the hospitality industry and 8% left for other employment. From the graduates between 2015 and 2018, 42% continue to work in the hospitality industry and 21% left for other employment.

### **8. Leaving the Hospitality Industry**

This finding will be of interest to hospitality educators and the hospitality industry. It was found that 68% of graduates in this study continue to be employed in the hospitality industry. This is a result that is much higher than many other studies of graduate employment in the hospitality sector. The concern of graduates leaving the industry still remain, with 32% of graduates leaving the hospitality industry for other employment.

### **9. Comparing Female and Male Graduates**

Females dominate this study in all aspects of the findings. More females study hospitality. More females work in the hospitality industry during their studies and after graduation. More females work in other industries during studies and after graduation. More females received promotions and changed employers. More females worked in front of house and back of the house roles. Finally, more females left hospitality industry for other employment. Male graduates only worked in the hospitality industry during their studies and worked longer in the hospitality industry than females. Male graduates were mostly employed in hospitality work after graduating.

### **10. Comparing Domestic and International Graduates**

The majority of the participants in this study were domestic graduates. After graduation, by percentage, more international graduates were employed in the hospitality industry. Most of international graduates worked in front of house and food and beverage department roles. International graduates worked longer in the hospitality industry. There was an increase of international students studying hospitality from 2015 onwards.

## **6.3 Research Aim**

The aim of this research was to explore the career pathways of hospitality management graduates of New Zealand. This study focuses on one specific qualification, the Bachelor of International Hospitality Management at AUT.

## 6.4 Research Questions

- Which industry sectors were undergraduates employed in during their studies?
- Which industry sectors did graduates choose for full-time employment?
- What roles did graduates obtain to enter the hospitality industry and what roles did they progress into?
- How long did graduates work in their first place of hospitality employment and did they advance within the same organisation or move to other hospitality organisations/sectors?
- What sectors do graduates move into and how long do they spend in hospitality organisations after graduation?
- Was there a difference in career pathways between male and female graduates?
- Was there a difference in career pathways of graduates passed out in different years?
- Was there a difference in career pathways of international vs domestic graduates?
- How do the findings based on the above questions relate to current literature on hospitality careers and labour studies?

The core findings of this study will be of interest and provide a deeper understanding of the aim of the research and the answers to the research questions. The demographic findings show that the hospitality industry is female dominated and other studies from Poulston (2008, 2009) also show this. Graduates from this study who have work experience fit into the hospitality industry faster and with a better understanding of working life and could be a better choice than apprentice employees. Work experience can provide graduates a career pathway in hospitality (Ko, 2008; Teng, 2008). This study gave a result of 74% graduates entering the industry workforce. This outcome is contrary to previous studies that suggested that much fewer graduates enter the hospitality workforce (Atef & Al Balushi, 2017; Grobelna & Marciszewska, 2016). Most of the graduates found employment in the front of the house which is a similar finding to Hai-yan and Baum (2006), Janta (2011), and Jung and Yoon (2012). Mobility of graduates was 56% within the first two years and many graduates were mobile and looking for

higher positions (Baum, 2015; Mooney et al., 2016). With 20% graduates of this study achieving promotions at their first place of employment, which is a step forward for graduates career development and may stay longer with the employer (Chen et al., 2015; Tams & Arthur, 2010). The results of graduates still in employment (68%) and graduates who left the industry (32%) remains a concern. When comparing male and female graduates, females lead in all areas in this study, apart from male graduates only doing hospitality work during their studies and working longer in the hospitality industry. When comparing domestic and international graduates, more domestic graduates were employed in the industry. Front office, food and beverage divisions were where international graduates were employed and worked longer in the industry. These results have answered the research questions and contribute to the hospitality industry. The results may also contribute to existing literature.

## **6.5 Limitations**

There were many limitations identified during this research project. The sample population was taken from AUT alumni who had updated their profile on LinkedIn. The sample population have one specific degree and are from one specific university. All graduates from AUT may not have created a profile in LinkedIn. All LinkedIn profiles of the graduates may not have been updated at the time the researcher obtained the data. All data collected for this research was third party data and the researcher was limited to information that was available on LinkedIn. The researcher had a good population for this sample, but the number of graduates from 2008-2010 were fewer compared to 2016-2018 which was quite unbalanced.

The study population comprised a reasonable number of participants for looking at gender and domestic vs international graduates. This study did not break down the international students into the countries or regions they originated from and grouped all international students together.

Further, the researcher did not investigate whether qualitative research would be more beneficial to determine the findings.

## **6.6 Practical Recommendations**

The hospitality industry needs to give proper recognition for tertiary educational qualifications and give due recognition for employment and promotions in par with other industries. Remuneration and fringe benefits for the hospitality industry need to be similar to other

industries. Provide more internal promotion opportunities and better working conditions. All tertiary educators need to provide give a real-life view of the hospitality industry to undergraduates at the beginning of their career and provide support until graduation. The hospitality industry is mainly a private sector owned business and plays an important role in employment. Therefore, training and development is an area where more time is needed, and focus needs to be on career development programmes for graduates. Training will benefit not only employees, but also business.

Another recommendation is looking into the possibility to attract more males to join the hospitality industry. Demographic findings from this research and other studies from Chuang and Dellmann-Jenkins (2010) and Poulston (2008, 2009) show us that the hospitality industry is a female dominant industry. Females lead in studying, working and leaving the hospitality industry. Males are a minority workforce in the hospitality industry. The findings of this research show that males worked only in hospitality work during studies, most males were employed in the hospitality industry after graduation and worked longer in the hospitality industry after graduation compared to females. To encourage more male participation in hospitality work, the industry, the education sector and other related agencies can introduce hospitality studies from high school level and beyond.

Giving more opportunities to international students after graduating with training and development and the industry helping international students with long term working arrangements. The findings of this study show us that by percentage more international graduates were employed and worked longer in the hospitality sector compared to domestic graduates (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Richardson, 2010). The study also gives us data that the number of international students have steadily increased from year 2015. The hospitality industry, tertiary education sector and relevant agencies need to work together to get a working arrangement that may help these students to work longer in the hospitality industry in New Zealand. All these recommendations may have an impact on graduates working longer and making a career in the hospitality industry.

The hospitality industry needs to retain educated trained graduates. Finding reasons for employees to stay or leave are only short-term strategies (Choudhury & McIntosh, 2013).

## **6.7 Future research**

This study was conducted in New Zealand with hospitality graduates from AUT. It could have been more informative if the research included hospitality graduates from other tertiary institutions in New Zealand or extended to Australia and Europe. An investigation to find out if tertiary educators are giving hospitality undergraduates a real-life picture of the hospitality industry may be informative for graduates' career selection. It would be also be beneficial to investigate if the hospitality industry and tertiary institutes can work together to provide an appropriate training programme for undergraduates during internships. Further, I suggest that a research to be done to track the progress of first year undergraduates until they complete their studies and beyond. This may enable researchers to discover undergraduate students' perceptions of change in the hospitality industry during the course of their degree and beyond.

In further research analysis, considering of postgraduate students and undergraduate students will be interesting to find out more about students perceptions of working in the hospitality industry.

It may be also interesting to further study whether the hospitality industry and tertiary educators are grooming hospitality graduates for various other employment sectors.

## **6.8 Concluding Remarks**

This dissertation investigated students' progression towards a career in the hospitality industry. The findings of this research may contribute valid information to hospitality education providers, regarding what information could be included to improve degree programme. Hospitality education providers may also use this information to attract students who have real passion for the hospitality industry.

Hospitality industry practitioners may use this information to change workplace practices to attract and retain young graduates in the hospitality industry and meet the demand for skilled employees and a growing industry. The hospitality industry can provide career development for graduates.

This research ends with the following quote, "The War for Talent never ended. Executives must constantly rethink the way their companies plan to attract, motivate, and retain employees" (Guthridge et al., 2008, p. 49).

