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**THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL
MODERNITY, PARENTAL INFLUENCE,
PERCEIVED HOTEL JOB IMAGE AND CAREER
INTENTIONS: A STUDY OF HOSPITALITY
STUDENTS IN CHINA**

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Ph.D

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2015

**THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF HOTEL AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT**

**The Relationships between Individual Modernity,
Parental Influence, Perceived Hotel Job Image and
Career Intentions: A Study of Hospitality Students in
China**

SUN, Hongli

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

January, 2014

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it produces no material previously published or written, nor material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement is made in the text.

SUN, Hongli

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the general perceptions of hotel job image among hospitality students in mainland China and developed measurement scales to test the empirical relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and career intentions. Churchill's (1979) paradigm for developing norms was adopted to facilitate the development of valid scales, and a mixed methodology was designed to achieve the study's objectives. In the first part of the sequential mixed methods, qualitative data-gathering strategies involving focus group discussions and in-depth interviews were adopted. Content analysis was applied to gain an understanding of how hospitality students perceive hotel job image.

The results of the qualitative data analysis provided inputs into the design of the quantitative survey instrument, which was subsequently tested for validity and reliability via two pilot studies involving hospitality students. The first pilot study was conducted to refine the initial items and identify the underlying dimensions. The second was conducted to collect another sample to test the validity and reliability of the purified instruments. After the validity and reliability of the instrument were confirmed, the main survey was conducted. The 736 valid samples obtained were analysed via exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling. Three dimensions of perceived hotel job image were generated and validated from the analyses: (1) staff integrity, (2) non-routine job nature and (3)

the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers.

Structural equation modelling was carried out to clarify and test the hypothesised causal relationships among the study's four constructs, i.e., perceived hotel job image, individual modernity, parental influence and students' career intentions.

The statistical results indicated that the model fit the data, and the results provided evidence to support or reject some of the hypotheses. The direct positive effect of perceived hotel job image on students' career intentions was found to be significant. Furthermore, perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationship between individual modernity and students' career intentions. However, the direct effect of individual modernity on career intentions was not supported. The direct relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions was also insignificant, and the indirect effect proved to be significant. This indicates that perceived hotel job image mediates the relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions. Finally, hospitality students in mainland China were found to have low intentions to pursue careers in the hotel industry after graduation.

The findings of this study make theoretical and empirical contributions to the current body of knowledge. First, this study developed and validated a measurement scale of perceived hotel job image in mainland China that could serve as a solid foundation for future research. Second, it provided evidence that perceived hotel job image is a

significant predictor of career intentions, offering a new approach to investigating students' career intentions in the hotel industry. Finally, it empirically proved the mediating effect of perceived hotel job image. Perceived hotel job image was found to be a complete mediator, which may explain how individual modernity and parental influence affect students' career intentions.

In addition to the theoretical contributions, the findings have managerial implications for both hotel-related educational institutes and the hotel industry at large. Given that perceived hotel job image was found to be an important factor influencing students' career intentions, strategies to improve perceptions of a hotel job image may go a long way in attracting hospitality graduates to choose careers in the hotel industry.

Keywords: perceived hotel job image, individual modernity, parental influence, career intentions, hospitality students, China

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter introduces the study. Its content is organised into several sections. The first section presents a comprehensive overview of the development of the hotel and tourism industry in mainland China, with a focus on hotel and tourism education and the career development of hospitality students. In the subsequent sections, the problem statement is outlined and the relevant research questions and objectives and a brief statement of the research theory driving the conceptual framework are presented. Finally, the contributions of the study are presented in addition to its scope and limitations.

1.2 Background of the Hotel Industry and Hotel and Tourism

Education in China

China's economy was recently recognised as one of the fastest growing in the world. The hotel industry has become well known as a result, leaving experts with no doubt that the industry can become a vital sector that contributes to accelerated economic growth, social progress, cultural prosperity and overall human development (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). However, the quality of delivered services must be improved for this dream to be realised, and higher education related to hotel and tourism has a vital role to play in providing high-quality human resources.

1.2.1 Background of the Hotel and Tourism Industry in China

1.2.1.1 Development of the Tourism Industry in China

Since the People's Republic of China (PRC) was established in 1949, the country has experienced a series of political administration and economic system reforms. Significant among these economic reforms is the transition from a centrally planned economy to a market-oriented economy. This contributed to the transformation of the tourism industry from a purely political activity into a profit-making business (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005; Zhang, 1995). In the 1950s, the major tourism service industries, including hotels, transportation, travel arrangements and shopping, were perceived to be diplomatic activities and therefore catered to the needs of overseas Chinese people and foreigners who wanted to understand China and its culture. At that time, no services or activities were provided to domestic tourists (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005), and the only travel-related agencies were the state-owned China International Travel Service (CITS) and the Overseas Chinese Travel Service (OCTS), established in 1954 and 1957, respectively.

The turning point for tourism redevelopment occurred in 1978, when Deng Xiaoping introduced an open-door policy in China. Under this policy, the country's tourism industry was recognised as an important tool that could be used to promote the country's political stability and economic development. In 1985, to demonstrate its commitment to tourism redevelopment, the central government included tourism projects in the country's „Seventh Five-Year National Plan“, allocating an annual

budget of RMB5 billion to the top 14 tourist cities for project development (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). Given the political stability, infrastructure development, and social and economic prosperity accompanying the various initiatives in the tourist cities, inbound travel business began to record great improvements. The number of arrivals rose from 0.69 million in 1978 to 1.31 million in 1990, 2.23 million in 2000 and 129.08 million in 2013 (CNTA, 2014).

Other measures taken by the central government to boost tourism included the introduction of the seven-day „Golden Week“ holidays during the Chinese New Year, Labour Day and National Day holidays, which have made it possible for people to enjoy a number of leisure days. The „Golden Week“ policy helped domestic tourism businesses to thrive (Pearce & Chen, 2012; Wu et al., 2012). The central government's lessening of travel restrictions to promote outbound travel represents another initiative. Most of these initiatives have contributed to the increasing number (about 9.73 million in 2013) of Chinese citizens travelling overseas, which grew by around 18% in 2012 (Chinanews, 2014).

1.2.1.2 Development of the Hotel Industry in China

With the increasing number of international tourist arrivals to China, the central government recognised the need to expand the hotel industry to meet the growing demand for accommodation services. Several initiatives were taken, such as the conversion of state-owned guesthouses into independently operated hotels (Zhang,

Pine, & Lam, 2005). Between 1979 and 1982, 14,000 guesthouse beds (beds were used instead of rooms to calculate accommodation capacity statistics at the time) were renovated and converted into hotels (CNTA, 1983). To further boost the supply of hotels, the central government encouraged private-sector participation and foreign investment in the hotel sector by providing tax incentives to investors, mainly in the form of tax exemptions. One result of this incentive policy was the creation of the Beijing Jianguo Hotel in 1982. It was the first joint-venture hotel, and became an important milestone in the history of China's hotel industry (Xi, 2004). The White Swan Hotel Management Company was subsequently established in Guangzhou in 1988 and became the first Chinese hotel management company (Yuan, 1998).

As the central government was working to ensure that the supply of hotels matched the prevailing demand, service quality issues were also being attended to. In terms of service quality, the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) developed the first star-rating system in 1988 to reflect international hotel management standards. The system was adopted as a national standard in 1993 (Pine & Phillips, 2005; Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). Five ranking categories were developed in the system, with five-star hotels being the topmost rank. The number of star-rated hotels has grown tremendously over the past three decades. By the end of 2012, there were more than 11,367 star-rated hotels boasting a total 1,497,200 rooms (CNTA, 2014).

Looking to the future, the hotel industry in China may continue to expand given the

growing demand for accommodation services. Although the hotel market is already competitive in China, market experts have foreseen that the number of new hotels will overtake that in the US hotel market by 2025, providing around 6 million hotel rooms (Easen, 2012). Considering the anticipated competition in the hotel industry, it has become important to pay attention to service quality issues, including professional staff training, development and education.

1.2.2 Overview of Hotel and Tourism Education in China

1.2.2.1 Education System in China

Over the last several decades, the PRC's education system has undergone transformative changes that have resulted in unprecedented reforms. Educational reforms in China can be broken down chronologically into three phases under three successive leaders (Wang, 2003). The first was the Mao Zedong phase (1949-1976), during which the former Soviet Union's education model was aligned with the central government's administrative power. The significant characteristic of the Maoist educational reforms was that everything from recruitment to teaching syllabi and materials was unified. The second was the Deng Xiaoping phase (1977-1997), during which the centrally planned economic system was transformed into a market-oriented economy. As part of the transformation, the administration of basic education was decentralised from the central government to local governments, and higher education administration was partially vested in universities and colleges. The Compulsory Education Law of the PRC was established in 1986, which provided the legal

framework for the implementation of nine-year compulsory education in China. The third phase was the Jiang Zemin phase (1997-present), which has aimed to optimise the structure and improve the quality of the education system and thereby meet the demands of economic development (Wang, 2003).

In terms of progression up the educational ladder, students who have completed high school are able to take the national university entrance examination and enter university based on their examination results and personal preferences. In terms of the curricula, various disciplines and programmes have been designed to cater to the manpower needs of the market. In the early 1980s, hotel and tourism education programmes were developed to contribute to the training of human capital for the hotel industry in China.

1.2.2.2 Development of Hotel and Tourism Education in China

Hotel and tourism education in China has seen rapid growth thanks to the continuous development of the tourism and hotel industry, which demands high-calibre people with professional training and education in the field of hospitality. Hotel and tourism education began in China with the establishment of the Shanghai Institute of Tourism in 1979, which over the years has attracted many students and produced many graduates (Du, 2003). To increase the country's capacity for higher-education programmes in hotel and tourism management, the CNTA invested RMB1.8 million in the Beijing Second Foreign Language Institute (also known as Beijing International

Studies University) in 1980 and established the Tourism Economy Department (Zhou, 1991). As of 1986, only 4,800 students were enrolled in the tourism management programmes of about 27 universities and colleges around China. By 2012, the number of students had increased significantly to about 0.58 million, and the number of tourism schools and colleges had increased to 1,097 (CNTA, 2014).

1.2.3 Student Careers in Hotel and Tourism in China

When China first began offering hospitality and tourism education, the curricula were designed to account for the broad disciplines of management, economics, geography, foreign languages and history. The schools were running programmes at four different higher-education levels, including the diploma, bachelor, master and doctoral levels (Zhang & Fan, 2005). At the diploma level, the main objective of the education system was to provide students with basic knowledge about how the economy worked and the managerial theories required to enable graduates to work in job positions such as tour guide and hotel rank-and-file staff. The undergraduate-level programme aimed to equip students with competencies in tourism research and management. The basic aim at the master's level was to train students to acquire a deeper understanding of the field and develop the skills required to conduct independent research. The main target of the doctoral programme was to advance students' knowledge and understanding of hospitality and tourism theories and concepts so that they could make significant contributions to the academic field. Among the universities and colleges providing hospitality and tourism education, 70% offered diploma programmes, 35% offered

undergraduate programmes and only 10% offered programmes at the postgraduate and doctoral levels (Zhang & Fan, 2005).

In terms of career paths and employment opportunities, hotel and tourism graduates often find jobs with hotels, travel agencies and airlines. Although graduates with diploma qualifications find it relatively easier and more satisfying to work in hotel enterprises, those with higher qualifications typically choose to work outside the hotel industry (Gu et al., 2007). Even when graduates choose to work in the hotel sector, they have a high tendency to exit the industry in search of new careers. Zhou (2001) reported that almost 50% of the hotel industry workforce quit their jobs to find new jobs in other industries.

In addition to the problem of retaining employees in the hotel industry, the industry faces several challenges in attracting young graduates. The first challenge is the legacy of the Cultural Revolution, which has created the negative impression that „service is demeaning to others“ (Huyton & Sutton, 1996). This impression makes many people and especially young graduates opposed to the idea of choosing a career path in the service industry in general, and the hotel industry in particular. Wong, Liu and Bao (2007) found that only 10-20% of university graduates in the hotel and tourism field chose a career in the hotel industry. The second challenge relates to parents and their influence on the career choices of their children. Some studies have shown that Chinese students are more likely to be influenced by their parents“ careers, beliefs in

an ideal job and involvement in their career choices (Wong, Liu, & Bao, 2007; Wong & Liu, 2010). The third challenge relates to the incentives and working conditions of the industry. The hotel profession provides low salaries, low social status, poor job security, long working hours and a lack of training (Kong & Baum, 2006). Lastly, the insufficiency or lack of practical training provided to students during their time at university can be blamed for the manpower needs of the hotel industry. In terms of the current curricula, tourism, hotel and vocational training schools equip students with operational concepts and knowledge without paying much attention to skills development (Lam & Xiao, 2000). Undergraduate hospitality students face a dilemma in deciding whether to work in the hospitality sector or abandon their majors and seek alternative career paths after completing their four years of education.

1.3 Problem Statement

1.3.1 Hotel Job Image Issues among Hospitality Degree Students in China

China's hotel industry is experiencing issues caused by labour shortages and high turnover. Hotel employees are pessimistic about hotel career development (Higgins, 2011a; Higgins, 2011b; Higley, 2011; Kong & Baum, 2006; Zhang & Lam 2004; Zhang & Wu, 2004; Zhang, Cai, & Liu, 2002). In Beijing, the shortage of managerial staff reached 500,000 positions in 2010. In Kunming City (a second-tier city in China), the average turnover per year at four- and five-star hotels was around 20-30%, and that of three-star hotels was more than 50%. The rate was as high as 100% for some small-scale businesses (Ding, 2011). Moreover, hospitality graduates who are also

potential employees are hesitating to join the industry despite studying the subject for years. Wong, Liu and Bao (2007) reported that only 10-20% of the students who majored in tourism and hotel management at renowned universities chose to work in the hotel and tourism industry.

Hotel jobs present a contradiction. Many people relate hotel service to low salaries, low social status and demeaning work. However, many argue that the service work is interconnected with professionalism and glamour. Riley, Ladkin and Szivas (2002) observed that employment in the hospitality industry was contradictorily characterised by both glamour and low pay/status. Perception of the hotel job image critically influences the recruitment of qualified employees (Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Anderson, 2009). Employees or potential employees' self-perceptions of how the public assesses their profession affect their pride and confidence, which in turn influences their intention to find or retain hotel jobs.

The public image of service work in the hospitality industry has been widely discussed for decades, especially in China. The traditional Chinese culture has influenced people's perceptions of service jobs in general, and even perpetuated the concern that it was demeaning to serve others (Huyton & Sutton, 1996). Although many people may be resistant to entering the hotel profession due to these traditional values, potential employees who are influenced less by traditional values and recognise occupational changes and employment trends may have a more positive image of hotel

jobs and thus be more motivated to join the industry. Moreover, Chinese students usually obey their parents' wishes, and it has been shown that hospitality students are significantly influenced by their parents when deciding to work in the hotel and tourism industry (Wong & Liu, 2010). Hence, parental influence may also affect students' perceptions of the hotel job image and thus may affect their career intentions.

Degree students who are also potential employees expect to take career paths that ensure them social respect, fair salaries and a high social status. However, when deciding for or against a hotel occupation, they may face uncertainty or perplexity due to their perceived hotel job image. Thus, perceived hotel job image is a potentially major concern for the hotel industry in China, as it can influence the career intentions of hospitality degree students. This study investigated hospitality students' perception of the hotel job image and explored the process of how their modern traits and parental influence affect their perceptions and career intentions.

1.3.2 Research Gaps

The foregoing problem statement indicates a number of research gaps. First, there is a lack of conceptualisation of perceived hotel job image. Numerous studies have focused on the perceived image of nursing (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Brown, Swift, & Oberman, 1974; Corwin, 1961; Davis & Olesen, 1964; Tzeng, 2006), law enforcement (Griswold, 1994; Gundersen, 1987; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000) and sales (Ball & Nourse, 1988; Webb, 2000). However, although widely discussed, the

perceived image of hotel jobs has not been empirically studied, especially in the Chinese context. Although Chinese society has its traditional values, it is also experiencing social-economic and value transitions, making perceived hotel job image well worth exploring.

Furthermore, few studies have empirically explored the antecedents of perceived hotel job image. A perceived job image is a shared belief formed during the occupation socialisation process (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000), and any societal influence may affect an individual's beliefs in the meaning of occupational membership in the hotel industry as it relates to social status and capability. Previous studies have mentioned the influence of historical roles, social changes, hierarchical occupation structures, demographic variables, social media effects and role model effects on an individual's perceptions of a job image. However, empirical studies have seldom been conducted to explore the determinants of a perceived job image. In particular, a perceived job image may change dynamically due to occupational, cultural and societal changes (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986). China's tourism and hotel industry has experienced a series of reforms and transformed from a political tool into an economic tool and social cultural activity. The perceived image of hotel jobs may be affected by individual attitudes acquired during the social change process and family influence.

Moreover, a perceived job image is an influential factor that affects an individual's intention to pursue a job (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). Therefore, the effects of perceived

hotel job image on the intentions of potential employees are worth exploring. Many of the issues that the hotel industry is experiencing, such as labour shortages, high turnover and hospitality students' reluctance to join the industry, can be explained by examining the relationship between perceived hotel job image and potential employees' intention to work in the industry.

1.4 Theoretical Background

A perceived job image involves „an ideology or shared belief in the meaning of an individual's occupational membership and social status, capability and behavioural patterns" (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986, p. 662). The perceptions of a particular job image influence the behaviour and work attitudes of job incumbents (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). A perceived job image thus affects an individual's intention to enter a profession (Krau & Ziv, 1990). This study examined the relationship between perceived hotel job image and hospitality students' career intentions, and explored the antecedents that influence students' perceptions of the hotel job image.

A perceived job image is formed during a process of occupational socialisation (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Corwin, 1961). Any factor at a societal level has influences on an individual's beliefs about a particular job image (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). Individual modernity measures the amount of modern values and beliefs with which an individual is associated (Inkeles & Smith, 1975). The amount of individual modernity can affect an individual's attitudes towards the

changes and the trends introduced by social modernisation. For instance, whereas individuals with highly modern attitudes adopt active positive perceptions of any social change, traditional individuals adopt passive attitudes. Individual modernity particularly affects graduates' career intentions in China (Du, 2005). Thus, this study examined the influence of individual modernity on students' perceptions of the hotel job image.