## Appendix

Figure A-1. Graduates' employment sector during studies

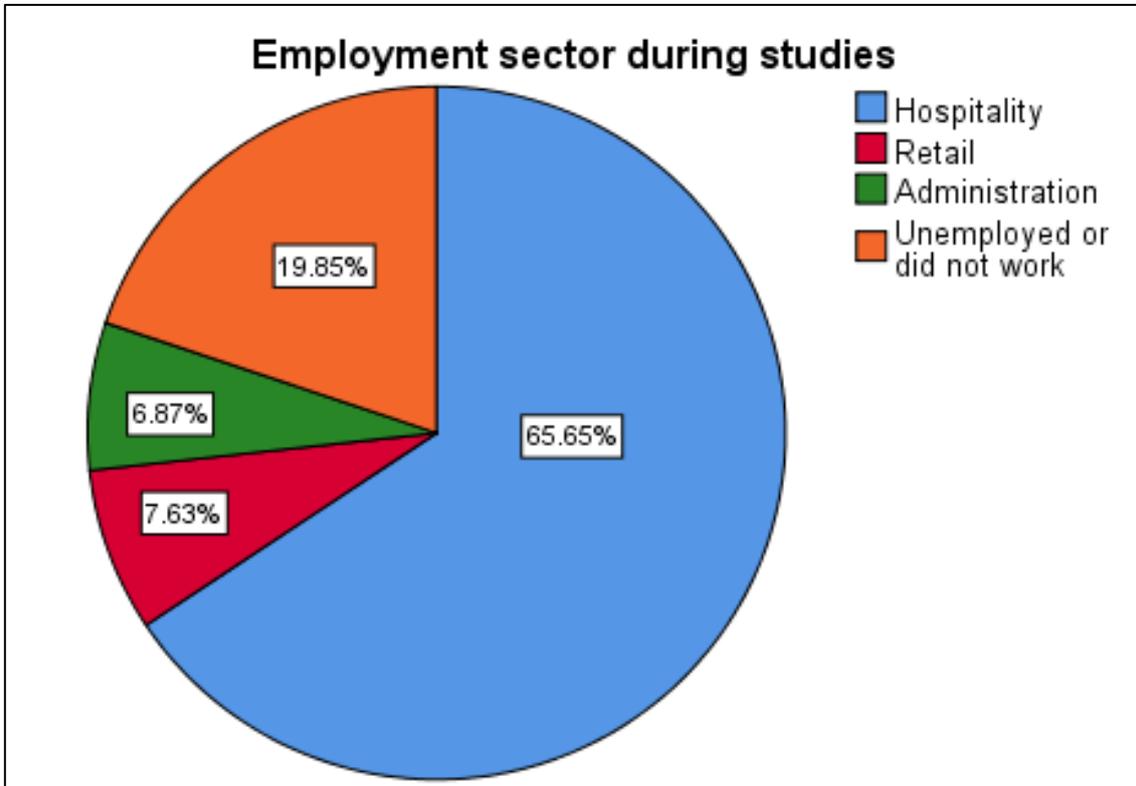
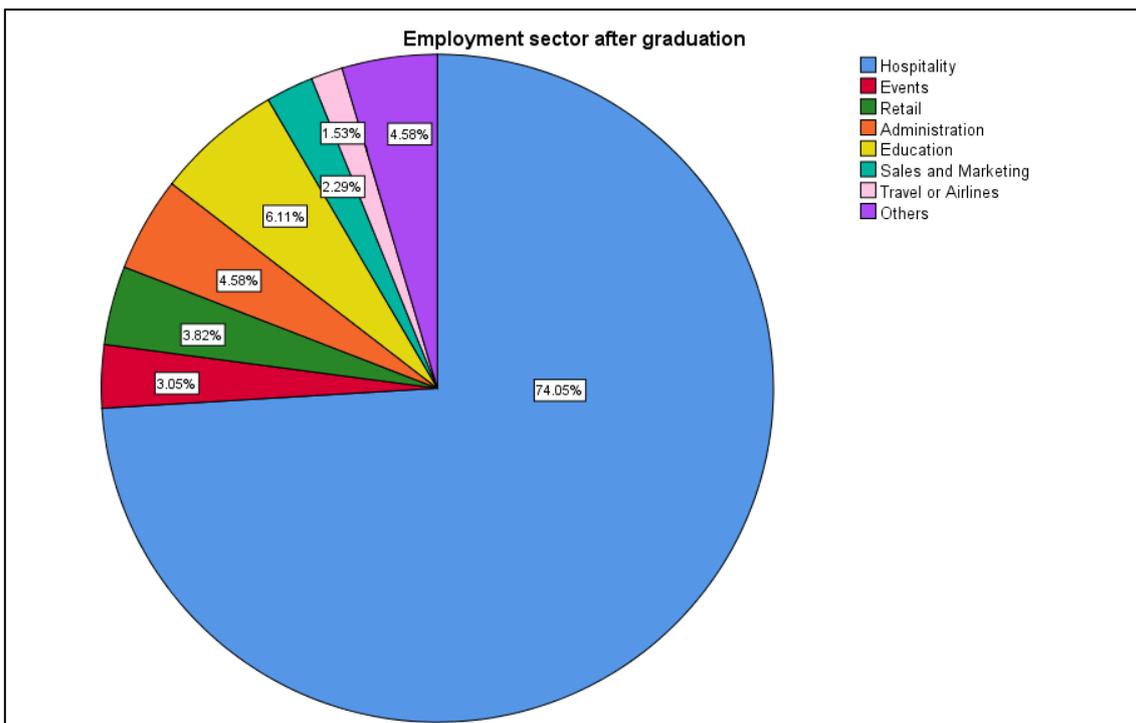


Figure A-2. Employment sector after graduation



Figures A1 and A2 are shown earlier in Figures 4.4 and 4.7 in more detail. After doing a chi-square test for these two variables the following results were obtained. The chi-square test of 27 cells had an expected count less than 5, a value of 45.9338, and a degree of freedom of 21. The  $p$ -value was .001 and is less than 0.05. With a less than 0.05  $p$ -value, there was a statistical significance between graduates' employment sector during studies and employment sector after graduation.

Figure A-3. Graduates employment sector after graduation

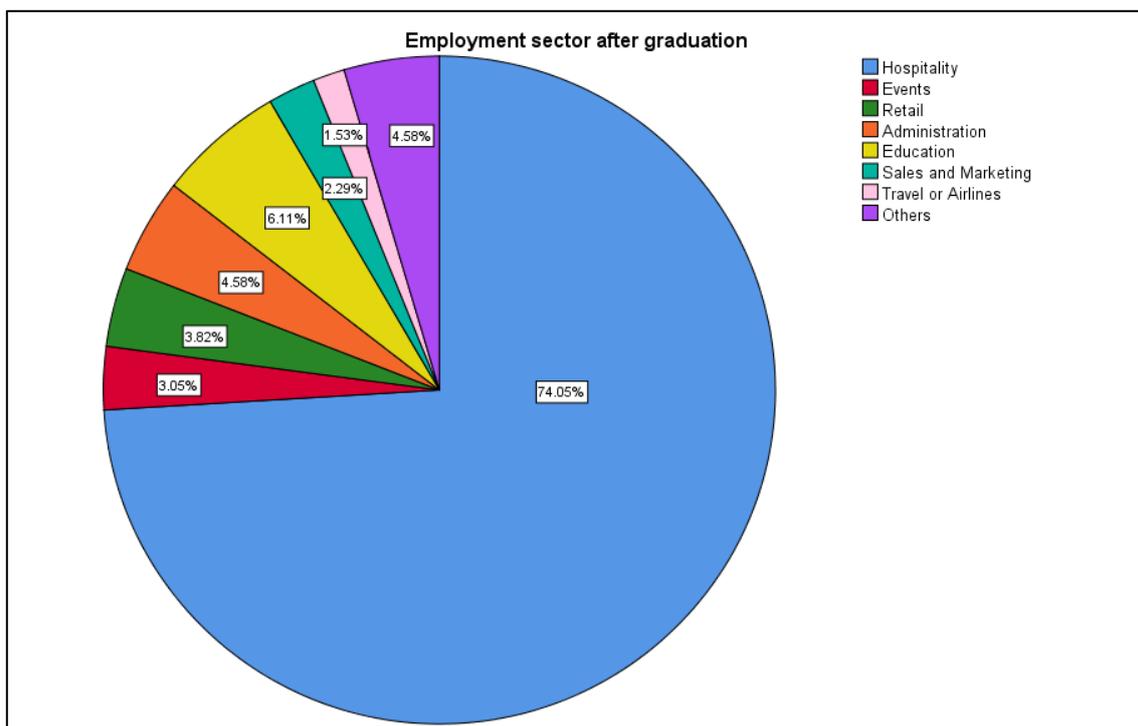
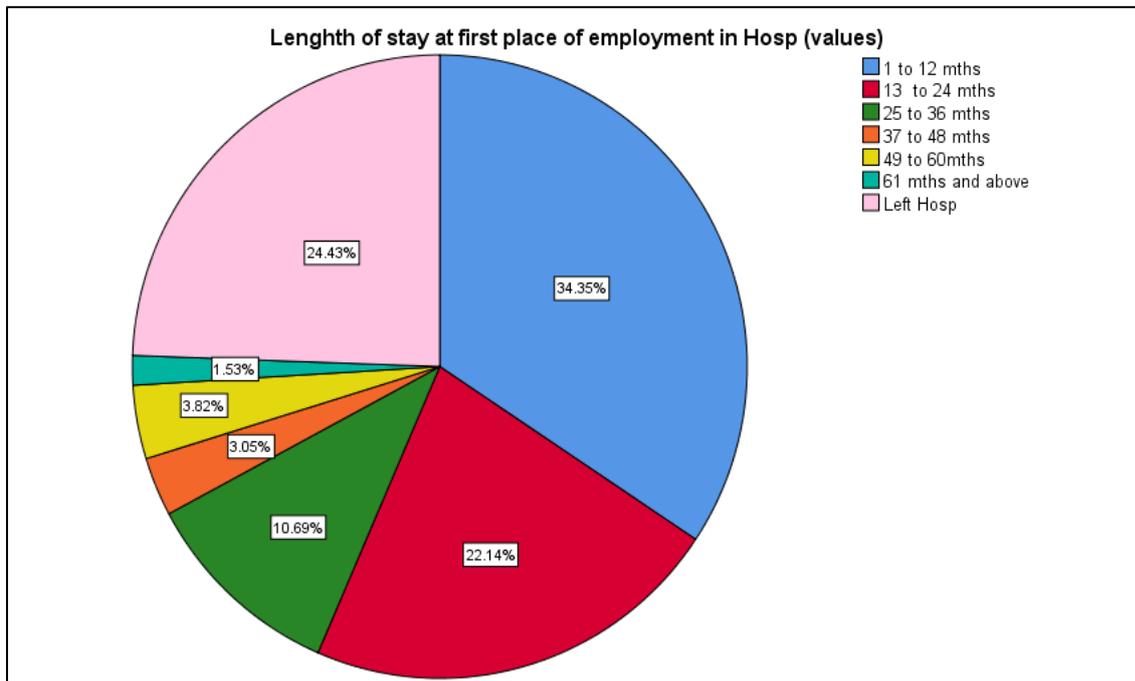