In addition to exploring the social determinants of the perceived hotel job image, this study examined the antecedents from a family perspective. Family system theory dictates that certain patterns and principles established in the family affect an individual's perceptions and behaviour (Carr, 2000). Parental influence in the family is highly related to an individual's career choices (Hotchkiss & Brown, 1984). Hotel jobs in China emerged in the 1980s, and people's perceptions of such jobs changed dramatically following the development of the hotel industry and occupations. Chinese parents, who are well known for their critically important roles in their children's career choices, have been found to significantly influence the career intentions of hotel and tourism students (Wong & Liu, 2010). Therefore, this study proposed parental influence as an antecedent to perceived hotel job image in China.

Because a perceived job image influences an individual's intention to join a profession (Krau & Ziv, 1990), this study proposed that the perceived hotel job image was a possible determinant influencing the career intentions of hospitality students, and also

that societal influences such as individual modernity and family influences such as parental influence might have affected students' career intentions by affecting their perceived hotel job image. These views of perceived hotel job image formed the theoretical foundation for this study, and some valuable insights were explored in relation to the hotel industry in mainland China.

1.5 Proposed Theoretical Framework

The primary objectives of the study were thus to define the domains of the hotel job image as perceived by hospitality degree students in China. Based on perceived job image theory (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Caplow, 1954; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000), this study investigated Chinese hospitality degree students' perception of the hotel job image, explored the determinants of individual modernity and parental influence on perceived hotel job image and recognised students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation. The research model (shown in Figure 1.1) consisted of four variables, including exogenous variables (individual modernity and parental influence), a mediator variable and an endogenous variable. The exogenous variables included the antecedents influencing both the mediator and endogenous variables. Individual modernity was proposed as a social antecedent of perceived hotel job image, and parental influence was proposed as a family-related antecedent. Perceived hotel job image was examined as a mediator variable, and the hospitality degree students' career intentions were explored as an endogenous variable.

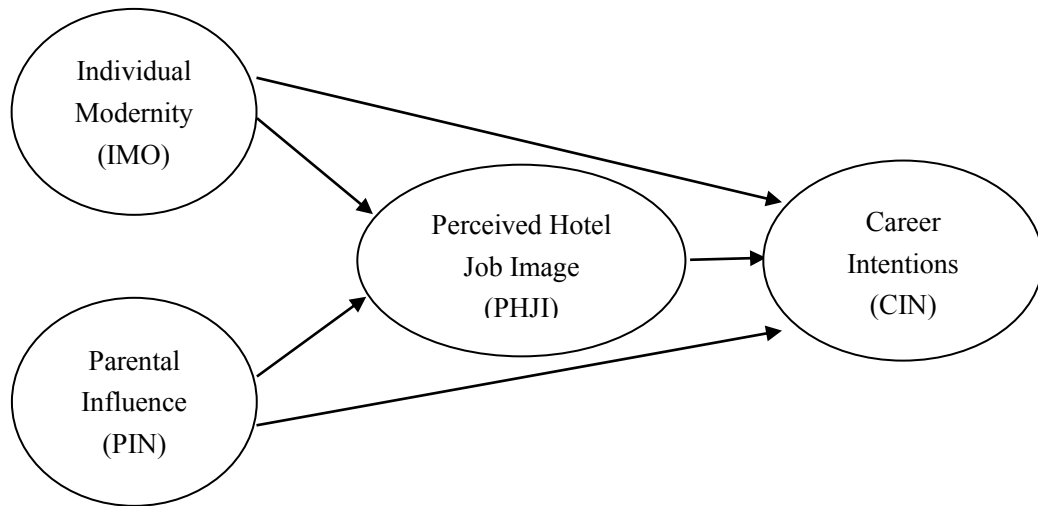


Figure 1.1 Proposed Research Model

1.6 Research Objectives

Based on the gaps identified in previous studies, the purpose of this study was to develop and validate an instrument capable of effectively assessing Chinese hospitality degree students' perceptions of the hotel job image. The students' intentions to join the hotel industry after graduation were also examined. Moreover, the effect of perceived hotel job image on students' career intentions was assessed. The relationships between perceived hotel job image, students' career intentions, individual modernity and parental influence were examined. The main objectives of this study were as follows:

- (1) to develop a measurement scale for perceived hotel job image among hospitality students in China;
- (2) to examine students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation;
- (3) to examine the effect of perceived hotel job image on students' career intentions;

- (4) to examine the relationships between individual modernity, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions (specifically (a) the direct effect of individual modernity on students' career intentions, (b) the direct effect of individual modernity on perceived hotel job image and (c) the indirect effect of individual modernity on students' career intentions, as mediated by perceived hotel job image);
- (5) to examine the relationships between parental influence, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions (specifically (a) the direct effect of parental influence on students' career intentions, (b) the direct effect of parental influence on the perceived hotel job image and (c) the indirect effect of parental influence on students' career intentions, as mediated by perceived hotel job image); and
- (6) to make recommendations to both hospitality industry and educational institutions for improving the perceived hotel job image.

1.7 Significance of the Research

This study examined hospitality degree students' perceptions of the hotel job image in China, and explored the cross-relationships among different variables such as students' career intentions and other significant influential factors from both social and family perspectives. Through this study, a new approach to investigating students' career intentions in China's hotel industry was generated. In addition, this study advanced the theoretical understanding of perceived hotel job image in the Chinese community.

In addition to their contributions to the academic research related to perceived hotel job image, the findings of this study should significantly benefit education providers and the hotel industry. Hotel educational institutes may better understand the influential factors affecting perceived hotel job image and do some bridging work. The study may also provide a platform for promoting effective communication between hotel employers and parents.

In terms of the hotel industry, the findings contribute to both the public and private sectors. For the public sector, they reveal how perceived hotel job image is constructed and influenced by its antecedents, offering directions for attracting more talent to the industry. They benefit the private sector by encouraging the formation of development strategies and focuses.

1.8 Thesis Outline

This thesis comprises six sections, including an introduction, a literature review, a conceptual framework, the research methodology, the research findings, and a discussion and conclusions.

Chapter 1 introduces the research background, identifies the research gaps and presents the conceptual framework of the study. Based on the research objectives, it then outlines the study's theoretical and practical contributions.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature related to the historical development of the hotel and tourism industry in China. It also presents a comprehensive review of Chinese hotel and tourism education that lends solid theoretical support to the study. Moreover, it offers a review of previous studies of perceived job image and its antecedents and consequences. It also introduces the concepts of individual modernity and parental influence. This chapter integrates the study's reasoning with preceding research, and provides interpretations of the study's theoretical frameworks and hypotheses.

Following the literature review, Chapter 3 presents the research framework in detail. It proposes research hypotheses related to the structural relationships between the constructs. Chapter 4 presents the research design and methodology, and develops measurements of perceived hotel job image. It also comprehensively describes the procedures and results of the initial instrument development and purification processes. This chapter addresses pertinent issues related to the study's research design, construct measurements, sampling methods, pilot tests, main survey and data analysis techniques. It also presents the results of the pilot tests. Several significant modifications were made subsequent to the pilot tests in terms of instrument selection, the questionnaire design, the data-collection strategies for the main survey and so forth.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the main survey, and assesses the construct measurement models, overall measurement model and structural relationships in the proposed model. Chapter 6 discusses the preceding data analysis results and their relevant implications, on the basis of which conclusions are drawn. It also presents recommendations from both theoretical and practical perspectives. It discusses the potential contributions of the study along with its inevitable limitations, and offers suggestions for future research.

1.9 Chapter Summary

Chapter 1 briefly introduces the background of the study, including the development of the tourism and hotel industry in China, China's education system and hotel and tourism education in general. It also identifies the research problems and gaps related to the study. It reveals the study's objectives along with the research framework. Most importantly, it outlines the significance of the study. Subsequent chapters present an in-depth discussion of the research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Chapter Introduction

Previous studies have clarified the theoretical frameworks for proposed research themes, related theories and emerging themes. This chapter presents a holistic review of the literature related to the development of the Chinese hotel industry, Chinese hotel and tourism education and the conceptualisation and determinants of the main constructs, i.e., perceived hotel job image, individual modernity, parental influence and the career intentions of hospitality degree students in China.

2.2 Overview of the Hotel and Tourism Industry in China

The PRC has experienced a series of political and economic system reforms since its establishment in 1949. The economy underwent its most important reforms in 1978, when it shifted from a centrally planned state economy to a market-oriented economy (Chow, 2007). The hotel and tourism industry has evolved under these reforms.

2.2.1 Historical Development of the Tourism Industry in China

The tourism industry in China has developed in a particular way under the country's social-political and economic reforms. The role of the tourism industry has shifted from that of a political activity to more of a profit-making business (Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999). The tourism industry has passed through five major stages since 1949.

1949-1977

From 1949 to 1977, China conducted vast experiments with a centrally planned economy, and tourist services including hotels, transportation, travel arrangements and shopping functioned as diplomatic activities (Zhang, Pine, & Lam). Tourism services were provided to improve foreigners' understanding of the country and build up the nation's image. Not all of these services and activities were provided to domestic tourists (Liu & Wall, 2005; Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). Before the Cultural Revolution (1949-1966), tourism mainly served as a diplomatic tool for foreign affairs. It provided travel services to foreigners to show the achievements of the country's socialist construction. In 1954, the China International Travel Service (CITS) was set up to serve foreign visitors (CNTA, 1995). In 1957, the Overseas Chinese Travel Service (OCTS) headquarters were established in Beijing, and other OCTS offices were set up in Tianjin, Shenyang, Dalian, Changchun, Harbin, Hankou, Nanjing, Suzhou, Shanghai, Hangzhou, Jinan and Kunming (CNTA, 1995). The CITS and OCTS arranged travel services for overseas Chinese and foreigners to improve their understanding of China's socialist system and newly established government. At the time, tourism nurtured friendships with other socialist countries such as the Soviet Union and countries in Eastern Europe (Liu & Wang, 2005; Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). The Cultural Revolution began in 1966, and the central government adopted a series of closed and anti-foreign policies, including strict foreign-entry visa controls and the discontinuation of travel service businesses. Only a very limited number of Western people were allowed to visit China to become familiar with the country's

situation (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005).

1978-1990

Under Deng Xiaoping's open-door policy, which took effect in 1978 (Chow, 2007), China began its economic reform. The national economic system transferred from a centrally planned state economy to a market-oriented economy. From 1979 to 1985, tourism served as both a political and economic tool for expanding external political influence and earning foreign currency (Liu & Wall, 2005; Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). To further develop the tourism industry, the Bureau of Travel and Tourism was upgraded to the State General Administration of Travel and Tourism in 1978 (later renamed the China National Tourism Administration, or CNTA). This meant placing tourism directly within the jurisdiction of the State Council rather than within that of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

In particular, the operation and management of tourism enterprises were separated from the government's administrative functions. The CITS separated from the government to become a state-owned enterprise in 1982. Tourist spending on accommodation increased to USD\$1.25 billion in 1985 (Qu & Tsang, 1998). A series of beneficial policies were released to encourage the development of the hotel and tourism industry. For example, the central policy approved foreign investment into joint venture businesses and exempted these businesses from all taxes for their first three years and from 50% of taxes for the next two years (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005).

The Beijing Jianguo Hotel, which opened in 1982, was the first joint-venture hotel in China (Xi, 2004). Meanwhile, the State General Administration of Travel and Tourism began to establish tourism institutes such as the Beijing Number Two Institute of Foreign Language (renamed Beijing International Studies University) to promote tourism education (Zhang, 1987).

To expand the economic reform, in 1985, the development of the tourism industry was included in the country's Seventh Five-Year National Plan, which declared tourism to be an economic activity rather than a diplomatic tool (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). The CNTA introduced an international promotional campaign known as „Tourism Year of the Dragon“ with a budget of USD\$3.2 million. The central government allocated RMB5 billion per year to the top 14 tourist cities from 1986 to 1991 to develop local tourism facilities. Meanwhile, the first Chinese hotel management company, the White Swan Hotel Management Company, was established in Guangzhou in 1988 to improve the hotel management and operations system (Yuan, 1998). The National Tourism Bureau increasingly supported tourism education, and its investments climbed from RMB2.5 million in 1979 to RMB40 million in 1988. By 1991, there were 68 colleges and universities, 20 secondary professional schools, 178 vocational schools, 2 training centres, 1 tourism education press and several tourism research centres offering tourism courses (Han, 1994).

1991-2000

Deng Xiao-ping's announcement of the establishment of a „market economy under socialism“ in 1992 further developed the market economy system (Liu, 1993). In terms of the tourism industry, the central government issued the „Decision on Speeding up Development of the Tertiary Industry“ in 1992 to promote the social-economic and cultural roles of the tourism industry as a key sector of the tertiary industry (Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999). A series of reforms was initiated to further promote the development of the tourism industry. First, outbound travel was encouraged by allowing Chinese nationals to join overseas tours organised by China Travel Services to Hong Kong and neighbouring destinations such as Malaysia and Thailand (Zhang & Qu, 1996). Second, foreign investment was expanded to the aviation business. Hainan Airline received foreign investment, and 15 aircraft service companies were operated jointly with investors from Hong Kong, the US, Singapore and Indonesia by the end of 1994 (Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999). Third, planning resorts that aimed to meet the demands of international tourists helped to diversify tourist attractions (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). Twelve state-level resorts have been constructed since 1992, such as the Golden Stone Beach in Dalian, the Stone Old Man Holiday Resort in Qingao and Ya-long Bay in Hainan (Beijing Review, 1994). Lastly and most importantly, tourism was developed based on market mechanisms. Therefore, tourism products were priced based on market demand rather than government regulation. Tourism operators were thus allowed to price their products according to their own market demands (Hu, 1994; Liu, 1995).

2001-2010

Since the beginning of the new century, the tourism industry has experienced rapid development. During the periods of the Tenth and Eleventh Five-Year Plans, a strategy of „vigorously developing inbound tourism, actively developing domestic tourism and moderately developing outbound tourism“ (GovHK, 2006) was established to follow up on the rapid development of the national economy. The tourism industry’s role became to lead the development of other industries and facilitate the improvement of the national economic structure (Gao, Huang, & Huang, 2009). Development regulations were also developed for specific sectors. For instance, efforts were made to control the growth rate of the travel agent sector. Moreover, large travel group companies were encouraged to optimise the structure of the travel agent business and implement a modern enterprise system. Lastly, the quality of service and human resources was strongly emphasised (People’s Daily Online, 2001).

2011 and Onwards

Released by the National People’s Congress in 2011, the Twelfth Five-Year Plan indicated that the tourism industry would be central to China’s attempts to transform its economic development into a sustainable and steadily growing model (Dai, 2010; Ying, 2010). Tourism development was thus strategically considered to be a force driving the level of national urbanisation, with an aim of reaching 66% urbanisation by 2020 (Ying, 2010). The service industry contributed 43% to the national gross domestic product in 2010, and this contribution is planned to increase by 4%

according to the Twelfth Five-Year Plan (Hong, 2011). This should encourage the development of the service industry and emphasise its pillar role in the national economy. It is thus impossible to underplay the strategic role of the tourism industry in national planning. Table 2.1 summarises the evolution of the tourism industry in China across its three main stages.

Table 2.1 Development of the Tourism Industry in China

Years	National Economy Policy	National Policy and Management Approach	Tourism Function	Key Issues
1949-1966	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Establishment of the PRC - Centrally planned state economy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expanding political reach - Centrally controlled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A diplomatic tool - Providing travel services for overseas Chinese - Nurturing friendships with other socialist countries - Providing travel services for foreigners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Establishment of the first state-owned travel service institution - Establishment of the Overseas Chinese Travel Service (OCTS) - Establishment of the China International Travel Service (CITS)
1967-1977	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cultural Revolution - Centrally planned state economy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Antiforeigner policy - Centrally controlled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A diplomatic tool - Providing travel services for limited foreigners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Most local travel service offices discontinued business - Very limited visa approval by central government
1978-1985	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Open-door policy - Economic system reform - Transfer to market-oriented economic system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic growth made a focus - Centralised 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Both a political and economic tool - Providing travel services for all travellers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Developing inbound tourism - Upgrading national tourism administration - Enterprising travel operator business - Joint venture hotels - Established tourism institutes
1986-1990	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Open-door policy - Economic system reform - Transfer to market-oriented economic system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic growth made a focus - Centralised 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic activity - Providing travel services for all travellers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Including tourism in the national economic development plan - Investment in tourism facilities - Highlighting the importance of the tourism industry - Importing hotel management companies - International promotional campaign - Developing tourism education

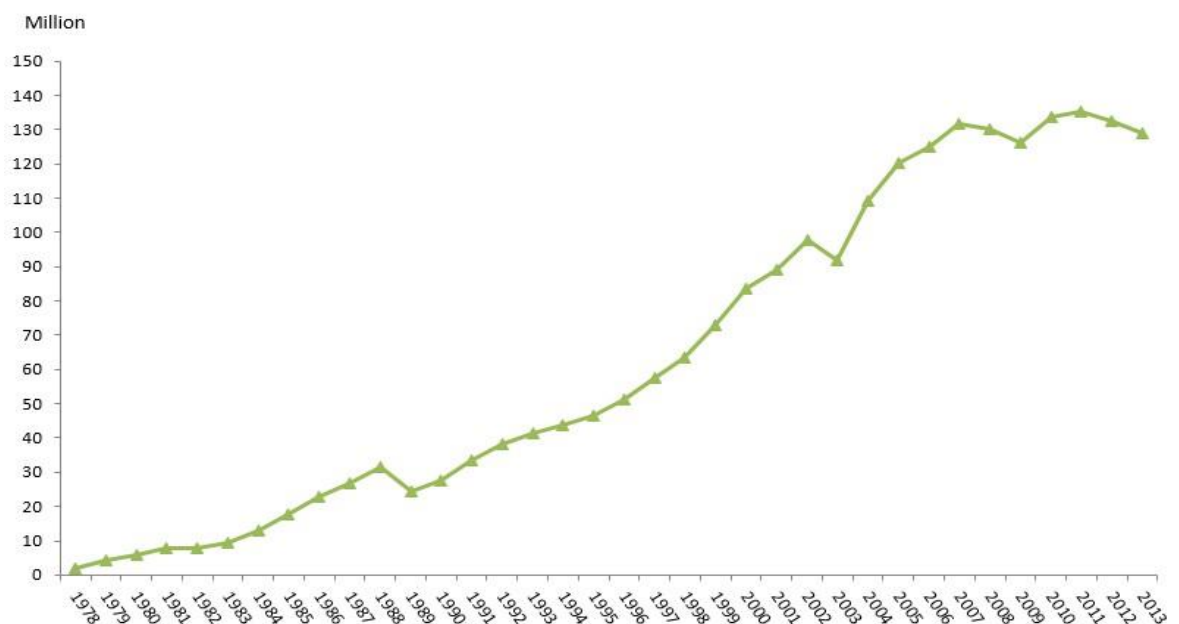
Years	National Economy Policy	National Policy and Management Approach	Tourism Function	Key Issues
1991-2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Quickening and intensification of economic reforms - Market economy under socialism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic growth made a focus 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic activity - Social-cultural activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Encouraging domestic and outbound travel - Expanding foreign investment in aviation business - Diversifying tourist attractions - Market-based pricing
2001-2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Market economy under socialism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maintaining rapid growth of national economy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic activity - Social-cultural activity - Leading the development of other industries - Facilitating the improvement of the national economic structure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tenth and Eleventh Five-Year Plans - Reforming the travel industry - Structural adjustment - Quality enhancement
2011 and Onwards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Market economy under socialism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic restructuring - Sustainable and stable growth model - Consumption-driven economic growth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pillar industry - Driving force of urbanisation - Quickening the development of the service sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Twelfth Five-Year Plan - Increasing the service industry's gross domestic product contribution from 4% to 47%

Sources: Dai (2010); Gao, Huang, & Huang (2009); Hong (2011); Liu & Wall (2005); Ying (2010); Zhang (1987); Zhang, Chong, & Ap (1999); Zhang, Pine, & Lam (2005).

2.2.1.1 International Tourism in China

2.2.1.1.1 Inbound Tourism

The inbound travel business has been growing impressively thanks to China's social and economic development, political stability and infrastructure improvements. As shown in Figure 2.1, the number of inbound tourists grew from 1.81 million in 1978 to 31.69 million in 1988, representing an enormous increase (CNTA, 2011). Arrivals dropped by 23% in 1989 due to the events at Tiananmen Square (Gartner & Shen, 1992). However, continuous growth was seen from 1990 (27.46 million tourists) to 2002 (97.91 million tourists). In 2003, international tourist arrivals decreased slightly by 6.38% due to the spread of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (Dombey, 2004). China received 129.08 million international tourists in 2013, including 26.29 million foreigners, 76.88 million tourists from Hong Kong, 20.74 million tourists from Macau and 5.16 million tourists from Taiwan (CNTA, 2014).



Sources: CNTA (2014); China Statistical Yearbook (2006-2010).

Figure 2.1 International Inbound Tourist Arrivals (1978-2013)

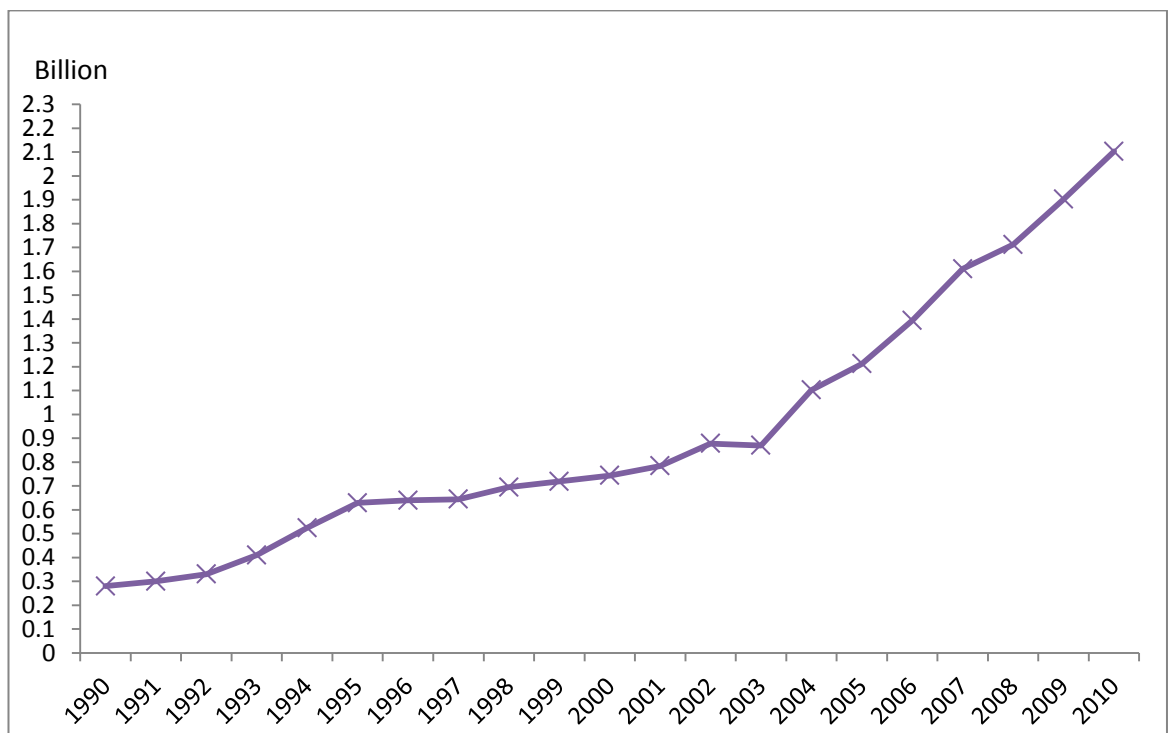
2.2.1.1.2 Outbound Tourism

Explosive growth in international tourism in China has been seen in both inbound and outbound travel. Outbound tourism has increased in popularity since the central government's introduction of the Approved Destination System, which is a bundle of agreements facilitating free cross-border travel from China to Hong Kong, Macau, Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia. The system was instituted for the Philippines in 1995 and for Australia and New Zealand a few years later. Between 1995 and 1999, 40.6 million Chinese citizens (including citizens from Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan) travelled overseas. The total number of outbound travellers increased to 88.3 million (an increase of 117%) during 2000-2004 and to 199.8 million (a 226% increase) during 2005-2009 (Arlt, 2010). Chinese outbound tourism attracted international attention when the number of associated travellers reached 9.73 million in 2013 (Chinanews, 2014).

2.2.1.1.2 Domestic Tourism in China

In terms of the domestic tourism business, travelling for leisure was believed to be a wasteful or bourgeois lifestyle before 1978 (Zhang, 1989). As the tourism industry transitioned from a diplomatic tool to an economic and social cultural activity, the importance of domestic tourism gradually became recognised and emphasised. Domestic tourism did not thrive until the 1990s, when tourism was seen as an important element in the ideological switch from rural socialism to urban consumerism in China (Arlt, 2010). Furthermore, the central government perceived domestic tourism to be an important strategy for stimulating domestic demand for economic development (Cai, Hu, & Feng, 2002). According to Zhang, Pine and Lam (2005),

domestic tourism was initiated by central policy in 1985 and experienced a slow but steady development until the events at Tiananmen Square in 1989, when domestic tourism suffered a decrease of approximately 20%. Attributed to the growth of the income per capita of Chinese citizens and the subsequent increase in leisure time, domestic tourism recovered and grew quickly following the 1990s (Wang & Qu, 2004). Mainland Chinese have been able to enjoy an increasing number of leisure days, with the government introducing seven-day „Golden Week“ holidays during the Chinese New Year in addition to Labour Day and other national holidays (Pearce & Chen, 2012; Wu et al., 2012). The emergence of the so-called „leisure economy“, improvements in transport infrastructure and rapid economic growth have fostered the development of a burgeoning domestic tourism industry that now accounts for over 90% of China’s total tourism market in terms of visitor arrivals (CNTA, 2009). Figure 2.2 shows the growing trend of the country’s domestic tourism performance from 1990 to 2011. The past two decades have witnessed enormous growth in tourist arrivals, from 0.28 billion in 1990 to 2.10 billion in 2010, a notable increase of 651%.



Sources: CNTA (2010); China Statistics Yearbook (2010); Zhang, Pine, & Lam (2005).

Figure 2.2 Statistics of Domestic Tourists (1990-2010)

2.2.2 Historical Development of the Hotel Industry in China

The transition of the economic system to a „market economy under socialism“ has stimulated the development of the hotel industry, which is a key component of tourism business (Liu, 1993). The hotel industry in China started growing in the early 1980s (Yu, 1992). The subsequent rapid increase in international tourist arrivals caused a shortage in hotel accommodation capacity (Zhang, 1989). To increase this capacity, the government encouraged the transformation of state-owned guesthouses used to serve political or diplomatic guests into hotels used to receive international visitors. From 1979 to 1982, 14,000 guesthouse beds (beds were and are still used as measurement units to calculate accommodation capacity statistics) were renovated to the hotel level (CNTA, 1983). In addition, foreign investment and tax exemption policies were issued to stimulate the growth of international hotels. Under these conditions, the first joint-venture hotel, the Beijing Jianguo Hotel, was opened in 1982. This was a milestone in the history of the hotel industry in China (Xi, 2004). The first Chinese hotel management company, the White Swan Hotel Management Company, was set up in Guangzhou in 1988 (Yuan, 1998). As a result, hotel development showed enormous growth in China from 1978 to 2012, reaching a total of 11,367 hotels and 1,497,200 rooms (CNTA, 2014) (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 China Hotel Statistics (1978-2009)

Year	Total Number of Hotels	Total Number of Hotel Rooms	Total Number of Hotel Beds
1978	137	15,539	30,740
1979	150	17,149	34,021
1980	203	31,800	76,192
1981	296	43,300	101,084

Year	Total Number of Hotels	Total Number of Hotel Rooms	Total Number of Hotel Beds
1982	362	51,600	122,696
1983	371	59,600	141,627
1984	505	77,000	171,888
1985	710	107,740	242,913
1986	974	147,500	332,321
1987	1,283	184,710	400,727
1988	1,496	220,165	478,321
1989	1,788	267,505	580,900
1990	1,987	293,827	634,300
1991	2,130	321,116	679,458
1992	2,354	351,044	737,674
1993	2,552	386,401	811,521
1994	1,995	406,280	834,818
1995	3,720	486,114	987,275
1996	4,418	594,196	1,199,714
1997	5,201	701,736	1,411,708
1998	5,782	764,797	1,524,224
1999	7,035	889,430	1,769,825
2000	10,481	948,182	1,855,965
2001	7,358	816,260	1,533,053
2002	8,880	897,206	1,729,460
2003	9,751	992,804	1,887,740
2004	10,888	1,237,851	2,366,638
2005	11,828	1,332,083	2,571,664
2006	12,751	1,459,836	2,785,481
2007	13,585	1,573,800	2,969,400
2008	14,099	1,591,400	2,934,800
2009	14,237	1,673,500	3,064,700
2010	13,991	1,709,966	2,981,277
2011	11,676	1,474,900	2,586,300
2012	11,367	1,497,200	2,677,400

Note: only star-rated hotels are included in the statistics after 2001.

Sources: CNTA (2000-2014); Zhang, Pine, & Lam (2005).

Service quality management was emphasised in addition to the increasing attention paid to the number of hotels and rooms. The CNTA introduced the star-rating system in 1988. This system was adopted from international hotel management standards, revised based on industrial practice and fully implemented as a national standard in 1993 (Liu & Liu, 1993; Pine & Phillips, 2005; Yu, 1992; Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). The National Hotel Evaluation Committee established a rating system to evaluate a hotel's overall quality according to six categories: the availability of required facilities

and service range, quality of facilities and equipment, maintenance, cleanliness, service quality and guest satisfaction (Liu & Liu, 1993). The assessment of a hotel's physical features was based on the availability of its facilities and range of services, including its establishment, lobby area, public area facilities, guest rooms, restaurants and range of services and bars. This category was evaluated according to the relevant quantity and type of facilities. For example, a two-star hotel had to be equipped with a minimum of seven items. As shown in Table 2.3, the point allocation scheme for the facility and equipment rating was also listed.

Table 2.3 Point Allocation for Facility and Equipment in the Hotel Star-rating System (Liu & Liu, 1993)

Major Areas	Percentage (%)	Sub-area	Points
Exterior	7	Location	8
		Surroundings	13
		Establishment	6
Facility	48	Lobby	33
		Guest room	103
		Bathroom	55
Food and beverage	18	Restaurant	41
		Bar	18
		Kitchen	13
		Sport	35
Public facility	27	Recreation	31
		Public area	24
		Other	23
Total	100		400

The evaluation of a hotel's quality of service and facilities was measured according to five categories: facility quality, maintenance, cleanliness, services and guest satisfaction (as shown in Table 2.4). A hotel's quality level was determined according to 4,348 possible points. A minimum number score had to be met for each criterion. If this number was not met, the hotel was not given a star rating. For example, in terms of cleanliness, items such as doors, windows, ceilings and walls amounted to 1,150 points. A one-star hotel had to obtain at least 1,035 points and a five-star hotel at least

1,282 points. Although the star-rating criteria were believed to be very comprehensive, the evaluation process was very time consuming (Liu & Liu, 1993). Furthermore, the notable variances in standards between regional evaluation committees were found to be significant limitations of the scheme (Cullen, 1988).

Table 2.4 Minimum Points for Quality Categories in the China Hotel Star-rating System

Star Category	Quality of Facility	%	Maintenance	%	Cleanliness	%	Services	%	Guest Satisfaction	%
1 Star	80	20	1,285	90	1,035	90	1,215	90	14	70
2 Star	120	30	1,285	90	1,035	90	1,215	90	14	70
3 Star	220	55	1,314	92	1,058	92	1,242	92	15	75
4 Star	300	55	1,357	95	1,092	95	1,282	95	17	85
5 Star	330	75	1,357	95	1,092	85	1,282	95	18	90
Max	400	100	1,428	100	1,150	100	1,350	100	20	100

Sources: Liu & Liu (1993); Yu (1992).

By 2001, all of the official statistics related to hotels were categorised based on star-rating classifications and made public. The number of star-rated hotels has grown enormously over the past three decades. By the end of 2012, there were 11,367 star-rated hotels in China, comprising 1.49 million rooms. These included 640 five-star hotels, comprising 5.63% of the total (Figure 2.3). They also included 2,186 four-star hotels, 5,379 three-star hotels, 3,020 two-star hotels and 142 one-star hotels (CNTA, 2014). However, because the economic conditions varied greatly in different regions of the country, the geographic distribution of the hotels was uneven. As shown in Figure 2.4, Guangdong Province ranked first with 954 star-rated hotels, and Jiangsu (916 hotels) and Zhejiang (869 hotels) ranked second and third, respectively.

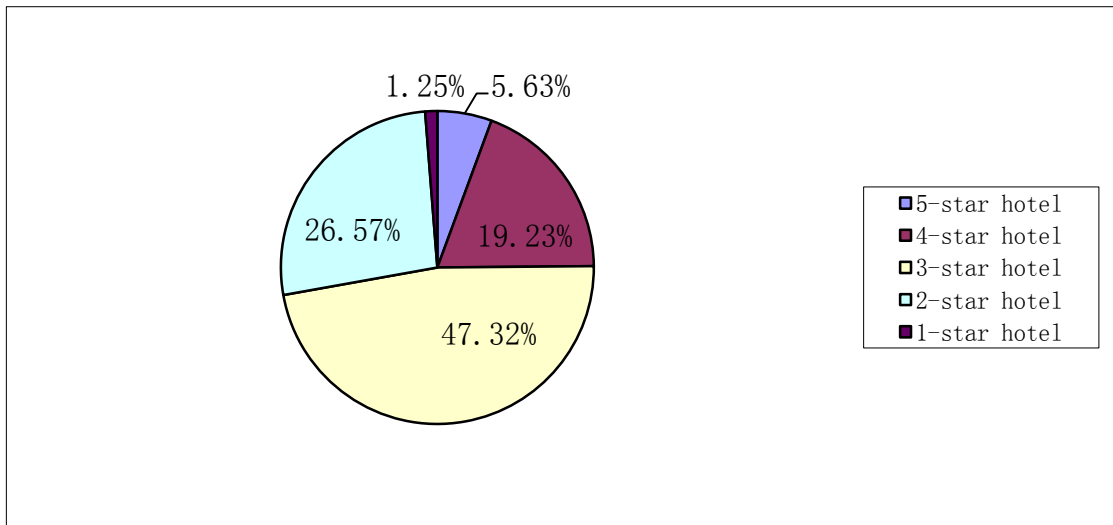


Figure 2.3 Statistics of Star-rated Hotels in 2012 (CNTA, 2014)

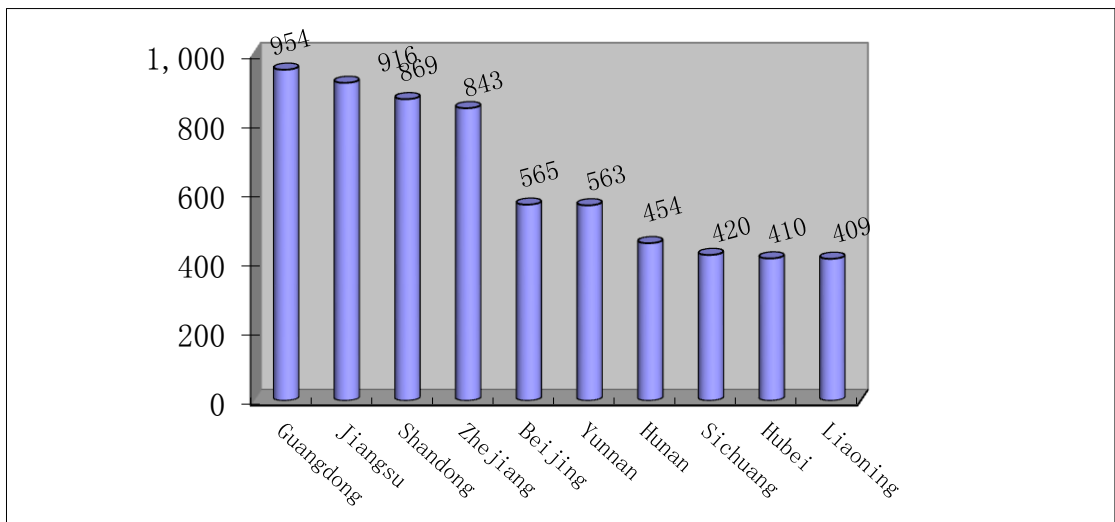


Figure 2.4 Top 10 Provinces in Terms of Number of Star-rated Hotels in 2011 (CNTA, 2014)

The long-term outlook of the hotel industry in China remains positive. Although the rapid expansions of the tourism and hospitality economy and global economic variation have made the market very competitive, the demand drivers remain sound (Easen, 2012). The strengthening and maximisation of the hotel industry's economic contribution depend on the service quality and staff performance of the hotels.