Figure A-4. Length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality



Figures A-3 and A-4 are shown in more detail in Figures 4.7 and 4.13. With the conclusion of a Chi-Square test for the above two variables, the results obtained are explained below. With a valid Chi-Square test with 52 cells with an expected count less than 5, with a value of 114.199 and a degree of freedom equal to 42. The obtained  $p$ -value of .000 which is less than .001. This result indicates that the association between graduates' employment sector after graduation and length of stay at first place of employment in the hospitality sector is statistically significant at .001. This also means that there is strong evidence to generalise this hypothesis to all graduates.

Figure A-5. Graduates' employment sector after graduation

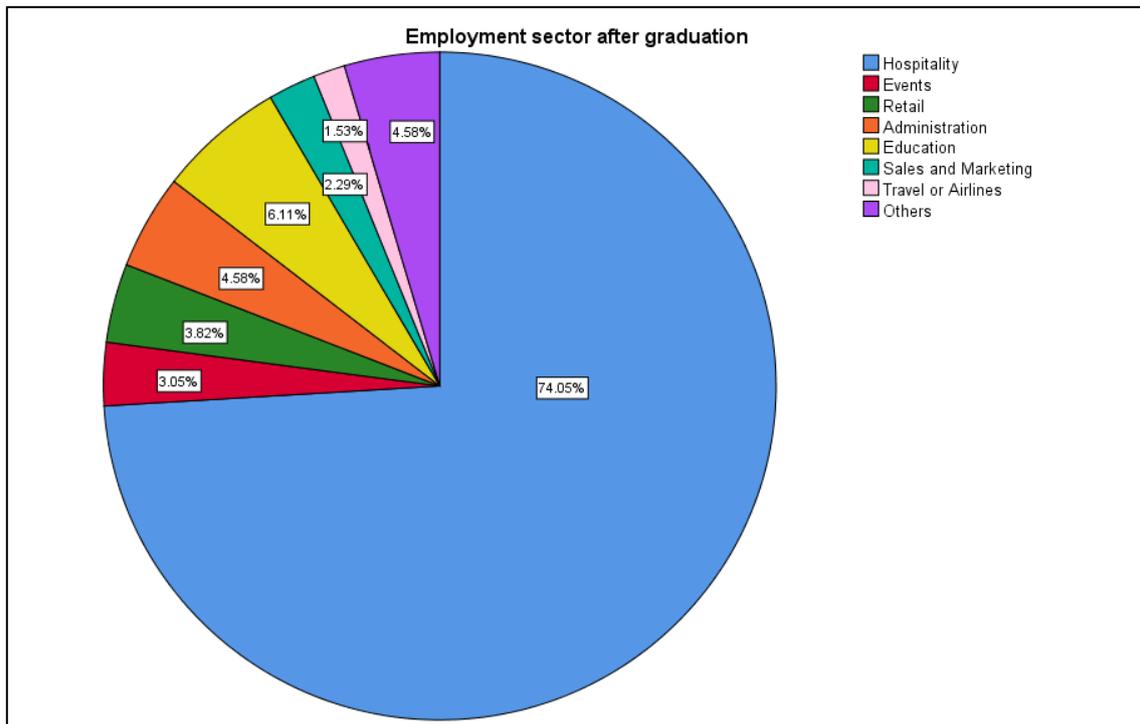


Figure A-6. Job advancement of graduates at first place of employment in hospitality

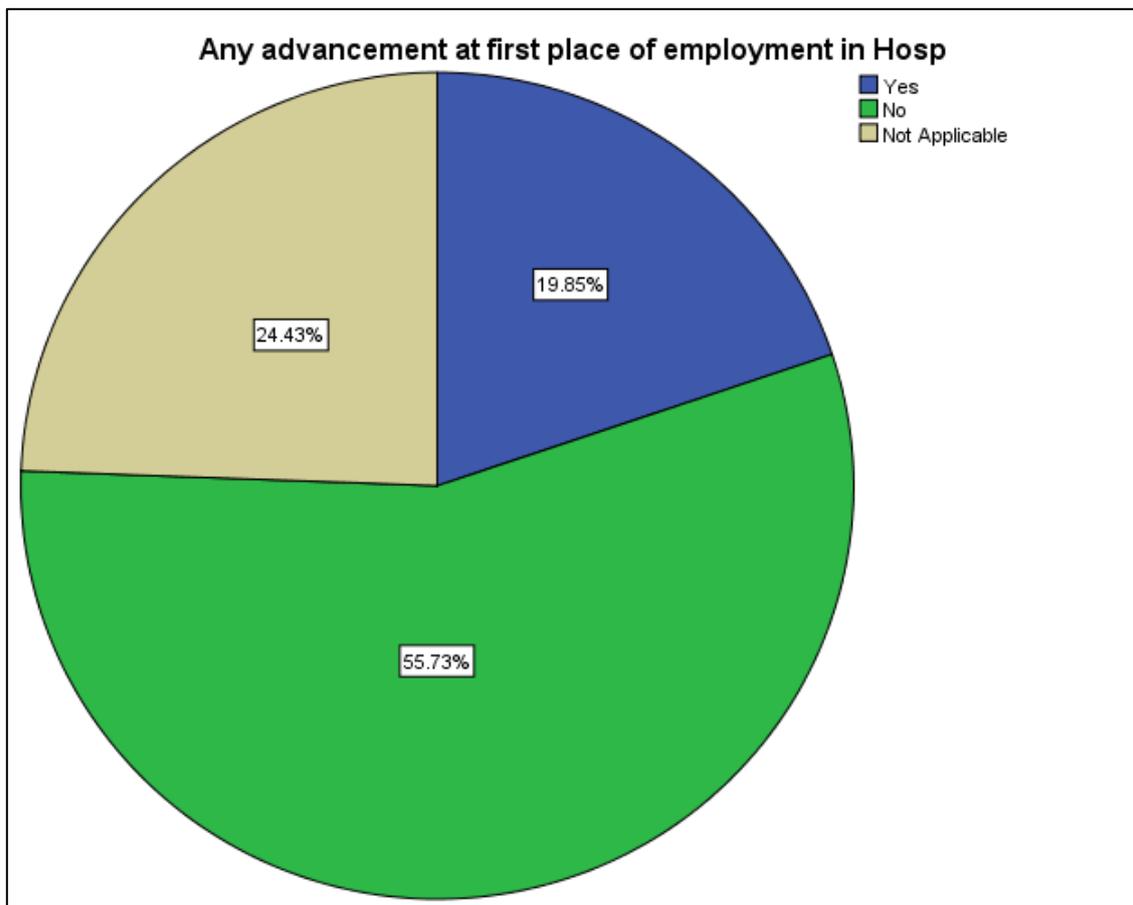


Figure A-5 and A-6 are shown in Figures 4.7 and 4.16 in more detail. A chi-square test was conducted for the above two variables. A valid chi-square test was performed with a result of 21 cells with an expected count of less than 5. The chi-square value is 113.029 and had a degree of freedom equal of 14. The *p*-value obtained is .000 and is less than .001. This *p*-value result indicates that the association between graduates' employment sector after they graduate and any advancement at first place of employment in the hospitality sector had statistically significance at .001. This information also means that there is strong evidence to generalise this hypothesis to all graduates.