Therefore, higher education related to hotel and tourism has a vital role to play in providing high quality human resources and contributing to the performance of tourism and the national economy.

2.2.3 Review of Hotel Human Resources Management in China

Human resource management is a key element for hotel businesses and plays a strategic role in the success of a hotel's operation. This is especially true in China. According to Higgins (2011b), three generations of local hoteliers have worked in the hotel sector since the establishment of the country's hotel industry. The „assigned and loyal“ generation consists of managers (aged 50 and older) who started their careers with state-owned enterprises. These managers, who were educated in disciplines such as accounting, administration and tourism, are „assigned“ to manage the assets. Although they are usually loyal to their careers, they have no professional training or experience related to international hotel management. They often work as managers in locally branded hotels, or as owner-representatives of internationally branded properties. Hoteliers aged 40-50 are considered the second generation. They were attracted to join international groups in the late 1980s and early 1990s as rank-and-file staff. Despite receiving little formal hotel management education, they often rose to become higher management level staff with precious experience. However, they are usually limited by their lack of formal education and exposure to the managing experiences of other departments. The third group is the active young generation of hoteliers (aged 20-30). These are hotel and tourism stream graduates who have actively chose to work in the hotel industry. Most of the hoteliers currently function as department heads, and are trained to become general managers by an international hotel group.

Experts and researchers have suggested that China's hotel human resource management is currently facing a series of challenges such as shortages of qualified operational and managerial staff; high staff turnover rates; an unwillingness of potential employees to join the industry; pessimistic attitudes of current staff towards hotel careers and industry development; and a lack of effective training, especially in relation to the service staff value system (Higgins, 2011a; Higgins, 2011b; Higley, 2011; Kong & Baum, 2006; Zhang et al., 2002; Zhang & Wu, 2004; Zhang & Lam, 2004).

According to Zhang et al. (2002), hotel executives believe it is becoming increasingly harder to recruit management talent and qualified employees. New graduates in the hotel management field find it difficult to take on jobs at hotels and usually choose to work outside the hotel and tourism sectors. Furthermore, current hotel employees are uncertain of their career paths, and rank-and-file staff members at hotels are generally pessimistic about their career advancement. A similar gap between demand and supply occurs due to ineffective hotel employment policies, graduates' unrealistic career expectations and insufficient on-the-job training.

Along a similar line, Zhang and Lam (2004) conducted six focus group interviews with owners, senior executives, general managers, hotel employees and educators from institutes in China's Heilongjiang Province. They found that qualified staff and trainers were in high demand by the industry. High turnover rates were caused by the intention of most young people to relocate to primary cities such as Shenzhen, Beijing and Shanghai. One's *Hukou* status was found to be a primary concern when selecting a job.

Moreover, young graduates were unwilling to work at hotels perceived to be influenced by traditional culture. For example, because members of the young generation grew up in the „iron rice-bowl“ era and have found job security to be a significant concern, they may intend to work for a state-owned company rather than a joint-venture company. The traditional belief that serving others is degrading is another issue (Huyton & Sutton, 1996; Zhang & Lam, 2004).

The Chinese term „iron rice-bowl“ refers to an occupation with job security and stable income and benefits (Ding, Goodall, & Warner, 2000; Takahara, 1992). Under a similar job system, employees have been found to have low motivation and to be less efficient (Leung, 1988). Although the „iron rice-bowl“ system has gradually been eliminated since the 1980s, graduates have been found to continually prefer state-owned enterprises due to the ingrained notion that a job at such an enterprise is more secure than a job at a private enterprise or joint-venture company (Chinagaze, 2013). Du (2005) also found that graduates with more modern attitudes more often intended to work at state-owned enterprises rather than private organisations.

Hukou is a unique policy of the personnel management system in China. There are two *Hukou* statuses, including urban and agricultural, and one’s *Hukou* status is inherited from previous generations. A citizen with urban *Hukou* status is entitled to social welfare such as public education, medical care, pension rights, unemployment benefits and labour market privileges. However, the social welfare of a citizen with an agricultural *Hukou* status is a plot of land loaned by the government. Agricultural *Hukou* holders are not able to enjoy any social welfare despite working jobs in an urban city (Wang & Moffatt, 2008). Furthermore, the *Hukou* system is operated by an

individual city and is not transferable between cities without special conditions (Shen & Huang, 2012; Wang & Moffatt, 2008). For example, a Guangzhou *Hukou* holder is not included in the Beijing *Hukou* system, even if he or she has worked or lived in Beijing for many years. As a result, he or she cannot enjoy the social benefits of the Beijing system.

Obtaining higher education in China is a way of changing one's *Hukou* status or transferring *Hukou* between cities. Once a student has entered a state university, his or her *Hukou* status changes from agricultural to urban, or transfers from the previous city to the city in which the university is located. During the student's study period, the temporarily acquired *Hukou* status is valid and equivalent to local citizenship (Zhou, 2003, cited in Wang & Moffatt, 2008, p. 7). As shown in Figure 2.5, after graduation, three situations involving *Hukou* may arise according to graduates' employment status and employer locations. First, if a graduate finds an employer that has an urban *Hukou* quota, his or her temporary campus *Hukou* can be transferred to the city in which the company is located. The graduate and his or her offspring are then entitled to all of that city's benefits going forward. Second, if a graduate finds a formal job without a *Hukou* quota assigned by the city government, his or her campus *Hukou* is moved to the labour market office located in the company's city (referred to as „mobile *Hukou*“). However, the graduate is not entitled to any urban welfare. Third, if a graduate does not find a formal job, his or her campus *Hukou* must be returned to the original status and place of residence (Chan & Zhang, 1999).

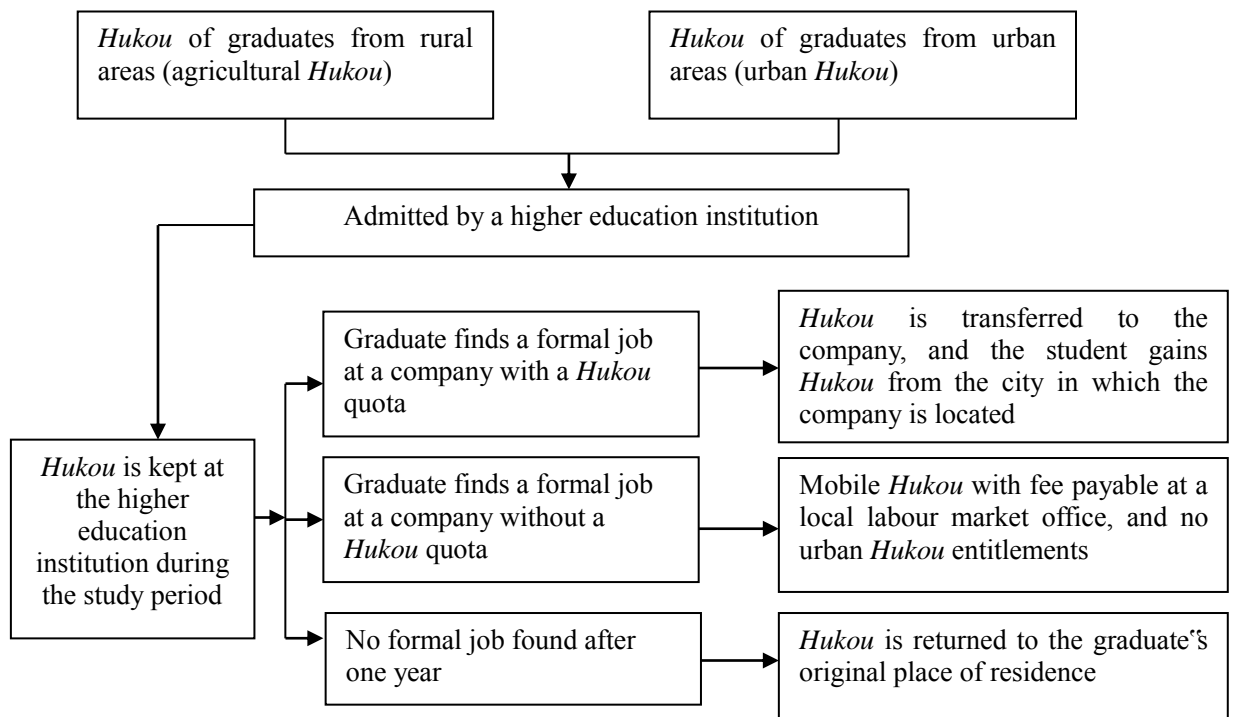


Figure 2.5 Graduates' Hukou Transition (Wang & Moffatt, 2008)

The *Hukou* policy is currently valid in every city in China. This is a major concern when graduates select jobs. *Hukou* is unique in China and significantly affects graduates' career intentions (Wang & Moffatt, 2008). Graduates with urban *Hukou* have access to a broad selection of jobs because they are not concerned with whether companies provide a *Hukou* quota. This makes it much easier for such graduates to find jobs and negotiate benefits. Those with non-local or agricultural *Hukou* are more concerned about the quota rather than their personal career interests or plans when choosing jobs (Wang, 1998). Traditional enterprise policies and values influence a graduate's career intentions and development. Zhang and Lam (2004) also found *Hukou* status to be a factor influencing hospitality students' career intentions.

Industry practitioners have revealed that human resource issues are a serious challenge for the hotel sector in China. For example, the InterContinental Hotels Group (IHG)

believes that the hospitality business is still in the early phases in China. Nevertheless, the IHG, which began its activities in China in 1984 and is already the largest employer in China's hotel sector with about 45,000 employees, lacks well-trained staff (Higgins, 2011a). The Accor Group has also agreed that it is hard to identify and keep high quality and loyal leaders. It is especially difficult in the current situation, as outside companies are trying to recruit hotel staff and fierce competition from other hotels and wage inflation are on the rise (Higley, 2011; Jou, 2011). Carlson Asia Pacific has claimed that the new generation of staff will not stay in the industry for a long time. The shortage of qualified hotel managers in China is expected to be a problem for the next 20 years (Higgins, 2011b).

2.3 Education System and Hotel and Tourism Education in China

Education has long been highly valued in China, and the traditional value of education continues to play an important role in Chinese society (Zhang, 1995).

2.3.1 Education System in China

In China, basic education comprises preschool, primary school and secondary school. Children aged 3-5 undergo in preschool education at child-care centres and kindergartens. Children aged 5-6 attend classes attached to primary schools, and those aged 6 enter primary school. Each primary school graduate who meets the local requirements for graduation enters a nearby junior secondary school without any entrance examinations. Junior secondary school graduates who are seeking to continue their education in any upper secondary school category must pass locally organised entrance examinations prior to admission. Lower secondary education lasts about three years, and upper secondary education lasts an additional three years (Wang, 2003).

Students who fail the upper secondary entrance exam may pursue employment or enter a secondary vocational training school. After completing their schooling at the secondary level, students are granted access to higher education by taking the university entrance exam known as *Gaokao*. This is reviewed in the following section.

Higher education includes three levels of study: the undergraduate, master's and doctoral levels. Students go through undergraduate-level education following *Gaokao*. The undergraduate level provides two categories of courses, and students enter different categories according to their *Gaokao* results and preferred options: (1) short-cycle courses or schools (two to three years) that award undergraduate diplomas related to a specialty, such as the Guilin Institute of Tourism, which those with lower *Gaokao* scores usually enter, and (2) undergraduate courses (four years) that lead to bachelor's degrees at prestigious universities such as Zhejiang University and Sun Yat-sen University, which those who perform well in their *Gaokao* usually enter. In particular, undergraduate diploma students can gain employment directly after two to three years of study, or can take an entrance exam in their final year to receive a Bachelor's degree following another two years of study. The successful candidate can obtain a Bachelor's degree after completing the courses. After receiving an undergraduate education, graduates have the option of finding jobs in the labour market or sitting a postgraduate-level exam during their final year to obtain a master's degree. Master's degree programmes last from two to three years. Furthermore, master's degree graduates can take doctoral programme exams to pursue a PhD, which would extend their education for another three years (see Figure 2.6, „Education System for Full-time Students in China“).

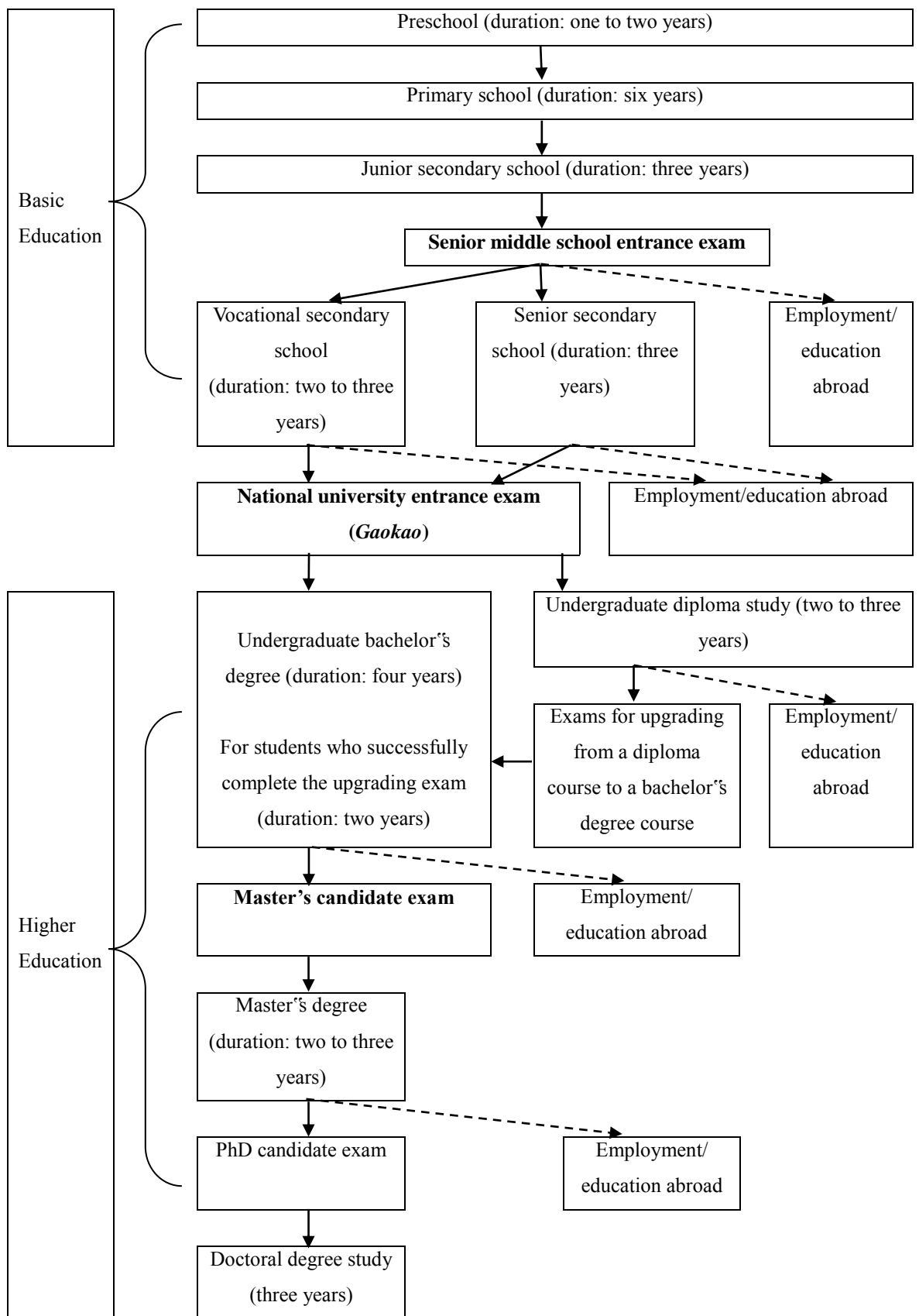


Figure 2.6 Education Systems for Full-time Students in China

Notes: → denotes a promotion in the education system;

- -> denotes students who stop their education and find employment.

2.3.2 Student Recruitment System for Higher Education

The Ministry of Education established a strict unified national university entrance exam (*Gaokao*) to ensure fair admission criteria and the high quality of successful applicants. Students may take the exam if they have completed six years of primary school and six years of secondary school. The proportion of students admitted to China's higher education institutions is low compared with the number of applicants, and the number of candidates far exceeds the available quotas (Davery, Lian, & Higgins, 2007). Therefore, competition is fierce, especially for prestigious universities. The promotion rate from secondary education to undergraduate higher education was 77.6% in 2009, an enormous increase from 27.3% in 1990 (MOE, 2010).

Students can choose an undergraduate major and the universities at which they want to study by filling out an application form. The form includes four sections indicating the admission sequences used by different departments and universities. Section 1 is reserved for special admissions, such as army and police colleges. Section 2 is reserved for key or prestigious universities that offer undergraduate bachelor's degrees. Section 3 is reserved for other universities that are not as prestigious as the universities in section two. Section 4 is reserved for undergraduate diploma education applications. Students are allowed to indicate two options in Section 1 and three options in Sections 2-4. For each option, students can choose three to five departments for their undergraduate studies. However, a particular university reserves the right to give preference to students who have chosen it as their first option on the application form. Meanwhile, students should indicate whether they accept the offers of admission by

universities or departments they have not selected, in case their exam results are lower than the scores or entry lines requested by their preferred university or department (Davery, Lian, & Higgins, 2007). Students may enter a university or department they did not choose; otherwise, they must enter a lower-level university with a high score. Some students who want to enter a particular university by indicating acceptance must sacrifice their interest in a particular subject. For instance, a student who indicates a preference for the Finance Department over the Tourism Department at Sun Yat-sen University on the application form may enter the Tourism Department. This may occur because the student indicated acceptance on the application form and received an exam score lower than that specified by the Finance Department entrance line but within the entrance line of the Tourism Department. However, if the student did not indicate acceptance, he or she may not enter Sun Yat-sen University at all.

There are some concerns about the *Gaokao* system in China (Davery, Lian, & Higgins, 2007). First, there is no fair opportunity to enter a key university because the university entrance quota is distributed based on the *Hukou* system. For example, students who hold Beijing *Hukou* can enter key universities in Beijing with a lower score than other students holding the *Hukou* of another city. Second, fierce competition has put immense psychological pressure on students to excel in the entrance exam (Davery, Lian, & Higgins, 2007). As discussed in the previous section, opting for higher education and finding a job in an urban area is a way of transferring students' *Hukou* status and enjoying the social welfare and other benefits of that area. University education also markedly changes an individual and his or her offspring's chances of survival in the highly competitive Chinese environment.

The admissions of master's degree students are processed much like those of undergraduates. Entrance exams are held at the same time throughout the entire country once a year. The national unified entrance exams for master's degree programmes are just the initial tests for selecting candidates for the second-round exams. The purpose of the second-round exams is to determine the examinees' specialised professional knowledge and practical ability (MOE, 2011). The admission of doctoral degree students is a little different from that of master's degree students. The universities and research institutions personally conduct the entrance exams and admissions for doctoral degree students. Only people who hold a master's degree, have two reference letters written by associate or full-time professors and have more than five years of work experience can apply for a doctoral programme (MOE, 2011).

Various disciplines and programmes have been established to provide talents to the market and to keep pace with and better serve the development of the economy. Hotel and tourism is one such discipline. It provides tens of thousands of individuals with skills and knowledge to enter the hotel labour market.

2.3.3 Development of Hotel and Tourism Education in China

The history of tourism education in the PRC is relatively short. The discipline was established to meet the increasing demand for competent employees with high industry standards. The past three decades have seen great developments in Chinese tourism education. They began with the establishment of the Shanghai Institute of Tourism in 1979 (Du, 2003). In 1986, only 4,800 students were studying on tourism programmes, which were provided by 27 universities and colleges around China. In 2009, 1,733 institutes were providing tourism education programmes, including 852 higher

educational institutes and 881 secondary professional schools, and 498,379 and 454,059 students were enrolled at the higher and secondary professional education levels, respectively (CNTA, 2011). However, the CNTA does not officially include statistics related to private school programmes, and statistics related to undergraduate bachelor's degree programmes in tourism management are unavailable. The number of higher educational institutes shown in Table 2.5 includes institutes that provide both undergraduate diploma and bachelor's degree programmes.

Table 2.5 Statistics of Tourism Schools and Colleges (2009)

Regions	Number of Tourism Schools and Colleges			Number of Students at Tourism Schools and Colleges		
	Total	* Institutes of Higher Education	Secondary Professional Schools	Total	*Institutes of Higher Education	Secondary Professional Schools
Total	1,733	852	881	952,438	498,379	454,059
Sichuan 四川	290	61	229	153,059	28,013	125,046
Jiangsu 江苏	115	85	30	51,749	41,672	10,077
Zhejiang 浙江	106	32	74	63,702	28,640	35,062
Shandong 山东	95	64	31	57,787	39,468	18,319
Guangdong 广东	92	34	58	66,292	26,233	40,059
Chongqing 重庆	90	26	64	44,504	11,669	32,835
Hunan 湖南	83	41	42	47,971	26,459	21,512
Henan 河南	74	51	23	44,958	33,179	11,779
Hubei 湖北	71	55	16	40,208	22,687	17,521
Liaoning 辽宁	63	25	38	44,364	30,018	14,346
Beijing 北京	60	28	32	21,015	3,917	17,098
Heilongjiang 黑龙江	58	31	27	15,282	8,481	6,801
Anhui 安徽	56	30	26	54,912	31,801	23,111
Hebei 河北	55	35	20	17,380	13,538	3,842
Jiangxi 江西	53	25	28	26,312	17,596	8,716
Shanxi 山西	48	30	18	20,457	13,001	7,456
Fujian 福建	46	32	14	16,573	12,446	4,127
Guangxi 广西	42	24	18	32,228	22,532	9,696
Shanghai 上海	39	23	16	20,739	8,210	12,529
Guizhou 贵州	25	13	12	4,641	3,102	1,539
Shan'xi 陕西	24	11	13	12,610	7,422	5,188
Tianjin 天津	22	16	6	11,192	7,485	3,707
Jilin 吉林	21	14	7	7,952	6,643	1,309
Hainan 海南	21	12	9	20,919	16,590	4,329
Gansu 甘肃	20	14	6	18,589	15,338	3,251
Inner Mongolian 内蒙古	19	6	13	11,836	4,928	6,908
Xinjiang 新疆	16	13	3	2,051	1,633	418

Regions	Number of Tourism Schools and Colleges			Number of Students at Tourism Schools and Colleges		
	Total	* Institutes of Higher Education	Secondary Professional Schools	Total	*Institutes of Higher Education	Secondary Professional Schools
Yunnan 云南	12	10	2	18,375	11,386	6,989
Ningxia 宁夏	7	3	4	1,405	916	489
Qinghai 青海	6	4	2	1,576	1,576	0
Tibetan 西藏	4	4	0	1,800	1,800	0

Source: China National Tourism Administration (2011).

*Note: the number of **institutes of higher education** includes institutes that provide both undergraduate diploma and bachelor's degree programmes.

Private education institutions first appeared in the PRC in the early 1980s. The first private or *minban* (usually labelled as such due to the notion of privatisation being unpopular in a socialist country) institution of higher learning, the China Societal University, was founded in Beijing in 1982 (Mok & Chan, 1998). However, various issues such as mismanagement, lack of revenue control and deceptive advertising and promotion arose due to the inconsistency of the private school evaluation system (Qin & Yang, 1993). Private education was widely criticised and the government began to control its approval tightly. In early 1992, along with its reform effort to deepen economic development, the government again stimulated private higher education. There are currently many private schools offering hotel and tourism education, such as the Beijing Hospitality Institute, the Tianjin Cooperative School of the Tianjin University of Commerce and Florida International University. The current study focused on public hotel and tourism education. Moreover, because bachelor degree education is a main trend in China, the sample of respondents was restricted to hospitality degree students from public higher education institutes.

Because hotel and tourism education in China originated from management, economics, geography, foreign language and history programmes, among others, and because institutes that offer hotel and tourism programmes usually establish hotel;

tourism; and meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE) streams among others, curricula designs vary significantly based on the programme setups and educational objectives of each school.

Zhang and Fan (2005) examined 130 hotel and tourism institution websites and summarised the programme objectives and setups. There are four levels of programmes developed for hotel and tourism higher education in China. Among the universities or colleges that provide hotel and tourism programmes, 70% offer diploma programmes, 35% offer undergraduate programmes and only 10% offer postgraduate and doctoral programmes. Table 2.6 presents the details of the programme objectives, durations of each level, internship durations and future working sectors for the students.

Table 2.6 Hotel and Tourism Programme Setups in the PRC

Level (Duration)	Programme Objectives	Subjects Covered	Internship*	Future Working Sector
Diploma (three years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Train tour guides and staff - Acquire basic knowledge of modern economic and managerial theories - Speak at least one foreign language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tour guiding - Tourism management - Tourism service and hotel management - F&B management - Hotel management - Eco-tourism management - Travel agency management - City planning, tourism information systems - Entertainment operation and management - Ethnic culture and tourism 	A few weeks to one year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Travel agency - Hotel - Restaurant - Airline
Undergraduate (four years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foster talent in tourism education, research or management - Acquire basic tourism management theories - Become familiar with laws, regulations and policies - Understand tourism trends in the China tourism industry - Master tourism enterprise operation - Be creative and sociable - Be able to analyse and solve problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism management - Tourism enterprise management - Tourism economics - Hotel management - Travel agency management - Tourist attraction management - Eco-tourism management - Tourism education - Tourism development and planning - Tourism marketing - International tour guiding - Tourism and air transportation service - Tourism accounting - Tourism management and service 	A few weeks to six months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Travel agency - Hotel - Restaurant - Airline - Tourism administrative department - Tourism education sector

Level (Duration)	Programme Objectives	Subjects Covered	Internship*	Future Working Sector
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Convention and incentive tourism management - Geographic science - Resource, urban and rural planning and management - Garden and landscape planning and design - Environmental science 		
Master's (two to three years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foster advanced tourism management skills - Grasp development trends of the tourism discipline - Conduct research independently - Conduct academic study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism development and planning - Tourism management - Tourism enterprise management - Tourism marketing - Garden and landscape planning and design - Tourism information management - Tourism economics and strategic development - Effect studies of tourism - Environmental science - Land resources management 	A few weeks to six months	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism administrative department - Tourism education sector - Tourism and hotel groups
Doctoral (three years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foster theoretical researchers in tourism management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism management - Tourism enterprise management - Tourism planning and management - Tourism marketing - Anthropology of tourism - Natural and human geography - Garden and landscape planning 	No specific requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism administrative department - Tourism education sector - Tourism and hotel groups

* Students typically have internships during their final year or subject to specific arrangement by individual institutes.

Source: Zhang & Fan (2005).

2.3.4 Previous Studies of Hotel and Tourism Education in China

China's hotel and tourism higher education is developing rapidly. It currently boasts large-scale expansion, improved educational structures, extended geographical distribution, diversified curricula and flexible running mechanisms (Du, 2003). However, these characteristics have resulted in a series of weaknesses, including an unscientific approach taken towards the education curriculum design and a shortage of qualified faculties (Du, 2003; Gu et al., 2007; Lam & Xiao, 2000; Zhou, 1991). Hence, although tourism higher education in China does not provide its graduates with many operational skills, it focuses on operational concepts and knowledge. In other words, practical training is insufficient. Students learn relevant operational theory and knowledge in the classroom, and freshly graduated students receive on-the-job training upon entering the industry. This is less productive during the early stages of employment and frequently causes dissatisfaction for both employers and employees (Du, 2003; Gu et al., 2007). Meanwhile, the hotel and tourism sector faces a shortage of qualified faculties with international and industry exposure (Gu et al., 2007).

In terms of the career paths of hotel and tourism graduates, Gu et al. (2007) observed that diploma-level graduates found satisfying jobs in the hospitality industry relatively easily, including frontline positions in hotels, restaurants, airlines and travel agencies. Degree graduates and higher probably work outside the hotel and service industries. Zhou (2001) found that graduates working in the hotel industry were developing slightly less positive attitudes towards employment in the hotel sector, and were decreasing their intentions to pursue similar careers. Only a few hotel and tourism students are truly dedicated to the industry and committed to their jobs. Around 50% of these freshly graduated employees quit hotel jobs and find new jobs outside the

industry.

Research related to the human resource issues in Chinese hotels has shown that the legacy of the Cultural Revolution created an environment in which service was considered „demeaning“ (Huyton & Sutton, 1996). Due to the influence of such traditional values, many people resist performing service work in the hotel industry (Zhang & Lam, 2004). Potential employees“ intention to work in the hotel industry is also influenced by their parents. According to Wong, Liu and Bao (2007), Chinese students are more likely to be influenced by their parents“ careers and beliefs about ideal jobs, in addition to their parents“ engagement in their career choice processes.

Furthermore, people often describe the hotel profession as offering low salaries, low social status, poor job security, long working hours and a lack of training. The practical training offered to students during their study periods has also been described as insufficient. Tourism and hotel schools and vocational training schools nurture students with operational concepts and knowledge without paying much attention to skills development (Lam & Xiao, 2000). These factors may contribute to the dilemma the hospitality degree student encounters in developing his or her career in the hotel industry. The current study aimed to determine the degree of students“ perceptions of the hotel job image, and to explore the associations between perceived hotel job image and students“ intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation.

2.4 Perceived Job Image

A perceived job image describes the „ideology or shared beliefs about the meaning of occupational membership with regard to the social status, capability, and behavior

patterns of individual members” (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986, p. 662). In other words, it refers to how an individual thinks the public perceives his or her job. A perceived job image also reflects how employees view their jobs and how much satisfaction they expect to derive from them.

The formation of a perceived job image is embedded in the occupational socialisation process (Thomas, 1978). This process involves the „acquisition of attitudes and values, skills and behavior patterns making up social roles established in persisting social occupation systems” (McKinney & Ingles, 1959, cited in Thomas, 1978, p. 1).

2.4.1 Studies and Measurements of the Perceived Job Image

Studies of perceived job/occupational images have focused mainly on three occupations: nurse, law enforcement officer and salesperson. The measurement constructs and instruments of these three occupational images have varied greatly.

2.4.1.1 Measurements of the Perceived Job Image of Nurses

Early studies in this area focused on the image of the nursing occupation. The approach taken by Corwin (1961) has been the most extensively applied (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986). It classifies value-based role conceptions of nursing jobs by identifying particular image clusters as „service-traditional”, „professional” and „bureaucratic routine” (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Corwin, 1961). As beliefs about nursing changed from the 1950s to the 1980s, resulting in overlapping and ambiguous measurements, Birnbaum and Somers (1986) defined the ideal nursing role in terms of the daily tasks involved, and used an alternative approach to understand the related job image. Their task-based instrument measured the typical tasks of a nurse, with respondents

evaluating the job image by indicating the frequency with which they performed the tasks.

Birnbaum and Somers (1989) conducted a further study to explore the meaning of the nursing job image, develop related measurements and evaluate both the value- and task-based measurement models. Another study was conducted to determine the adequacy of the value-based model and generalisability of the task-based model. The value-based model included 27 items and used a Likert-type format. Examples included „demonstrating care and concern for others“, „scientific judgment“, „order and routine“ and „devotion to the patient“. Another 37 statements such as „talk with patients“ families“, „make beds“, „feed or assist patients with meals“ and „greet and direct visitors“ were evaluated according to the task-based measurement model. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) results did not support the value-based model because the measurement items did not converge into one latent dimension. Thus, the proposed value-based instruments required further refinement. However, the task-based model was supported significantly and its generalisability was determined.

Lim and Yuen (1998) applied the established job image study instruments to nurses and modified their wordings accordingly. Only three items were used to measure participants“ attitudes towards the nursing job image, including „nurses are not truly health professionals“, „the nursing profession is low in prestige and status“ and „nurses are inadequately prepared to meet the needs of patients“. The respondents were also asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with each item. Tzeng (2006) developed measurement scales to investigate the perceived and expected images of Taiwanese nurses. The study involved students enrolled in nursing and non-nursing undergraduate

programmes, graduates and faculties. Five dimensions with nineteen items were identified, including „angel of mercy“, „romantic“, „careerist“, „obedient“ and „bureaucratic“.

2.4.1.2 Measurements of the Perceived Job Image of Sales Jobs

Sales jobs have also traditionally been associated with a poor image (Wotruba, 1990). They involve cold calling, low prestige, rejection and low ethical standards, as portrayed in numerous television shows, movies, novels and other media (Bragg, 1987; Wotruba, 1990). The turnover rate among salespersons has been found to be very high, calling attention to the relationships between the perceived image of sales jobs and the job satisfaction and performance of salespersons.

Studies of the sales job image originated with the development of Duncan’s socioeconomic index for measuring the occupational and social statuses of job holders (Nakao, 1992). Other studies have investigated the sales job image by examining the attributes of those jobs (Swan & Adkins, 1980). One study compared the public’s perceived image of five sales jobs (sales engineer, sales supervisor, life insurance agent, sales representative and in-store clerk) and six non-sales jobs (waitress, physician, engineer, auto repairman, truck driver’s helper and migrant worker). Drawing on data collected from 159 members of the public, the studies empirically examined the relationships between prestige, education level, freedom on the job and other factors, and also identified relevant sales job images. The sales representative image was found to include three factors (professional white collar, credibility and supervision of others).

Wotruba (1990) developed another approach for evaluating the salesperson job image. The measurement scales used were derived from previous research related to consumer attitudes towards people engaged in direct sales, and the results of a national survey related to the public image of direct sales jobs. Meanwhile, focus groups with salespeople were held to explore the appropriateness of the measurements. The respondents were asked how they felt about others' views of direct selling and were asked to rate the overall job image.

2.4.1.3 Measurements of the Perceived Job Image of Police Officers

Police officers mainly interact with outsiders, and are likely to use their values as their frame of reference for assessing their own status or image. The instruments used to investigate the police officer job image were derived from attitude studies involving police officers and the aforementioned work involving nurses and salespersons.

Empirical approaches such as personal interviews have been used to identify relevant aspects of the police job image (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). A 44-item measurement scale with 4 dimensions (prestige, integrity, competence and non-routine job nature) was developed to measure the perceived job image. EFA identified prestige as the most important construct, accounting for 23% of the variance. This was followed by integrity, competence and non-routine job nature. Yim and Schafer's (2009) study examined the perceived image of police officers in the US. They administered a questionnaire designed to determine police officers' overall perceptions of how they were perceived by the community, how they were perceived by citizens in most non-enforcement situations and how they were perceived by the community in most non-custodial arrest enforcement situations.

As evident from the foregoing discussion, perceived job/occupational image studies have mainly been conducted on three occupations: nurse, salesperson and police officer. These jobs are similar in that they involve serving others, direct customer contact, controversial social status and other factors. Furthermore, the images of these occupations are perceived differently in different social contexts or cultural groups. The job image measurements vary enormously within and across these three occupations. For example, task- and value-based scales have been used to evaluate the nursing job image, research related to sales roles has been derived from studies of socioeconomic status and consumer attitudes, and evaluations of the police officer occupation have combined both of these approaches. Furthermore, the measurement of perceived job image is also considered sensitive to various changing contextual factors and on-going socialisation trends (Birnbaum & Somers, 1989; Nakao, 1992). Table 2.7 summarises the job image measurement domains for the three occupations.