Figure A-7. Graduates' employment sector after graduation

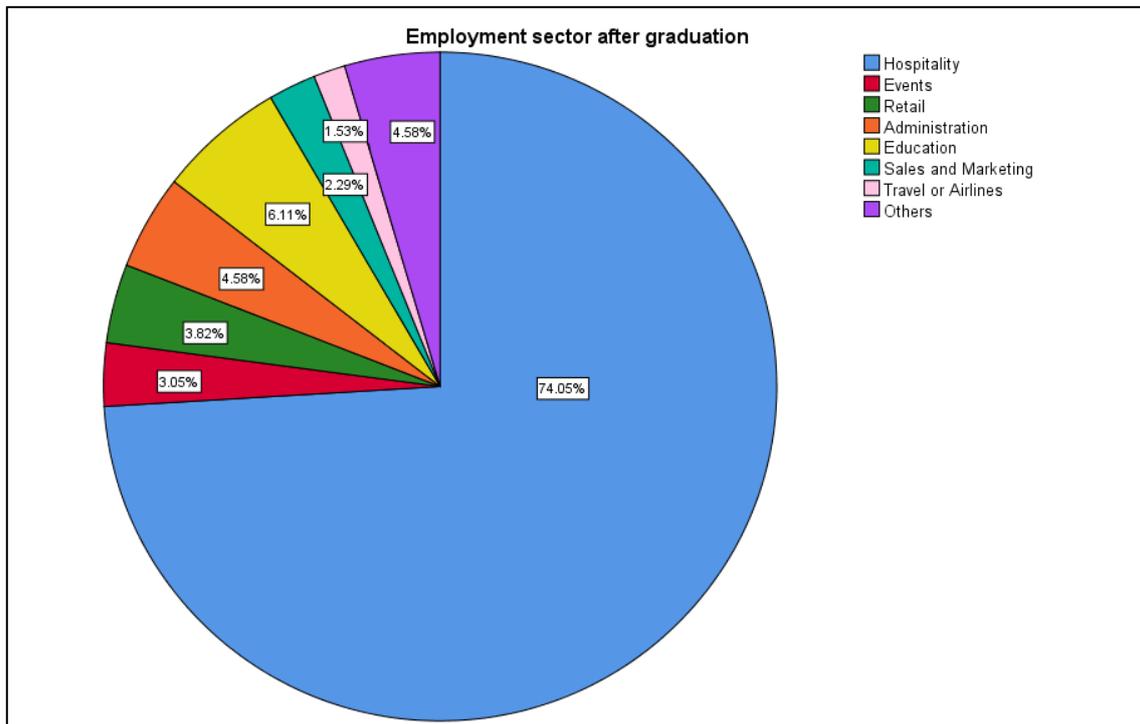
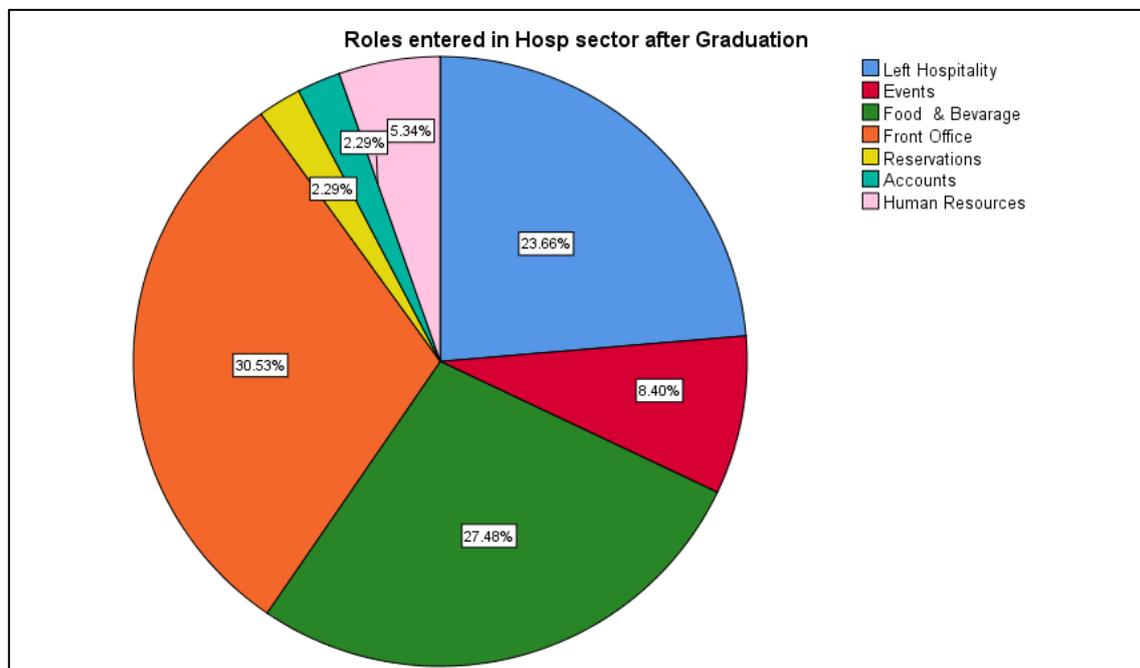


Figure A-8. Roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation



Figures A-7 and A-8 are shown in Figures 4.7 and 4.10 in more detail. A cross tabulation of the above two variables gave the following results.

A Chi-Square test was conducted with a result of 51 cells having an expected count less than 5. The Chi-Square value is 169.666 with a degree of freedom equals to 42. The  $p$ -value is .000 which is less than 0.05. The  $p$ -value indicates that there is a statistical significance with the association of graduates' employment sector after graduation and roles entered in the hospitality sector after graduation. The  $p$ -value obtained is .000 and is less than .001. With this  $p$ -value it can be generalised that the statistical significance of this hypothesis for all graduates.

Figure A-9. Graduates' employment sector after graduation.