Table 2.7 Job Image Domains of the Nursing, Salesperson and Police Officer Occupations

Occupation	Job Image Measurement Domains	Author
Nurse	Traditional, professional, utilitarian	Habenstein & Christ (1955)
	Service-traditional, professional, bureaucratic	Corwin (1961); Kramer (1970); Minehan (1977)
	Lay image, traditional professional image, advanced professional image, bureaucratic routine image	Brown, Swift, & Oberman (1974); Davis & Olesen (1964)
	Professional, bureaucratic	Minehan (1977)
Salesperson	Professional white collar, credibility, supervision of others	Swan & Adkins (1980)
	Overall job image evaluation, job image items (perceptions of salespersons on the job)	Wotruba (1990)

Occupation	Job Image Measurement Domains	Author
Police officer	Prestige, integrity, competence, non-routine job nature	Lim, Teo, & See (2000)

As previously mentioned, studies of perceived job image have mainly concentrated on the nurse, police officer and salesperson occupations, which are similar in that they each involve serving others, direct contact with customers/patients, a controversial social status and other factors. Their image is also perceived differently within various social contexts or cultural groups. Hotel service jobs exhibit the same characteristics. China's traditional culture deeply affects the value systems of its people, and work values are diversified during periods of economic transition.

Measuring perceived hotel job image, or perceptions of how hotel service staff members are currently viewed, in Chinese society is a complex issue. Apart from studies of hotel staff perceptions, attitudes and expectations, few hotel and tourism studies have specifically and empirically examined the perceived hotel job image. Because a perceived job image comprises shared beliefs about the meaning of occupational membership in relation to the social statuses, capabilities and behavioural patterns of individual members (Birnbbaum & Somers, 1986; Caplow, 1954; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000), this paper reviews previous studies of the perceptions, attitudes and expectations related to hotel jobs.

2.4.2 Perceived Job Image and its Relationship with Job Attitudes and Intentions

The perceived job image is an important variable influencing a person's job-related attitudes. For example, it has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and affects whether an employee decides

to remain in a profession (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Jasovsky, 2001; Krau & Ziv, 1990; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000; Tzeng, 2006; Wotruba, 1990).

Birnbaum and Somers (1986) developed a process model to examine the relationships among job image, attitudes and performance based on a sample of 103 staffing nurses at an urban hospital. Their study identified four image types (traditional, professional, bureaucratic and utilitarian) based on respondents' perceptions of ideal nursing job tasks. The four image types had differential effects on job attitudes. Moreover, the job attitude/performance relationship was significantly different across the different image groups. For example, the utilitarian group was less involved in the job than the other three groups.

Lim and Yuen (1998) investigated the influences of three stressors (patients and relatives' demands, doctors' demands and the perceived job image) on nurses' work attitudes, including their job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job-induced tension and intention to quit. The results showed that the nursing staff members thought the public judged their image unfavourably, especially compared with the images of other health professions. Perceived job image was also positively associated with the nursing staff's job satisfaction, and negatively related with the staff's job-induced tension and intention to quit. The authors recommended that the government or public associations try to improve the public image of the nursing profession, and thus create awareness among the public that nurses' roles are significant for the delivery of health care services. However, the nursing staff members themselves are responsible for maintaining their positive public image by demonstrating their competence professionally, updating their skills and knowledge

consistently and building the necessary confidence to deal with patients.

Lim, Teo and See (2000) found the prestige dimension of the perceived job image construct significantly affected the attitudes of police officers towards their jobs, accounting for 23% of the variance. This means that police officers who thought their jobs were respected had higher levels of satisfaction, higher levels of organisational commitment and a lower intention to quit their jobs.

Furthermore, an occupation with low prestige cannot attract potential employees (Holland, 1997; Swan & Adkins, 1980). One study of salespeople found that prestige could increase sale success rates. As selling was found to be more difficult as the gap of perceived prestige between salesperson and customer increased, some organisations provided salespeople with managerial job titles. Eisenstadt (1971, cited in Swan & Adkins, 1980) further identified prestige as a kind of social resource that could be used as a medium to obtain unavailable resources. For example, people with high prestige may receive resources at a relatively low price. The prestige or views of a group are sensitising factors that affect work behaviour and attitudes (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000).

2.4.3 Determinants of the Perceived Job Image

Any job sought by an individual already has an image perception associated with it, and it is very hard to modify that perception (Barber, 1998). To a certain extent, the perception is determined by how an individual thinks others will perceive his or her social status, capability and behavioural patterns in the occupation (Caplow, 1954). The individual attitudes, values and behaviour acquired during the occupational socialisation process contribute to how individuals perceive a particular job image. A

review of the research related to nursing, salesperson and police officer occupations reveals that few empirical studies have explored what influences perceived job image. Nevertheless, hints of the social influences on perceived job image have not been captured.

First, the historical role, social status and hierarchical structure of an occupation formed during the socialisation process have been found to influence the public image of a job. Taking the nursing profession as an example, the hierarchical structure between physicians and nurses, in which the latter are subordinate to the former, leads the public to perceive a low-rated image of nursing staff (Brodie et al., 2004; Roberts & Vasquez, 2004; Takase et al., 2001; Tzeng, 2006). Poor pay, working conditions, opportunities for career advancement and other characteristics have been found to affect the perceived image of nurses (Brodie et al., 2004; Tomey et al., 1996; Tzeng, 2006).

Second, demographic characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity and race, and past experiences with persons from a particular occupation and educational background have been shown to influence the formation of a public image. Tzeng (2006) designed a study involving students enrolled in nursing and non-nursing programmes, graduates and university faculties to explore the influential factors in assessing the nursing job image. Demographic characteristics were considered the main influence of the general perceptions of the image of nurses in Taiwan. The male respondents had positive perceptions of the image (e.g., „angel of mercy“ and „careerist“) and negative perceptions of the occupation being „bureaucratic“. The respondents“ satisfactory experiences related to nursing care also contributed to a positive perceived image

(Tomey et al., 1996; Tzeng, 2006). Educational background or a lower demand for academic standards were found to contribute to the image of nursing as an occupation characterised by a lack of skills and knowledge (Brodie et al., 2004; Roberts & Vasquez, 2004; Takase et al., 2001; Tzeng, 2006). However, respondents with broad knowledge about the expanded roles of nurses were found to have positive perceptions of nursing careers (Tomey et al., 1996). These findings supported the notion that demographic characteristics are related to the general perception of a perceived job image.

Research has mentioned other determinants in addition to the antecedents just mentioned. First, the media often leads the public in their perceptions of the image of an occupation. Controversial images such as portrayals of nurses as angels or sex objects are offered up by the mass media and perceived by the public (Brodie et al., 2004; Roberts & Vasquez, 2004; Takase et al., 2001; Tzeng, 2006). The media's focus on malpractice often influences the public to form negative perceptions. Self-esteem also affects the perception of images. For example, nurses who have a negative perception of their own occupation may send a negative message to the public. Therefore, nurses should ideally build a noble and meaningful image through positive self-perception (Roberts & Vasquez, 2004; Takase et al., 2001; Tzeng, 2006). Role models also influence a perceived job image and play an important role in career choice. Gillis, Jackson and Beiswanger (2004) found that some graduates influenced by positive role models wanted to become nurses and believed the occupation to be a meaningful career choice.

An individual's attitudes, values and behaviour, which are acquired during the

socialisation process, contribute to his or her personal perceptions of a job image (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Birnbaum & Somers, 1989; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). For example, the members of a society may acquire modern attitudes, values and behaviour, or keep their traditional attitudes, values and behaviour during the social modernisation process. The extent of an individual's modernity or traditionality may influence his or her perception of a particular job image. Furthermore, the influence of family members or behaviour observed in a family environment may affect an individual's perceptions. However, few empirical studies have explored the possible social influences on perceived job image. This study aimed to explore the societal determinants of perceived hotel job image by examining hospitality students in the context of China.

2.4.4 Perceptions of Hotel Job Image

Because a perceived job image is defined as „shared beliefs about the meaning of occupational membership with regard to the social status, capability, and behavior patterns of individual members“ (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986, p. 662), this paper reviews previous studies of the perceptions, attitudes and expectations related to hotel jobs. Many studies of job characteristics and associated attitudes have mixed the job characteristics of both the tourism and hotel sectors, as the jobs in both sectors share many characteristics (Richardson, 2009). Therefore, some of the job characteristics or attitudes towards hotel jobs identified in this study were taken from studies that focused on both hotel and tourism jobs or on hospitality jobs.

Studies have found a dichotomy of views associated with hotel staff or potential staff members' attitudes towards hotel jobs. Riley et al. (2002, p. 17) characterised tourism

and hotel employment as impressed with the „confusing complexity of its own image“.

Hotel jobs are challenging and interesting, provide many opportunities for working globally and offer a glamorous work environment and the chance to meet friendly people. However, they are also characterised by non-regular or unsocial working hours, relatively low salaries, low social status, seasonality and monotony. Richardson (2009) found that students were not generally confident in seeking hotel careers for their futures. According to Barron (2008), the image of careers in the hospitality industry is perceived as negative. Table 2.8 presents the main characteristics of hotel jobs.

Table 2.8 Main Characteristics of Hotel Jobs

Positive Characteristics of Hotel Jobs	Authors
Offer broad career opportunities	Barron et al. (2007); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994)
Interesting	Aksu & Koksall (2005)
Chance to work with friendly people/public	Barron et al. (2007); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Ross (1994)
Exciting and dynamic	Ross (1994)
Offer rapid promotion	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994)
Competitive and challenging	Barron et al. (2007); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994)
Promising industry	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994)
Offer fringe benefits such as holidays, meals and bonuses	Aksu & Koksall, (2005); Ross (1994)
Offer a clean and glamorous work environment in addition to well-maintained employee bathrooms, toilets and dining rooms	Aksu & Koksall (2005); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001)

Negative Characteristics of Hotel Jobs	Authors
Disparity between rewards and efforts	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Krakover (2000); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001)
Insecure	Jafari et al. (1990); Krakover (2000); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001)
Unsocial working hours instability	Aksu & Koksall (2005); Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Krakover (2000); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Jafari et al. (1990); Page et al. (2001)
Forced to deal with customers	Go et al. (1996); Jafari et al. (1990); Krakover (2000); Page et al. (2001)
Low-skilled job physically repetitive	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Jafari et al. (1990); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001)
Seasonal business	Page et al. (2001); Aksu & Koksall (2005)
Poor employee/organisation fit	Go et al. (1996); Jafari et al. (1990); Krakover (2000); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001)
Poor working conditions	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Jafari et al. (1990); Krakover (2000); Page et al. (2001)

The same characteristics are often perceived as both positive and negative. For example, instability is considered a form of rapid promotion, and to some extent career mobility is considered a career-building step (Barron et al., 2007; Baruch, 2004; Ladkin, 2002; McCabe, 2001). Instability is perceived negatively, and indicates uncertainty and unpredictability. People who are future oriented and recognise the career ladders associated with hotel jobs may have positive perceptions of those jobs. Therefore, perceived hotel job image is highly influenced by personal factors.

Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, length of service, educational level and marital status influence people's perceptions of and satisfaction with a job. Herzberg et al. (1957) used a U-shaped chart to explain the relationships between job

satisfaction and age. When a young employee is new to a job, his or her satisfaction increases gradually. However, when the employee becomes mature and experienced, he or she reviews the job realistically and his or her satisfaction drops. Lam et al. (2001) found that Hong Kong hotel employees with a primary education are more satisfied with hotel jobs than those with a higher-education background. Lewis and Airey (2001) suggested examining the differences in students' attitudes towards hotel jobs by comparing prestige and non-prestige school samples or samples in urban versus rural areas.

Another possible influence is the social context. First, the status of the hotel industry in a local economy affects the public's view of employment within the industry. For example, in the south Caribbean, because the tourism and hotel industry is the main source of foreign exchange and employment, Lewis and Airey (2001) found students have relatively positive attitudes towards hotel-related jobs. China is a good example that provides a similar view. During the Cultural Revolution, serving others was thought to be demeaning (Huyton & Sutton, 1996). With the development of the tourism economy in the national economic system, the tourism and hotel industry has become a major employer, indicating that the economic function of the hotel industry is gradually changing. Moreover, local economic circumstances influence people's evaluations of hotel jobs. For example, in a study conducted during a period of economic downturn in Hong Kong (Lam et al., 2001), the wage that a job could provide was the most important factor influencing the public's perceptions of a job image.

Social-cultural differences also contribute to the public's different perceptions of hotel

jobs. Chan, Chan and Qu's (2002) comparative study showed Hong Kong students to have a higher perception of the glamour of working in the hospitality industry than mainland Chinese students, and students in mainland China to have higher job expectations than Hong Kong students. Kim et al. (2007) showed Taiwanese students to have the most positive perceptions of hotel and tourism jobs compared with mainland Chinese and Korean students. Zhang and Lam (2004) also suggested that hospitality students were hesitant to engage in hotel occupations because they were influenced by their traditional culture. For example, some students still preferred a state-owned company rather than a joint-venture company. In addition, O'Mahony et al. (2001) found that parents and career counsellors influenced students' interest in working in the hotel and tourism industry. Chinese students are the group most likely to be influenced by their parents' careers, ideal job beliefs and engagement in their career choice process (Wong, Liu, & Bao, 2007; Wong & Liu, 2010).

Meanwhile, familiarity and involvement with the industry are related to the perceptions of hotel and tourism jobs. Ross (1994) conducted a survey related to a tourism resort in Australia at a high school. Most of the respondents had friends/relatives working at tourism resorts, and 30% had personal part-time experience working at the Australian resort. The respondents were interested in working in the hotel and tourism industry after graduation and considered it promising. The author suggested that community involvement could encourage a positive view of hotel and tourism jobs. Similar results were found in a study of Scottish higher-education institutions. Freshmen and sophomores were more apt to choose careers in the hospitality industry than senior students (Chuang et al., 2007). New students who took hospitality management courses for only one week had highly

positive attitudes towards hotel work. However, students who had completed a placement in the industry expressed more negative attitudes towards hospitality professions (Barron & Maxwell, 1993). As explained in an additional study, students' perceptions change in proportion to their exposure to working life in the industry (Barron et al., 2007).

2.5 Individual Modernity

As discussed in the previous sections, perceived job image refers to an individual's belief and ideology in relation to a particular job. Individual attitudes, values and behaviour acquired during the socialisation process influence an individual's perception of a job image (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Caplow, 1954; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). Any influence from the social context in which an individual lives can also change the individual's personal thoughts, feelings, attitudes and behaviour. Such changes subsequently affect the individual's perception of a particular job image (Rashotte, 2007). Section 2.5 reviews individual modernity theory, and investigates its possible influence on perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions. Meanwhile, as a person's social behaviour is influenced by his or her social context, which is represented by the behaviour of his or her family members (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), factors from the family system are presented and explored in Section 2.6.

2.5.1 Individual Modernity Theory

During China's periods of industrialisation and urbanisation, people aspired to obtain a formal education, material well-being and a high social status. Society subsequently experienced an evolutionary transition from a traditional to a modern form. According to Inkeles and Smith (1975), any modernisation efforts involving social objects are

meaningless if people's attitudes and capacities are not advanced at the same speed as their social development. Many believe it impossible for a state to enter a modern world when its people's attitudes and behaviour remain stuck in a traditional mode. In a social transition process, modernisation can be witnessed not only in social objects such as politics, economy and cultural diversity, but also the subjective dimension of individual modernity.

Individual modernity refers to an individual's traits as characterised by his or her modern attitudes, beliefs and behaviour. Such characteristics are generated by or required to live in a modern society (Smith & Inkeles, 1966). Individual modernity is thus a „syndrome of attitudes and beliefs, including progressivism, optimism, future-oriented perspectives, and personal efficacy“ (Gough, 1976). It accounts for peoples' psychological transformations and changes in attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviour during the social modernisation process (Yang, 2003). From a psychological perspective, individual modernity measures „how modern an individual is“ in terms of his or her preference for social change, goal-setting behaviour, optimism about the future and confidence in handling new experiences (Gough, 1976).

Individual modernity theory has been proposed and developed with several premises. For example, it is held that men are born without modern attitudes or values and gradually achieve them through life experience. Thus, people who live in a stable society may have stable basic personal traits, and others who live in a rapidly changing social context manifest a more social personality (Smith & Inkeles, 1966). The so-called „modern men“ mentioned by the theory are men with relatively modern traits, and are considered to be common men rather than a chosen elite.

Smith and Inkeles (1966) introduced modernisation theory. Their study included almost 6,000 samples from six developing countries, including Argentina, Chile, India, Israel, Nigeria and Bangladesh. They developed the Overall Modernity (OM) Scale via item analysis and criterion group methods. Several versions of the OM Scale were established through different combinations of 110 test items, among which a short version containing 14 items was specially constructed for the sake of universal fieldwork convenience. Inkeles and Smith (1975) suggested that individuals exhibit the content and structure of their modernity through various sets of attitudes, values and behaviour, and that the results are universal across countries. The OM Scale is one of the leading and most frequently applied measurements of individual modernity. Kahl (1968) examined the OM Scale by interviewing Mexican and Brazilian residents to discover and understand their common modern characteristics. Schnaiberg (1970) subsequently constructed a 46-item scale that concentrated on the coherence of the attitudinal and behavioural attributes of modern individuals. Individual modernity was a popular research focus in the Western psychological community in the 1960s and 1970s (Hwang, 2003). A number of studies were conducted in the third world countries to empirically identify the common characteristics of modern people (Inkeles & Smith, 1975; Inkeles, 1983; Kahl, 1968; Portes, 1973; Schnaiberg, 1970). The pioneering work of Smith and Inkeles (1966) attempted to generalise a universal and one-dimensional concept. Thus, Yogev (1976) criticised the reliability of their universal measurements. The comparability of factorial structures in the authors' questionnaire has also been challenged (Chiu, 1980; Cohen & Till, 1977).

The universal measurements used by previous studies have three limitations. First,

authors have ignored the particular cultures and characteristics of individual countries. For example, a later study applying the measurement to Chinese society found that the traits of modernity exhibited differences (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994). Second, the coexistence of traditional culture and modern values has not been well considered in the universal measurements. The Chinese have kept some of their traditional cultural values and accommodated modern values simultaneously (Leung et al., 2011; Yang, 1996, 2003). Therefore, the design of the measurements is expected to accommodate both traditional and modern values simultaneously. Third, the measurements have not been updated along with the changing social environment. For instance, China's social system, economy and culture have undergone profound changes. The country has continuously pursued modernisation and transformed from a traditional agricultural society into a modern agricultural society. The measurements of individual modernity should be updated continuously to reflect these changes.