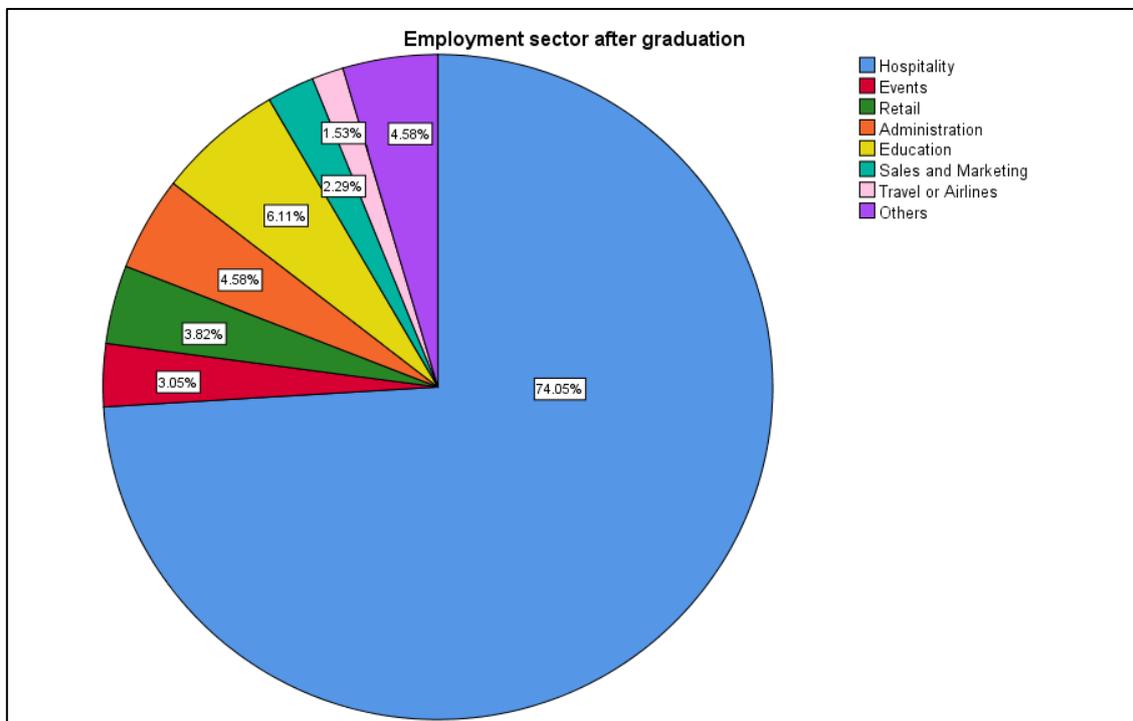
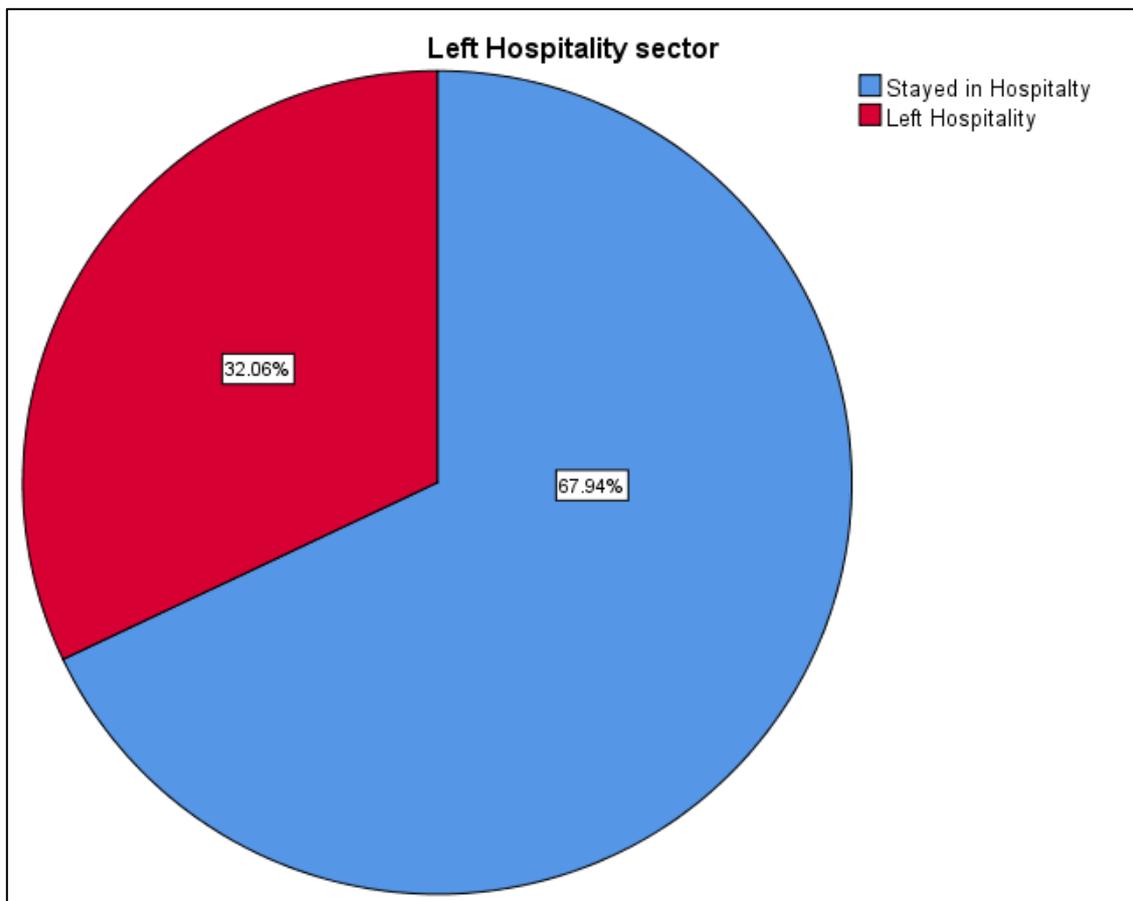


Figure A-10. Left hospitality sector after graduation



Figures A-9 and A-10 are shown in Figures 4.7 and 4.23. In Figure 34, 74% graduates' entered the hospitality sector after graduation. 26% found employment in other sectors. In Figure 35.1 more hospitality graduates left the hospitality sector and joined other employment sectors. This information is explained in Figure 35.1 where the graduates' in the hospitality sector has dropped to 68% and graduates employed in other sectors have increased to 32%.

A valid chi-square test was done and with 51 cells having expected count less than 5. The chi-square test value is 85.232 with the degree of freedom of 7. The  $p$ -value is .000 and is less than 0.05. This result indicates that the association between graduates' employment sector after graduation and the graduates who left hospitality sector has a statistical significance. Therefore, we have strong confidence to generalise this hypothesis to all graduates. .

Figure A-11. Graduates' employment sector during studies

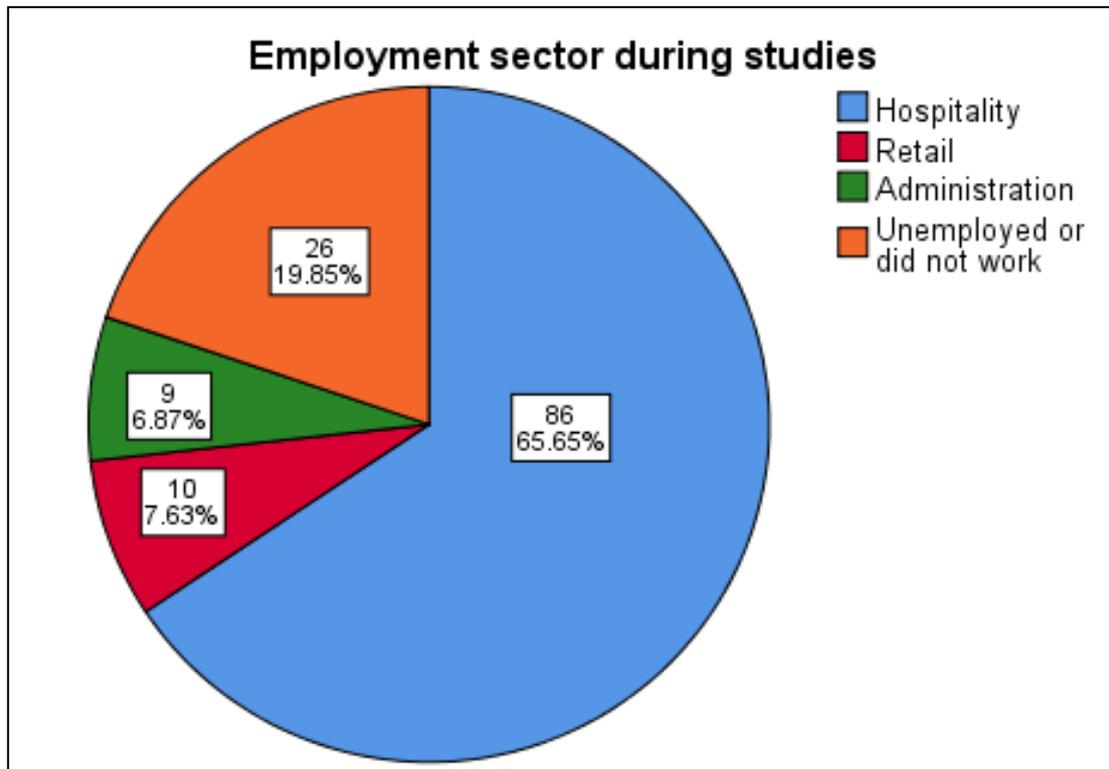


Figure A-12. Left hospitality sector after graduation

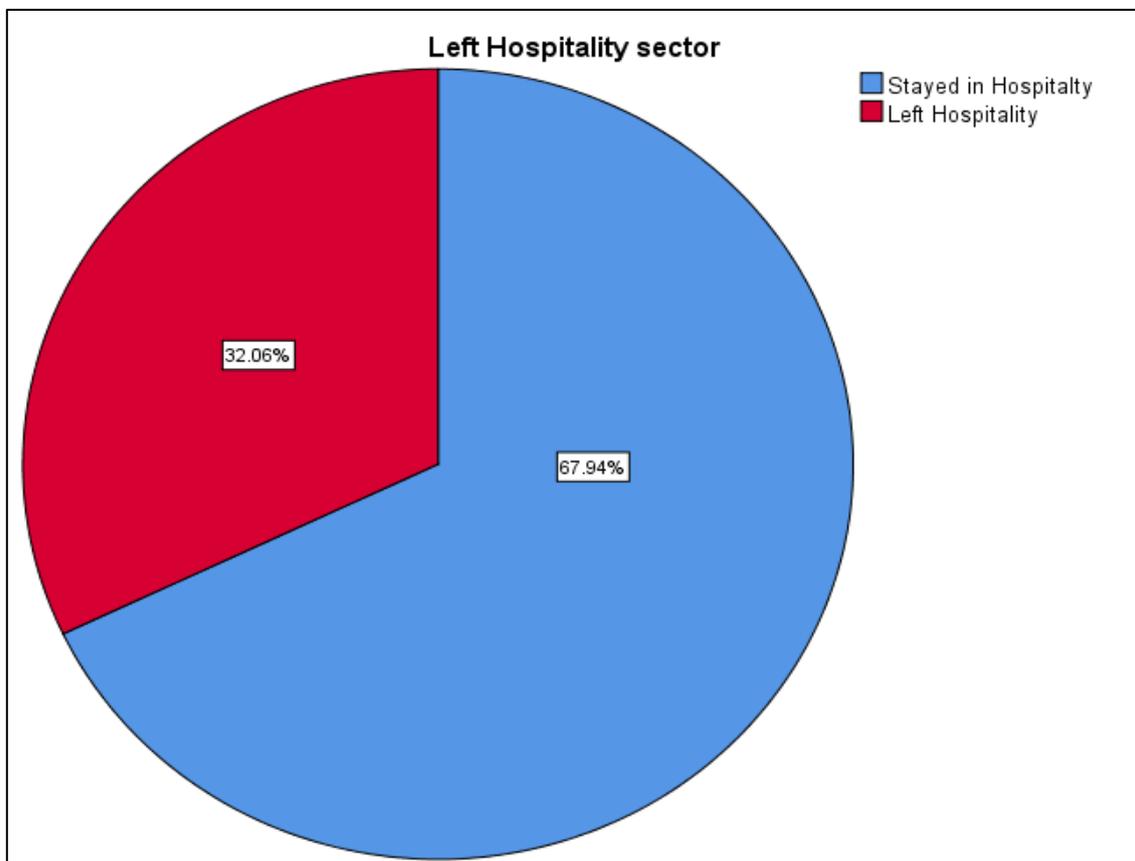


Figure A-13. Graduates’ employment sector during studies and graduates who left the hospitality sector

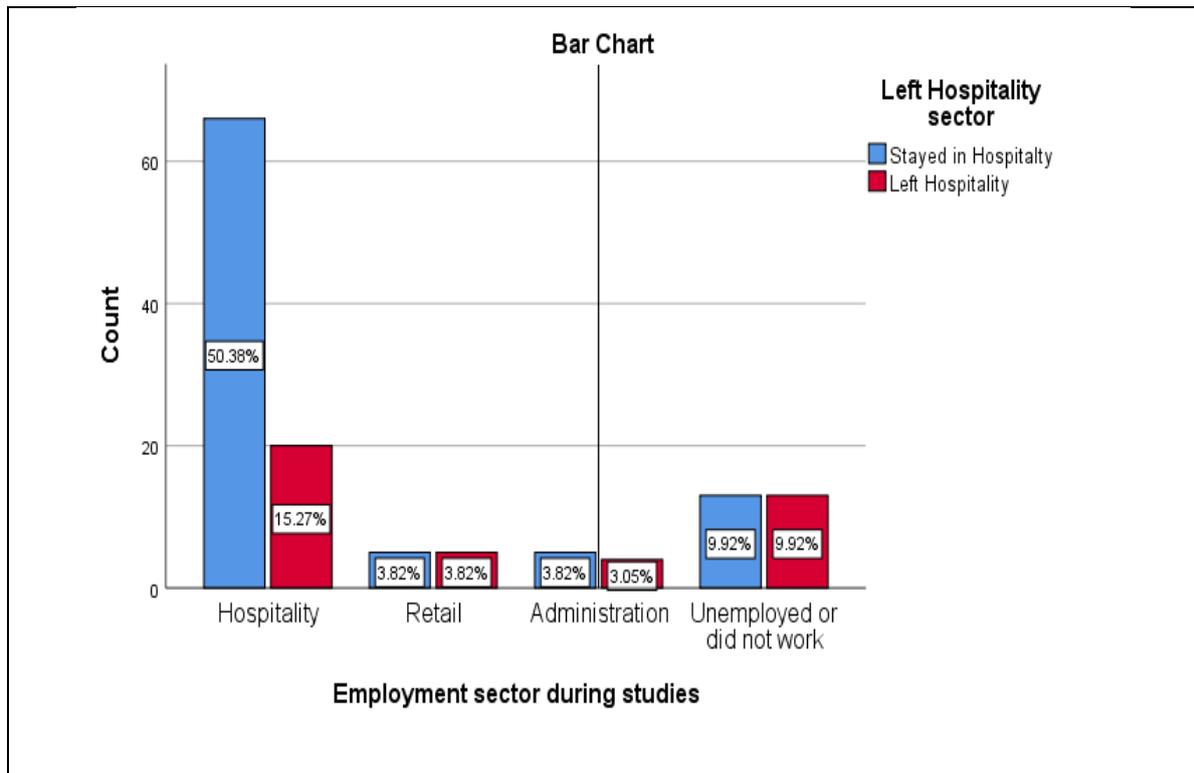


Figure A-11, A-12 and A-13 show the graduates’ employment sector during studies and graduates who left the hospitality sector. The above three figures are shown in more detail in Figures 4.4, 4.23 and 4.24.

A chi-square test with 2 cells had an expected of count less than 5. The chi-square value is 9.013 to the degree of freedom 3. The *p*-value of .029 is less than 0.05. Since the *p*-value is 0.029, there is statistical significance between graduates’ employment during studies and graduates leaving hospitality.

Table A-1. Gender vs employment sector during studies

Gender vs employment sector during studies						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Gender * Employment sector during studies	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-2. Gender vs employment sector during studies (chi-square)

Gender vs employment sector during studies (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.833 <sup>a</sup>	3	.032
Likelihood Ratio	13.921	3	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	.889	1	.346
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.54.

Table A-3. Gender vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation

Gender vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Gender * Roles entered in Hosp sector after Graduation	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-4. Gender vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation (chi-square)

Gender vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.924 <sup>a</sup>	6	.014
Likelihood Ratio	18.078	6	.006
Linear-by-Linear Association	.574	1	.449
N of Valid Cases	131		
a. 6 cells (42.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .85.			

Table A-5. Gender vs time spent in hospitality after graduation, before leaving hospitality

Gender vs time spent in hospitality after graduation, before leaving hospitality						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Gender * Time spent in Hosp after graduation, before leaving Hosp	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-6. Gender vs time spent in hospitality after graduation, before leaving hospitality (chi-square)

Gender vs time spent in hospitality after graduation, before leaving hospitality (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.773 <sup>a</sup>	6	.022
Likelihood Ratio	15.792	6	.015
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.872	1	.090
N of Valid Cases	131		
a. 10 cells (71.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .28.			

Table A-7. Employment sector during studies vs year graduated

Employment sector during studies vs year graduated						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector during studies * Year Graduated (values)	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-8. Employment sector during studies vs year graduated (chi-square)

Employment sector during studies vs year graduated (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.487 <sup>a</sup>	12	.017
Likelihood Ratio	24.465	12	.018
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.332	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 13 cells (65.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .82.

Table A.9. Employment sector during studies vs employment sector after graduation

Employment sector during studies vs employment sector after graduation						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector during studies * Employment sector after graduation	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A.10. Employment sector during studies vs employment sector after graduation (chi-square)

Employment sector during studies vs employment sector after graduation (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.938 <sup>a</sup>	21	.001
Likelihood Ratio	32.760	21	.049
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.668	1	.010
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 27 cells (84.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

Table A.11. Employment sector after graduation vs length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality

Case Processing Summary - Reference Figures A.3, 4						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector after graduation * Length of stay at first place of employment in Hosp (values)	13	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%
	1					

Table A.12. Employment sector after graduation vs length of stay at first place of employment in hospitality (chi-square)

Chi-Square Tests - Reference Figures A. 3, 4			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	114.499 <sup>a</sup>	42	.000
Likelihood Ratio	121.208	42	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	72.538	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 52 cells (92.9%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

Table A.13. Employment sector after graduation vs any advancement at first place of employment in hospitality

Employment sector after graduation vs any advancement at first place of employment in hospitality						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector after graduation * Any advancement at first place of employment in Hosp	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A.14. Employment sector after graduation vs any advancement at first place of employment in hospitality (chi-square)

Employment sector after graduation vs any advancement at first place of employment in hospitality (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	113.029 <sup>a</sup>	14	.000
Likelihood Ratio	118.767	14	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	62.946	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 21 cells (87.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .40.

Table A-15. Employment sector after graduation vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation

Employment sector after graduation vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector after graduation * Roles entered in Hosp sector after Graduation	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-16. Employment sector after graduation vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation (chi-square)

Employment sector after graduation vs roles entered in hospitality sector after graduation (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	169.666 <sup>a</sup>	42	.000
Likelihood Ratio	151.390	42	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	56.114	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 51 cells (91.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.

Table A-17. Employment sector after graduation vs left hospitality sector

Employment sector after graduation vs left hospitality sector						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector after graduation * Left Hospitality sector	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-18. Employment sector after graduation vs left hospitality sector (chi-square)

Employment sector after graduation vs left hospitality sector (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	85.232 <sup>a</sup>	7	.000
Likelihood Ratio	94.441	7	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	67.552	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 13 cells (81.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .64.