Since the 1980s, the research focus has shifted to Chinese society, including Taiwan, Hong Kong and mainland China (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Du, 2005; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997; Yang, 1988, 2003; Zhang, Zheng, & Wang, 2003). Broaded, Cao and Inkeles (1994) continued their research in China. These authors tested the generality of the individual modernity model in mainland China. Although they found the OM Scale to be applicable to the Chinese people, the special traits of the Chinese culture produced a slight difference. Their study identified a total of 19 themes, 13 of which were directly similar to those used in 6 other developing countries. Three of these themes (role of age, social class attitudes and time valuation) were derived from the original individual modernity concept, and the other three (norms of official business, workplace unity and work orientation) were specifically found in China.

Chinese individuals with more modern traits were discovered to have a strong sense of personal efficacy, and believed that having high aspirations for themselves, working hard and expecting a fair reward system based on their skills and productivity could give them a better life (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997).

2.5.2 Determinants of Individual Modernity

Individual modern traits were formed from individual life experiences in the social transition process from tradition to modernity. Scholars from the social psychology field have approached individual modernity studies by investigating the influence of social factors. For instance, Inkeles and Smith (1975) analysed an individual's life cycle to identify the relevant influential factors. Some researchers have approached the influential factors by comparing demographic characteristics (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Du, 2005; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997; Schnaiberg, 1970; Zhang, Zheng, & Wang, 2003).

Inkeles and Smith (1975) divided the influential factors into two categories: early- and late-socialisation variables. Early-socialisation variables include the education of the individual's father along with the individual's education, ethnicity/religion and urban or rural origin. Late-socialisation variables include the individual's occupation type, mass-media exposure, living standard and age. In their study of six developing countries, the authors found that early- and late-socialisation variables were equally important in explaining the individual modernity formation process. In other words, an adult's experiences and particularly his or her job experience and mass-media contact partly determine his or her modernity level.

The modernity level of a society is the main factor contributing to individual modernity. The higher the modernity level of a society, the higher the average modernity level of the individuals in that society. Moreover, individuals in more modern sectors or environments exhibit more modern characteristics than individuals in less-modern sectors (Armer & Schnaiberg, 1972).

The demographic characteristics of individuals can also predict the degree of individual modernity. The younger generation is more modern than the older generation (Liu, 1966). The younger generation also shows a higher level of interaction than the older generation (Lu & Kao, 2002). Furthermore, female residents are more modern than males (Schnaiberg, 1970; Zhang, Zheng, & Wang, 2003). In a study of six developing countries (Argentina, Chile, India, Israel, Nigeria and East Pakistan), Inkeles and Smith (1975) suggested that education level had a strong positive relationship with individual modernity. The higher the education level of an individual, the higher the level of modernity observed. However, Inkeles, Broaded and Cao (1997) found a different result in a study of Chinese citizens. They found education to be insignificantly associated with one's modernity level, and occupation to have a significant effect on one's modern traits. In Zhang, Zheng and Wang's (2003) subsequent study of Chinese students, education level was found to have a significant effect on individual modernity. An individual's urban/rural residence and employment experience were also found to have effects.

2.5.3 Consequences of Individual Modernity

Individual modernity affects an individual's attitudes and behaviour. People behave

differently during the social modernisation process. For example, they adapt their attitudes and behaviour towards industrialisation and new occupations either actively or passively, and resist any changes, whether strongly or invisibly. Inkeles and Smith (1975) identified some modern attitudes and behaviour. They found modern men to be open to accepting new ideas and lifestyles and quick to adapt to new environments. Individuals with modern traits were found to prefer technical innovation, and chose to work far away from their hometowns and in newly emerging sectors rather than traditional jobs. They also pursued modern information positively. Furthermore, modern individuals were found to pursue better education and non-traditional occupations. Lastly, modern men were found to possess a high level of efficacy and to determine their future goals.

Individual modernity is also significantly associated with an individual's work commitment and job choices. People with high modernity levels tend to have a high level of work commitment. In a study conducted in industrialised developing countries, Inkeles and Smith (1975) found labour forces in newly developing regions to be unstable, especially workers moving from rural areas to urban regions under poor economic circumstances. These people held fewer modern attitudes and had strong traditional mindsets. They joined their occupations with the aim of earning money quickly and buying traditional commodities rather than fulfilling any future goals. Furthermore, any training for these low-modernity individuals would have been invalid given their low levels of work commitment.

Another study of college students in China (Du, 2005) found that graduates with high modernity scores chose non-traditional careers or non-state sector occupations, and

that those with fewer modern traits preferred employment in the state sector and were the least likely to work in a foreign enterprise. The latter were nevertheless influenced by traditional systems such as the „iron rice-bowl“ policy. The measurements in Du’s study comprised four factors, including attitudes towards achievement, efficacy, attitudes towards social change and openness to new experiences. Moreover, Pillutla, Farh, Lee, and Lin (2007) acknowledged that higher modernity values indicated a more cooperative quality in an individual. Xie, Schaubroeck and Lam (2008) found that people with high modernity values experienced less stress in their jobs than their more traditional peers.

Previous studies of individual modernity in the context of Chinese society have focused mainly on measurement developments (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Hwang, 2003; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997; Yang, 1988, 2003, 2004) or the influence of education or other factors on individual modernity (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Du, 2005; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997; Zhang, Zheng, & Wang, 2003). Some studies have paid attention to the effects of individual modernity on people’s behaviour (Du, 2005; Pillutla, Farh, Lee, & Lin, 2007; Xie, Schaubroeck, & Lam, 2008). The relationship between an individual’s modern traits and perception of a certain job has never been examined. Such a perception probably mediates the effects of an individual’s modern attitudes on his or her career intentions.

As Chinese society moved increasingly towards modernity, the hotel industry became an economic rather than a diplomatic tool and came to represent a social-cultural activity. The public perception of the role of the hotel industry has changed public (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). It has thus been assumed that the perceived hotel job

image will also change due to the influence of people's modern traits. This study addressed the career intentions of hotel degree students in China. Furthermore, it explored the level of student modernity and systematically examined its influence on the perceived hotel job image to generate insight into the psychological mechanisms underlying students' career intentions.

2.6 Parental Influence

In addition to the social influence of individual modernity on perceived hotel job images and career intentions, the family system is likely to affect an individual's perceptions and behaviour. Family system theory proposes that a family operates like a system or unit within which the family members' interactions influence each individual's attitudes and behaviour (Carr, 2000). Furthermore, certain patterns and principles are established in a family that ensure homeostasis. These rules and patterns potentially influence people's behaviour, such as their career choices. Therefore, family system theory also explains the career-related behaviour of children and young people (Bratcher, 1982; Kantor & Lehr, 1975; Laverty, 2001; Sowell, 2006).

Aspects of family systems such as parents and family socioeconomic status are related to an individual's career interests and choices (Hotchkiss & Borow, 1984). The socio-economic status of an individual's family directly influences his or her career intentions, as it relates to the family's financial ability to support its children in obtaining higher education. Although this also relates to future occupations, for the purposes of this study, only the relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions was examined.

2.6.1 Parental Influence

According to family system theory, family members and especially parents have a tremendous influence on students' career choices. Clark and Horan (2001) suggested that parents influence their children's career choices in terms of exposure, values, beliefs, socialisation skills, skills training, future aspirations, opportunities and a variety of other ways. Parental influence exposes children to different activities and subsequently helps to provide a variety of skills.

Parental influence is the most important stimulus of students' career choice behaviour (Mason & Kahle, 1998). Such influence starts working in children as early as age four (Clark & Horan, 2001). In a study of 409 graduate students (Bender, 1994), the respondents indicated that if their parents held negative attitudes towards their career decisions, they would definitely change those decisions to meet their parents' expectations. Hairston (2000) also suggested that parental influence plays a role in determining students' career choices because parents help to establish their children's value systems and expect their children to adhere to those systems. Furthermore, children have a strong desire to imitate their parents, and are more likely to choose professions that they suggest (Hairston, 2000). Parents instil their values and beliefs in their children in two ways: parenting background and parental involvement (Lankard, 1995).

2.6.2 Constructs of Parental Influence

Parental influence stems from a family or parenting background and parental involvement. Parents' occupations and education levels comprise the former (Lankard, 1995).

2.6.2.1 Parenting Background

Numerous studies have explored the influences of parents' occupations on students' career choice behaviour. Parents usually encourage their children to seek the same occupational areas they sought simply by acting as role models. They can also discourage their children from doing so based on their negative perceptions of their jobs (Small & McClean, 2002). Furthermore, parents may talk about their jobs in front of or with their children, and such discussions can influence a child's future career intentions. Children are often influenced by their parents' discussions of the negative and positive aspects of their jobs, and this may increase or decrease a child's career interests and options (Mortimer et al., 1992).

Parents' education levels have the highest amount of influence on students' career aspirations for several reasons (DeRidder, 1990; Mortimer et al., 1992). First, education levels are most closely related to income levels and the likelihood that a child will attend college. Furthermore, parents with different education levels expose their children to different activities and thus provide children with different types of knowledge and skills. As such, researchers have argued that parents' education levels are strongly related to students' career choices. Parents with higher education levels have more of an influence on students' career choices than parents with lower education levels. Mortimer et al. (1992) conducted a four-year longitudinal study of 1,000 middle-school students by examining their parental education influence. They found a parent's education level to be a more significant factor influencing students' career choices than family composition, mother's occupation and family income. Nevertheless, opposing results have also been found. Kniveton's (2004) study

indicated that parental influence on students' career choices was not significantly related to the parents' education levels, regardless of whether the parents had high school educations or university degrees.

2.6.2.2 Parental Involvement

In addition to parental background, parental involvement influences students' career choices and often influences the perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of children and young people (Lareau, 1989; Taylor, Clayton, & Rowley, 2004). There are three kinds of parental involvement: positive involvement, non-involvement and negative involvement (Middleton & Loughead, 1993). Positive involvement refers to parents providing necessary information, providing guidance to children when choosing an occupation and not enforcing a specific choice. Positive parental involvement can influence children by providing a variety of experiences at an early age. These experiences include hobbies, books, movies, television, natural observation and field trips, all of which may increase or decrease a child's career interest (Naizer, 1993). Negative involvement is defined as parents' strong control of every aspect of their children's lives. This control may negatively affect students' career choices.

Parental involvement consists of three dimensions: the role model effect, expectations and encouragement (Ferry, Fouad, & Smith, 2000). The role model effect is displayed when students unconsciously imitate the patterns and rules demonstrated by their parents, who are or were successful at their respective schools or occupations (Stambler, 1998). In such cases, parents also involve themselves in their children's career choice processes to realise their own personal expectations (Stambler, 1998). Parental encouragement refers to behaviour such as support and verbal suggestions

that encourage their children's career choices (Ferry et al., 2000). For example, parents often discourage female students from entering traditionally male-dominated occupations such as engineering and instead encourage them to adopt stereotypical careers that allow them to attend to the needs of their spouses, children and daily family-related activities.

Study results have indicated that the influence of parenting background, specifically parents' occupations and education levels, varies enormously depending on the student's cultural background, gender and chosen major. The following sections investigate the effects of gender and culture on parental influence.

2.6.3 Effects of Gender and Cultural Difference on Parental Influence

Some studies have critically investigated the effect of gender on parental influence, including how the influence of mothers and fathers differs and how male and female children are influenced differently. Studies have shown that a father's influence is more significant than a mother's (Conroy, 1997; DeRidder, 1990; Holland, 1997). Norby (2004) found that a father's occupation affected his children's career choices via the role model effect. Campbell and Uto (1994) proved that fathers with high education levels influenced male students more than females. Ibrahim et al. (1994) found that a female's career choice was more easily influenced by parental expectations. In a study involving agricultural students, a mother's influence on students' career decisions was found to be stronger than that of a father (Kotrlik & Harrison, 1987).

The patterns and rules of a family system are influenced by cultural values, and

parental influence varies significantly between collectivist and individualistic cultures (Goodnow, 1985; Hardin et al., 2001; Taylor et al., 2004; Tang et al., 1999). The US culture emphasises individualism and encourages a child's autonomy and separation from his or her parents. Thus, parental influence on a child's career choices is not as significant in the US as it is in collectivist cultures. The values of Asian cultures, which are widely known as collectivist cultures, emphasise tradition, obedience and respect for authority and are also believed to discourage individualism. Asian parents usually have higher expectations and standards for their children's education compared with Anglo parents. Asian cultural traditions place a high value on education and view it as a path for self-improvement, self-esteem and the achievement of family honour. Asian cultures often dictate that a high education level can help an individual overcome occupational discrimination (Schneider & Lee, 1990). Career development and advancement in Asian cultures vary greatly from those in Western cultures. For example, the Korean culture emphasises money and prestige as criteria for success. Thus, narrowly defined occupations that are often considered prestigious and highly admired, such as medicine and law, are considered successful occupations (Taylor et al., 2003). Although Japanese students believe that the suggestions of their family members are the most important factors to consider when thinking about future careers, their US counterparts perceive self-interest as the most important factor (Taylor et al., 2003).

The Chinese family is an ancient and complex institution, and Chinese children are taught to obey their parents and respect their elders (Tang et al., 1999; Yao, 1979). Chinese parents are well known for their desire to make sacrifices for their children, and Chinese students strive to meet their parents' demands and expectations. Chinese

students commonly obey authority and keep their parents' sacrifices in mind. Chinese children are thus expected to be totally obedient and subservient to their elders (Yao, 1979). However, Yi, Ribbens and Morgan (2010) found that the younger generation of Chinese are more individualistic and independent than the older generation. Due to the influence of Western popular culture, China's millennial youth exhibit fewer collectivist values, viewpoints and attitudes than their parents (Moore, 2005). Lu and Kao (2002) found that the younger Chinese population possesses both traditional and modern traits. When seeking jobs, younger Chinese may either be influenced by their parents' authority or act independently.

Education has always been considered a path to a better and higher social status. Chinese parents particularly consider education to be a path to achievement (Schneider & Lee, 1990; Yao, 1979). Thus, they discourage students from entering jobs if they are concerned about the related social prestige. For example, Wong and Liu (2010) found hotel and tourism students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation to be highly related to parental influence. Furthermore, the authors found „parental support of the H&T industry“, „parental concerns about welfare and prestige“ and „parental barriers to career choice“ to be the three most important factors predicting a student's intention to work in the hotel industry. In addition to Wong and Liu's (2010) study, which focused on the direct effect of parental influence on hotel and tourism students' career intentions in China, the current study explored how parental influence affect the career intentions of hospitality students via perceived hotel job image.

2.7 Career Intentions of Hospitality Degree Students in China

Perceived job image sends signals to the individuals in a society about a job's

characteristics and the social status and capability of employee incumbents (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986). Job images are particularly important for potential employees, as they influence employees' job-related expectations. It is thus necessary to understand career intentions and what influences the career intentions of hospitality students in mainland China.

Although a career is defined in many ways, it refers mainly to the job positions, roles, activities and experiences of an individual (Arnold, 1997). Career theory involves both sociological and psychological perspectives. Studies conducted from a sociological perspective focus on organisations, the characteristics of various occupations in a society and career-management philosophies and practices (Lips-Wiersma, 1999). The psychological perspective focuses on personal purpose, experience and job performance (Lips-Wiersma, 1999). This study examined the influence of individual modernity, parents and perceived hotel job image on students' career intentions in China. Therefore, this chapter reviews previous career studies conducted from a psychological perspective.

2.7.1 Career Intentions and Choices

Career intention is defined as „the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behavior“ (Warshaw & Davis, 1985, p. 214). According to Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of reasoned action (TRA), a series of action rationales are made in advance of a behavioural decision. The authors suggested that behavioural intention was formed wholly through two determinants: behavioural belief and the subjective norm. Behavioural belief refers to the attitude towards a type of behaviour and to accumulated beliefs in the possible

performance and consequences of that behaviour. The subjective norm (or subjective belief) relates to relevant individuals or groups' opinions of a certain type of behaviour. In addition to behavioural and subjective belief, variables such as personality or attitudes towards people or organisations that may affect intention are classified as external variables (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). These variables have an indirect effect on career intentions via belief. Thus, beliefs function as mediators between external variables and intention.

A career choice could refer to an action or an opinion of that choice, as it is a mental process resulting in the selection of one career from one or more available alternative careers (Brown et al., 1996). Career choice is based on the „true reasoning“ between the understanding of oneself and factual information about job requirements (Brown et al., 1996; Philips & Paziienza, 1988). This study did not focus on examining career choice theory or the decision making involved in choice behaviour. Rather, it investigated the causal relationships between career-related variables and the career intentions of hospitality degree students. Thus, only studies related to those intentions are reviewed in the following section.

2.7.2 Studies of the Career Intentions of Hospitality Degree Students

Studies conducted to understand the career behaviour of hospitality students have mainly adopted three main career theories: the person-environment fit, development and social cognitive theories (Patton & McMahon, 2006).

Holland (1968) developed person-environment fit theory following Frank Parson's (1909) „trait-factor“ theory. The theory assumes that each person's psychological traits

are restrained or developed according to his or her interactions with his or her environment. There are six categories of people that fit six corresponding professional environments: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional. During the career choice process, people look for an environment that fits their skills, abilities, attitudes and values. A career decision is made according to the interaction between one's personality and his or her environment (Holland, 1997). However, Holland's theory has been criticised for its inability to fully explain or predict the power of different populations (Tinsley, 2006; Tsabari, Tziner, & Meir, 2005). Furthermore, because many new occupations have emerged, such as those in China following industrialisation, it is hard to match personalities and professions based solely on limited typologies (Savickas, 2001).