Table A-19. Employment sector during studies vs left hospitality sector

Employment sector during studies vs left hospitality sector						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Employment sector during studies * Left Hospitality sector	131	100.0%	0	0.0%	131	100.0%

Table A-20. Employment sector during studies vs left hospitality sector (chi-square)

Employment sector during studies vs left hospitality sector (chi-square)			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.013 <sup>a</sup>	3	.029
Likelihood Ratio	8.804	3	.032
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.613	1	.006
N of Valid Cases	131		

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.89.

## References

- Anvari, R., & Seóiman, S. (2010). Personal needs assessment approach in strategic training and affective commitment. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(7), 144-1157. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v5n7P144>
- Arora, P., & Rohmetra, N. (2010). Cultural intelligence: Leveraging differences to bridge the gap in the international hospitality industry. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 6(5), 216-234.
- Atef, T., & Al Balushi, M. (2017). Omani tourism and hospitality students' employment intentions and job preferences: Ramifications on Omanization plans. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 25(4), 440-461. <https://doi.org/10.1108/QAE-04-2016-0022>
- Babbie, E. R., Wagner, W. E., & Zaino, J. (2015). *Adventures in social research: Data analysis using IBM SPSS Statistics* (9th ed.). SAGE.
- Baum, T. (2015). Human resources in tourism: Still waiting for change? A 2015 reprise. *Tourism Management*, 50(4), 204-212.
- Beheshtifar, M. (2011). Role of career competencies in organizations. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 42, 6-12. <https://doi.org/10.1108/APJBA-04-2019-0079>
- Blomme, R., Van Rheede, A., & Tromp, D. (2010). Work-family conflict as a cause for turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(4), 269-285. <https://doi.org/10.1057/thr.2010.15>
- Brotherton, B. (2008). *Researching hospitality and tourism. A student guide*. SAGE.
- Brotherton, B. (2015). *Researching hospitality and tourism* (2nd ed.). SAGE.
- Bryman, A. (2015). *Social research methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business research methods* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

- Bubany, S. T., Krieshok, T. S., Black, M. D., & McKay, R. A. (2008). College students' perspectives on their career decision making. *Journal of Career Assessment, 16*(2), 177-197.
- Chan, S. H. J., Mai, X., Kuok, O. M. K., & Kong, S. H. (2016). The influence of satisfaction and promotability on the relation between career adaptability and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 92*, 167-175.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.12.003>
- Chen, T. L., & Shen, C. C. (2012). Today's intern, tomorrow's practitioner? The influence of internship programmes on students' career development in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 11*(1), 29-40.
- Cho, S., Johanson, M. M., & Guchait, P. (2009). Employees intent to leave: A comparison of determinants of intent to leave versus intent to stay. *International Journal of Hospitality Management 28*(3), 374-381  
<https://doi-org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2008.10.007>
- Choudhury, N., & McIntosh, A. (2013). Retaining students as employees: Owner operated small hospitality businesses in a university town in New Zealand. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32*, 216-269.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.07.003>
- Chuang, N. K., & Dellmann-Jenkins, M. (2010). Career decision making and intention: A study of hospitality undergraduate students. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 34*(4), 512-530. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348010370867>
- Cockburn-Wootten, C. (2012). Critically unpacking professionalism in hospitality: Knowledge, meaningful work and dignity. *Hospitality & Society, 2*(2), 215-230.  
[https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.2.2.215\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.2.2.215_1)
- Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2009). *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). PALGRAVE MACMILLAN.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE.

- Dawson, M., Abbott, J., & Shoemaker, S. (2011). The hospitality culture scale: A measure of organizational culture and personal attributes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(2), 290–300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.10.002>
- Denscombe, M. (2010). *Ground rules for social research: Guidelines for good practice* (2nd ed.). Open University Press.
- De Vos, A., & Soens, N. (2008). Protean attitude and career success: The mediating role of self-management. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(3), 449-456. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.08.007>
- Gebbels, M., Pantelidis, I. S., & Goss-Turner, S. (2020). Conceptualising patterns of career commitment: The leaving process in hospitality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(1), 126-147. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-04-2019-0338>
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-606.
- Gray, D. E. (2018). *Doing research in the real world* (4th ed.). SAGE.
- Grobelna, A., & Marciszewska, B. (2016). Work motivation of tourism and hospitality students: Implications for human resource management. In C. Bagnoli, Ch. Mio, A. Garlatti, & M. Massaro (Eds.), *Proceedings of the European Conference on Intellectual Capital*, 95–103.
- Guerrier, Y. (2008). Organisational studies and hospitality management. In B. Brotherton & R. Wood (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of hospitality management* (pp.257-273). SAGE.
- Guthridge, M., Komm, A. B., & Lawson, E. (2008). Making talent a strategic priority. *McKinsey Quarterly*, 1, 48–59.
- Hai-yan, K. and Baum, T. (2006), "Skills and work in the hospitality sector: The case of hotel front office employees in China", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 18 No. 6, pp. 509-518 <https://doi.org/10.1108/095961106106815488>

- Haldorai, K., Kim, W. G., Pillai, S. G., Park, T., & Balasubramanian, K. (2019). Factors affecting hotel employees' attrition and turnover: Application of pull-push-mooring framework. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 83, 46–55.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2019.04.003>
- Harkison, T., Poulston, J., & Ginny Kim, J. (2011). Hospitality graduates and managers: The big divide. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(3), 377-392. <https://doi.org/10.1108/095961111111122541>
- Inkson, K., Gunz, H., Ganesh, S., & Roper, J. (2012). Boundaryless careers: Bringing back boundaries. *Organization Studies*, 33(3), 323-340.  
<http://doi-org/10.1177/0170840611435600>
- Janta, H. (2011), Polish migrant workers in the UK hospitality industry: Profiles, work experience and methods for accessing employment. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(6), 803-819.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/095961111111153484>
- Jayawardena, C., McMillan, D., Pantin, D., Taller, M., & Willie, P. (2013). Trends in the international hotel industry. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 5(2), 151-163. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554211311314100>
- Jiang, B., & Tribe, J. (2009). Tourism jobs Short lived professions: Student attitudes towards tourism careers in China. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education* 8(1), 4-19.
- Joo, B. K., & Ready, K. J. (2012). Career satisfaction: The influences of proactive personality, performance goal orientation, organizational learning culture, and leader-member exchange quality. *Career Development International*, 17(3), 276–295. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620431211241090>
- Jung, H. S., & Yoon, H. H. (2012). The effects of emotional intelligence on counterproductive work behaviors and organizational citizen behaviors among food and beverage employees in a deluxe hotel. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 369–378. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.06.008>

- Kim, H. B., & Park, E. J. (2013). The role of social experience in undergraduates' career perceptions through internships. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 12(1), 70–78.
- Kim, K., & Jogaratnam, G. (2010). Effects of individual and organizational factors on job satisfaction and intent to stay in the hotel and restaurant industry. *Journal of Human resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 9(3). 318-339.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2010.487043>
- Ko, W. H. (2008). Training, satisfaction with internship programs, and confidence about future careers among hospitality students: A case study of universities in Taiwan. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 7(4), 1-15.
- Kong, H., Cheung, C., & Song, H. (2012). Determinants and outcome of career competencies: Perspectives of hotel managers in China. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 712-719.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.09.007>
- Kusluvan, S., & Kusluvan, Z. (2000). Perceptions and attitudes of undergraduate tourism students towards working in the tourism industry in Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 21(3), 251-269.
- Lashley, C. (2013). Student employment in hospitality and tourism: Insights from a recent study. *Research in Hospitality Management*, 3(1), 1-8.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/22243534.2013.11828297>
- Lashley, C., Best, W., & Rowson, B. (2007). In-company education: An example of best practice? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(3), 234-247. <https://doi.org/10.1108/095961107110739930>
- Lee, C. S., & Chao, C. W. (2013). Intention to 'leave' or 'stay' – The role of internship organization in the improvement of hospitality students' industry employment intentions. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(7), 749–765.

- López-Bonilla, J. M., & López-Bonilla, L. M. (2014). Holistic competence approach in tourism higher education: An exploratory study in Spain. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17(4), 312–326.
- Maier, T. (2011). Hospitality leadership implications: Multigenerational perceptions of dissatisfaction and intent to leave. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(4), 354–371. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2011.588503>
- Major, B., & Evans, N. (2008). Reassessing employer expectations of graduates in UK travel services. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(5), 409–422.
- Mason, P. (2014). *Researching tourism, leisure and hospitality for your dissertation*. Goodfellow.
- McGinley, S., O’Neill, J., Damaske, S., & Mattila, A. S. (2014). A grounded theory approach to developing a career change model in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 38, 89-98.
- McIntosh, A., & Harris, C. (2012). Critical hospitality and work: (In)hospitable employment in the hospitality industry. *Hospitality & Society*, 2(2), 129–135. [https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.2.2.129\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.2.2.129_2)
- Michel, J. W., Kavanagh, M. J., & Tracey, J. B. (2013). Got support? The impact of supportive work practices on the perceptions, motivation, and behavior of customer-contact employees. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 54(2), 161–173. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965512454595>
- Mkono, M. (2010). In defence of hospitality careers: Perspectives of Zimbabwean hotel managers. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(6), 858–870. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596111011063124>
- Mohsin, A., Lengler, J., & Kumar, B. (2013). Exploring the antecedents of intentions to leave the job: The case of luxury hotel staff. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 35, 48-58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.05.002>
- Mooney, S. (2016). Wasted youth in the hospitality industry: Older workers’ perceptions and misperceptions about younger workers. *Hospitality & Society*, 6(1), 9–30. [https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.6.1.9\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.6.1.9_1)

- Mooney, S., & Jameson, S. (2018). The career constructions of hospitality students: A rocky road. *Hospitality & Society*, 8(1), 45–67.  
[https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.8.1.45\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.8.1.45_1)
- Mooney, S. K., Harris, C., & Ryan, I. (2016). Long hospitality careers – A contradiction in terms? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(11), 2589-2608. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-04-2015-0206>
- Munar, A. M., & Montaña, J. J. (2009). Generic competences and tourism graduates. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 8(1), 70–84.  
<https://doi.org/10.3794/johlste.81.206>
- Nickson, D., & Warhurst, C. (2007). Employee experience as aesthetic labour in retail and hospitality. *Work, Employment and Society*, 21(1), 103-120.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017007073622>
- Obrien, P. W. (2017). Climbing the hospitality career ladder: Career guidance insights from social networking profiles. *Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36(2), 1-17.
- O’Neill, J. W. (2012). Face time in the hotel industry. An exploration of what it is and why it happens. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 36(4), 478-494.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348011407489>
- Parker, J., & Arrowsmith, J. (2012). Are we being served? Women in New Zealand’s service sector. Equality, diversity and inclusion: *An International Journal*, 31(7), 663-680.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/02610151211263504>
- Patah, M. O. R. A., Abdullah, R., Naba, M. M., Zahari, M. S. M., & Radzi, S. M. (2010). Workplace bullying experiences, emotional dissonance and subsequent intentions to pursue a career in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Global Business and Economics*, 1(1) 15-26.
- Pimentel, D. (2011). To find and to keep. *Profit*, 30(6), 21–23.
- Poulston, J. (2008). Hospitality workplace problems and poor training: A close relationship. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(4), 412-427. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810873525>

- Poulston, J. (2009). Working conditions in hospitality: Employees' views of the dissatisfactory hygiene factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(1), 23–43. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15280080902716993>
- Poulston, J. (2015). Expressive labour and the gift of hospitality. *Hospitality & Society*, 5(2/3), 145–165. [https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.5.2-3.145\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.5.2-3.145_1)
- Reece, B. L., Brandt, R., & Howie, K. F. (2011). *Effective human relations: Interpersonal and organisational applications*. South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Restaurant Association of New Zealand. (2019). *Hospitality report 2019*. Retrieved August 14, 2020, from <https://www.restaurantnz.co.nz/tag/2019-hospitality-report/>
- Richardson, S. (2008). Undergraduate tourism and hospitality students attitudes toward a career in the industry: A preliminary investigation. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 8(1), 23–46. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220802410112>
- Richardson, S. (2010). Generation Y's perceptions and attitudes towards a career in tourism and hospitality. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 9(2), 179–199. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15332840903383855>
- Richardson, S., & Thomas, N. J. (2012). Utilising generation Y: United States hospitality and tourism students' perceptions of careers in the industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 19(1), 102–114. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jht.2012.12>
- Robinson, R. N. S., Ruhanen, L., & Breakey, N. M. (2016). Tourism and hospitality internships: Influences on student career aspirations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(6), 513–527. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2015.1020772>
- Rodrigues, R., & Guest, D. (2014). Beyond the duality between bounded and boundaryless careers: New avenues for careers research. *Career Development International*, 19(6), 618–626. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-09-2014-0123>
- Ruetzler, T., Taylor, J., Reynolds, D., Baker, W., & Killen, C. (2012). What is professional attire today? A conjoint analysis of personal presentation attributes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 937–943. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.11.001>

- Savickas, M. (2013). The theory and practice of career construction. In S. Brown & R. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counselling: Putting theory and research to work* (2nd ed., pp. 147-186). Wiley.
- Schuster, C. P., Anderson, B., & Brodowsky, G. (2014). Secondary data: Collection and analysis - classroom activities for learning. *Journal of the Academy of Business Education, 15*, 97–118.
- Sewell, P., & Pool, L. D. (2010). Moving from conceptual ambiguity to operational clarity: Employability, enterprise and entrepreneurship in higher education. *Education and Training, 52*(1), 89–94. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911011017708>
- Seymour, D. (2000). Emotional labour: A comparison between fast food and traditional service work. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 19*(2), 159–171. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319\(00\)00009-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(00)00009-8)
- Smith, W. W., Clement, J. C., & Pitts, R. E. (2018). Oh the places they'll go. Examining the early career path of hospitality alumni. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 18*(2), 109–122. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2017.1416726>
- Statistics New Zealand. (2019). *Tourism satellite account:2019*. Retrieved August 14, 2020, from <https://www.stats.govt.nz/information-releases/tourism-satellite-account-2019>
- Sullivan, S. E., & Baruch, Y. (2009). Advances in career theory and research: A critical review and agenda for future exploration. *Journal of Management, 35*(6), 1542-1571. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309350082>
- Tajeddini, K. (2009). The impact of learning orientation on NSD and hotel performance: Evidence from the hotel industry in Iran. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 2*(4), 262–275. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17537980911001099>
- Tams, S., & Arthur, M. B. (2010). New directions for boundaryless careers: Agency and interdependence in a changing world. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(5), 629-646. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.712>

- Taniguchi, M., Yamashita, M., & Uenoyama, T. (2006). Boundaryless career and adaptive HR practices in Japan's hotel industry. *Career Development International*, 11(3), 230-242. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430610661759>
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. SAGE.
- Teng, C. (2008). The effects of personality traits and attitudes on student uptake in hospitality employment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(1), 76–86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.07.007>
- Tribe, J., & Lewis, A. (2003). Attitudes of the young to careers in hospitality and tourism: Review and recommendations. In S. Kusluvan (Ed.), *Managing employee attitudes and behaviours in the tourism and hospitality industry* (pp. 67-76). Nova.
- Wang, Y. (2013). Constructing career competency model of hospitality industry employees for career success. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(7), 994–1016. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-07-2012-0106>
- Webster, K. (2006). *Environmental management in the hospitality Industry: A guide for students and managers* (4th ed.). Thompson Learning.
- Whitelaw, P. A. (2008). ICT and hospitality operations. In P. Jones (Ed.), *Handbook of hospitality operations and information management* (pp. 167-184). Elsevier.
- Wijesundara, W. G. S. R. (2015). An evaluation of graduates' perception on employment in tourism and hospitality industry. *Tourism, Leisure and Global Change*, 2(1), 172-182.
- Williamson, D. (2017). Too close to servility? Why is hospitality in New Zealand still a “Cinderella” industry? *Hospitality & Society*, 7(2), 203–209. [https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.7.2.203\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.7.2.203_7)
- Wolfe, K., & Kim, H. (2013). Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and job tenure among hotel managers. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(2), 175–191. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2013.752710>

- Wong, I. A., Wan, Y. K. P., & Gao, J. H. (2017). How to attract and retain Generation Y employees? An exploration of career choice and the meaning of work. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 23, 140–150. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2017.06.003>.
- World Tourism Organisation. (2020). *UNWTO International tourism highlights:2020*. Retrieved August 14, 2020, from <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/9789284422456>
- World Travel and Tourism Council. (2014). *World travel and tourism economic impact*. World Travel and Tourism Council.
- Yang, J. (2010). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 609-619. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.11.002>
- Young, C. A., & Corsun, D. L. (2009). Burned! The impact of work aspects, injury, and job satisfaction on unionized cooks' intentions to leave the cooking occupation. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 34(1), 78–102. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348009349816>
- Zampoukos, K., & Ioannides, D. (2011). The tourism labour conundrum: Agenda for new research in the geography of hospitality workers. *Hospitality & Society*, 1(1), 25-45. [https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.1.1.25\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1386/hosp.1.1.25_1)
- Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gremler, D. D. (2013). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Zopiatis, A., Constanti, P., & Theocharous, A. L. (2014). Job involvement, commitment, satisfaction and turnover: Evidence from hotel employees in Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 41, 129-140. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.09.013>
- Zopiatis, A., & Theocharous, A. (2013). Revisiting hospitality internship practices: A holistic investigation. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 13, 33-46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2013.04.002>