Person-environment fit theory has been expanded to the hotel and tourism research field. For example, studies have been conducted to understand person-job, person-industry and person-organisation fit (Ross, 1994; Song & Chathoth, 2008; Song & Chon, 2011; Teng, 2008). Ross (1994) examined the intentions of 594 students in Australia by matching the students' attitudes towards jobs in the tourism and hospitality industry with their personal management needs (achievement, affiliation, autonomy and dominance). Achievement need was found to be the most important need affecting work attitudes and job adaption. Silva (2006) conducted a survey involving two American hotel chains. The study found that individuals exhibiting personality typologies such as conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability were more satisfied with hotel jobs and had fewer turnover intentions. Teng (2008) studied the career intentions of Taiwanese students majoring in hotel management by examining the effects of their personality traits. Four hundred and

eighty-three post-internship senior students participated in the survey. Although the trait of extroversion was found to be significantly related to the students' career aspirations, the relationship was mediated by the students' attitudes. For example, students with extroverted traits were more likely to adopt service-oriented attitudes, and were thus willing to enter the hotel industry. Attitudinal factors played a mediating role in the relationship between personal traits and career intentions (Berings et al., 2004; Teng, 2008).

In contrast to the person-environment fit theory, development theory considers individual career development by focusing on how people develop careers longitudinally. This shifts the attention from how individual personalities differ from one another and fit into various occupations to how individuals develop their own work roles (Super, 1953). The „life-span“ or „life-space“ model was formulated to describe the relationship between developmental tasks and career choices. Development theory emphasises that early childhood experiences and family influence both contribute to individual career development and lifelong choice behaviour. As such, individual career choice behaviour from childhood to adulthood is classified into the fantasy, tentative and realistic stages (Hartung & Leong, 2005). However, development theory has not been supported empirically, and the mediating and moderating variables in the career choice process have not been well addressed (Song & Chon, 2011).

Song and Chathoth (2011) conducted a study involving 336 hotel and tourism undergraduate students who had just completed placements in tourism enterprises with the aim of examining the mediating role of person-organisation fit in the relationship

between an individual's global self-esteem and career choice intentions. The results indicated that person-organisation fit fully mediated the effect of self-esteem on career intentions.

In addition to the environment and development perspectives, social cognitive theory (SCT) is a main research stream (Patton & McMahon, 2006). SCT states that an individual is actively able to observe, think, reflect on feelings and monitor the effect of his or her behaviour on the environment (Bandura, 1986). Thus, it proposes that interrelationships exist among behaviour, the environment and internal personal factors such as personal beliefs, thoughts, preferences, expectations and self-perceptions, all of which potentially cause and can be caused by one another (i.e., reciprocal determinism). SCT is different from other career development theories because it emphasises the dynamic interactive processes between behaviour, environment and individual factors (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Based on Bandura's general SCT, Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994) developed social cognitive career theory (SCCT), which proposes that career behaviour is a result of the interactions between self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goals. SCCT focuses on the individual's cognitive processes and their effect on career-related behaviour. For example, it attempts to explain why some people choose a particular career based on cognitive approaches.

Many tourism and hotel studies have applied SCCT to explain students' career choice behaviour. Several influential factors have been identified, including environmental determinants such as parental influence, internship experience and academic experience (Chuang & Jenkins, 2010; Song & Chathoth, 2008; Wong & Liu, 2010)

and individual factors such as self-efficacy, personality and work values (Song & Chon, 2011; Teng, 2008; Wong & Liu, 2009). In particular, SCCT suggests that career interest is formed when valued outcomes are forecasted. If negative or neutral outcomes are predicted, interest is hindered and people are not active in developing their career interests (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). In a study involving Australian undergraduates (Richardson, 2009), twenty factors such as enjoyableness, colleagues, working environment, stability and intellectual challenge were identified as important factors for choosing a future career. Students also anticipated that jobs in the tourism and hospitality industry would not offer these important factors and therefore showed little interest and intention to work in the industry. A poor or complex image of the hotel industry undoubtedly negatively affects the recruitment of qualified staff (Brien, 2004; Jenkins, 2001; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Riley et al., 2002). Nevertheless, no empirical studies have measured perceived hotel job image and its effect on students' career intentions.

2.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviews the context of the research, including the development of the hotel and tourism industry in China and the development of hotel and tourism education in China, to provide a broad background picture for the current study. Furthermore, it explores and discusses perceived job image theory and its antecedents and consequences. This chapter also reviews the social influences of the antecedents of perceived hotel job image from the social and family perspectives, and identifies individual modernity and parental influence as possible determinants of perceived hotel job image in China. Lastly, it explores the construct of the career intentions of hospitality students to generate the study's conceptual model.

Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework

3.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter introduces the study's conceptual framework and proposes its hypotheses. First, it discusses the study's conceptual framework and constructs. Second, it hypothesises the relationships between the constructs. Finally, a brief summary of the chapter is presented.

3.2 Research Models and Hypothesised Relationships between the Constructs

This study developed a measurement of perceived hotel job image and examined the relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and career intentions. A research model was accordingly proposed and tested. In the research model, seven hypotheses were proposed for examination.

As shown in Figure 3.1, a research model was established and related hypothesis were proposed to explore the moderating effect of perceived hotel job image on the relationships between individual modernity and career intentions and between parental influence and career intentions. The model also considered the direct effects of individual modernity, parental influence and perceived hotel job image on the career intentions of hospitality degree students. Seven hypotheses were proposed to indicate the relationships among the constructs. The following subsection describes the proposed hypotheses.

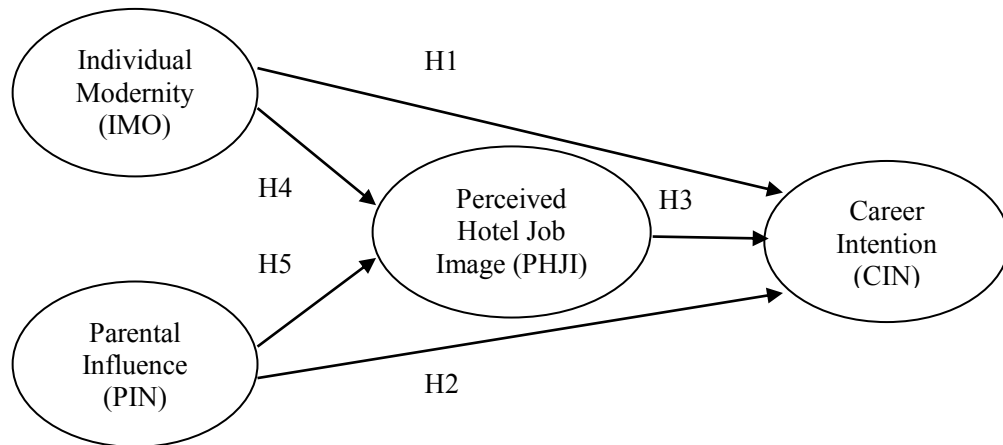


Figure 3.1 Conceptual Framework

3.2.1 Effect of Individual Modernity on Career Intentions

Many studies have explored the association between individual modernity and career intentions. Chinese college graduates with high modernity scores have been found to choose non-traditional careers or non-state sectors. Meanwhile, less-modern graduates prefer employment in the state sector and are the least likely to work in foreign enterprises (Du, 2005).

As the tourism industry in a national economy develops, hotel business emerges, matures and transforms from a diplomatic activity into an economic activity (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005). In such a context, individuals can perceive hotel jobs to be demeaning because they require serving others (Huyton & Sutton, 1996). For instance, Zhang and Lam (2004) found that traditional culture swayed one group of young hospitality graduates from working in hotels. Influenced by the „iron rice-bowl“, they were concerned about job security and preferred to work in state-owned rather than joint-venture companies. However, the rapid development and bright prospects of the hotel industry in China are attractive (Easen, 2012). The hotel industry is a major employer playing an important economic role. The modern characteristics of hotel jobs,

such as the dynamic and multinational work environment, promising industry context and atypical career paths they provide, are well recognised (Barron & Maxwell, 1993; Barron et al., 2007, Chan, Chan, & Qu, 2002; Lewis & Airey, 2001; Ross, 1994). Modernity could well motivate young graduates to join the hotel industry. Thus, hospitality students' hotel career intentions may differ depending on the extent to which they are individually influenced by modernity and tradition. It is reasonable to assume that both traditional culture and modern values affect an individual's job perception and intentions.

According to individual modernity theory, individuals with many modern attitudes are more likely to pursue newly emerging occupations and break with traditional perceptions. In contrast, less-modern individuals resist new environments (Inkeles, Brooded, & Cao, 1997; Inkeles & Smith, 1975). Hospitality students with many modern traits are influenced less by traditional values. For example, they may focus on the future development of an occupation instead of job security, and may thus pursue careers in the hotel industry. One's degree of individual modernity may be positively related to career intentions in the hotel industry. As such, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H1: Individual modernity is likely to have a positive effect on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

3.2.2 Effect of Parental Influence on Career Intentions

Parental influence is the most important influence on students' career choice behaviour (Mason & Kahle, 1998). It begins affecting children as early as age four years old

(Clark & Horan, 2001). Parents help to establish a value system for their children and expect them to adhere to it. Furthermore, students maintain a strong desire to imitate their parents, and are more likely to choose a profession suggested by their parents (Hairston, 2000).

The Chinese family is an ancient and complex institution in which children are taught to obey their parents and respect their elders. Chinese students commonly obey authority and keep their parents' sacrifices in mind. Parents thus play a critically important role in their children's career choices (Zhang & Carrasquillo, 1995). Chinese parents are particularly concerned about the welfare implications and prestige that jobs carry, and their children adopt these concerns when choosing their careers (Wong & Liu, 2010). Parents' values are transmitted to the next generation and affect their offspring's career interests and intentions (O'Mahony et al., 2001). Moreover, because Chinese students have implicit faith in their parents, parental encouragement or discouragement can have a significant effect on students' intentions to work in the hospitality industry (Wong & Liu, 2010).

It is thus reasonable to assume that parental influence affects students' intentions to work in the hotel industry. When students gain support from their parents for achieving their career goals in the industry, they may choose to work in it. When parents discourage their children from working in the industry, students may hesitate avoid it.

Wong and Liu (2010) used multiple regression analysis to examine the effect of parental influence on students' intentions to work in the hotel and tourism industry. Their results showed that three dimensions of the parental influence construct (parental

support, parental barriers and parental concerns about job welfare and prestige) explained only 25.2% of the variance in student intention. One aim of the current study was to verify whether this association was significant in a structural model. Thus, it further tested the relationship between parental influence and hospitality students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

H2: Parental influence is likely to have a positive effect on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

3.2.3 Effect of Perceived Hotel Job Image on Career Intentions

Perceived job image is an important variable that influences a person's job-related attitudes (Krau & Ziv, 1990). For example, it has a positively associated with job satisfaction and OCB, and also affects an employee's decision about whether to remain in a profession (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Jasovsky, 2001; Krau & Ziv, 1990; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000; Tzeng, 2006; Wotruba, 1990). Moreover, other studies have pointed out that perceived hotel job image is likely to affect the recruitment of qualified employees (Brien, 2004; Jenkins, 2001; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Riley et al., 2002). In other words, students who have positive perceptions of the hotel job image will want to enter the hotel industry after graduation. Nevertheless, the application of such a hypothesis to the hotel industry is yet to be examined empirically. This study thus tested the relationships between perceived hotel job image and students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation.

H3: Perceived hotel job image is likely to have a positive effect on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

3.2.4 Effect of Individual Modernity on Perceived Hotel Job Image

Individual modernity affects both individual value systems and behavioural patterns in the context of societal modernisation (Smith & Inkeles, 1966; Yang, 2003). People with modern traits perform differently than those with traditional traits. For example, more modern individuals are more open to accepting new ideas, new lifestyles and non-traditional occupations (Du, 2005; Inkeles & Smith, 1975; Smith & Inkeles, 1966).

In China, the hotel industry recently emerged alongside social changes (Zhang, Pine, & Lam, 2005), and hotel jobs became more prevalent. It is reasonable to think that the degree of an individual's modernity and traditionality would thus affect his or her attitudes towards hotel jobs. Although few studies have directly examined the relationship between these two concepts, many scholars have mentioned the effect of individual modernity on an individual's attitudes and behaviour (Du, 2005; Inkeles & Smith, 1975; Smith & Inkeles, 1966; Yang, 2003). Du (2005), for instance, found that Chinese college students' attitudes towards traditional occupations and their career intentions were influenced by the extent to which they embraced modernity.

A perceived job image involves „an ideology or shared belief in the meaning of an individual's occupational membership and social status, capability and behavioural patterns" (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986, p. 662). The attitudes, values and behaviour that an individual acquires contribute to how the individual perceives a particular job image (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Birnbaum & Somers, 1989; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). Studies have found that an individual's attitude towards hotel jobs is influenced

by his or her traditional cultural values and social environment (Chan, Chan, & Qu, 2002; Huyton & Sutton, 1996; Kim et al., 2007; Zhang & Lam 2004). Individual modernity indicates how many traditional traits an individual keeps or how many modern traits the individual acquires when he or she lives in a modern society (Smith & Inkeles, 1966). Individual modernity may affect an individual's value system, which influences his or her attitude towards a particular job image.

Furthermore, hotel job characteristics may match an individual's modern traits. Individuals with modern traits perform at a high level of efficacy and confidence in managing the future (Du, 2005; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997) and prefer to work far away from their hometowns and experience diversified cultures in new environments. Jenkins (2001) suggested that the global nature of the hotel industry requires its employees to be internationally oriented and flexible in geographical locations. People with many modern attitudes may identify with the modern features of hotel jobs and have positive perceptions of the hotel job image. More importantly, the rapid growth and bright future of the hotel industry in China may attract potential employees who are oriented towards the future development of the hotel industry (Easen, 2012).

One's degree of individual modernity is thus likely to be positively related to his or her perception of the hotel job image in China. In other words, hospitality students with more modern traits have more positive perceptions of the hotel job image. The following hypothesis is based on the foregoing inference.

H4: Individual modernity is likely to have a positive effect on perceived hotel job image.

3.2.5 Effect of Parental Influence on Perceived Hotel Job Image

A family operates as a system or unit in which patterns of interactions evolve and relational aspects significantly influence the value and behaviour of individuals (Carr, 2000). Parental influence within the family system subsequently plays a significant role in determining children's attitudes and behaviour. In other words, parents instil their values and beliefs in their children and it is thus reasonable to infer that an individual's attitudes towards a particular job image are influenced by his or her parents.

Chinese parents' expectations of their children's career development is particularly important in influencing students' career-related attitudes (Hou & Leung, 2011). For example, when parents are significantly concerned about the welfare and prestige that certain jobs may bring to their children, the children consider job prestige, welfare and development when planning their future careers (Wong & Liu, 2010). Chinese students' attitudes towards a particular occupation in terms of its nature, social status and career development are thus influenced by their parents' support or involvement (Stambler, 1998; Yao, 1979).

Parental influence is likely to influence students' image perceptions of hotel jobs. That is, positive parental influence related to perceived hotel job image encourages students' positive evaluations of hotel industry occupations. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H5: Parental influence is likely to have a positive effect on perceived hotel job

image.

3.2.6 Mediating Effect of Perceived Hotel Job Image on Individual Modernity and Career Intentions

Hair et al. (2009) suggested that a mediator is established when a third construct influences the relationship between two other constructs, and that this intervening process is the mediating effect. Although a direct association may exist between individual modernity and career intentions, a mediating effect of perceived hotel job image may also be present. From a theoretical perspective, the mediator helps to explain how one construct influences another.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) identified the attitudes towards a type of behaviour as a direct determinant of an individual's behavioural intention. They assumed that other factors including demographic variables, environmental variables and personality traits were external variables that indirectly affecting intentions. These external variables explain behavioural intention through the attitude variables.

In this case, perceived job image, which refers to an individual's beliefs about a job's characteristics, affects career-related intentions (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Jasovsky, 2001; Krau & Ziv, 1990; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000; Tzeng, 2006; Wotruba, 1990). Thus, other external factors may indirectly affect career intentions via perceived job image. Individual modernity, measured as the degree of an individual's modern and traditional traits, can be classified as an external factor that affects an individual's intention by influencing his or her perception of a job image.

Individual modernity and students' career intentions have a causal association, whereby individual modernity influences perceived hotel job image, and perceived hotel job image affects students' career intentions in turn. Whether an individual's modern traits translate into career intentions may depend on the individual's perceptions of the nature of the hotel job or his or her future career path. Hence, perceived hotel job image may play a mediating role.

H6. Perceived hotel job image is likely to have a mediating effect between individual modernity and career intentions.

3.2.7 Mediating Effect of Perceived Hotel Job Image on Parental Influence and Career Intentions

Perceived hotel job image may mediate the relationship between parental influence and students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation.

Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of planned behaviour suggested that an individual's attitudes towards people and organisations may indirectly affect his or her intentions, mediated by their own behavioural attitudes. Thus, how individuals perceive their parents' influence may indirectly affect their intentions.

How students translate their parents' influence into their own career intentions may depend on how they perceive the hotel job image. Students who receive encouragement and support from their parents when pursuing careers in the hotel industry may have a positive perception of the hotel job image. Individuals with a positive perceived job image are likely to opt for the associated job (Birnbbaum &

Somers, 1986; Jasovsky, 2001; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000; Wotruba, 1990). However, studies have not thoroughly explored the way that parental influence affects their children's perceived hotel job images and career intentions. Therefore, perceived hotel job image may play a mediating role and influence the relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions. Thus, the following hypothesis is made.

H7. Perceived hotel job image is likely to have a mediating effect on the relationship between parental influence and career intentions.

3.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter proposes a research model for testing and understanding the structural relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and career intentions. It develops seven hypotheses based on the research model. The following chapter discusses the research methodology, and focuses on generating items and testing the structural relationships.

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

4.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter describes the study's overall research design, research methodology, pilot test data-collection and main survey procedures. It introduces a schematic view of the research process. It describes some of the key issues, including the units of analysis, sampling design, measurements and data-collection plan. Finally, it discusses the data analysis techniques.

4.2 Research Design

The purpose of this study was to investigate the image of hotel jobs as perceived by hospitality degree students in China, and to probe the relationships between the constructs of individual modernity, parental influence, the perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions. A mixed approach involving qualitative and quantitative methods was implemented to pursue a deeper understanding of the hotel job image as perceived by students. Figure 4.1 exhibits a schematic diagram of the research process following the format used by Babbie (2007). The research process began by considering that students were unwilling or reluctant to enter hotel occupations in China, probably due to their association with the public's perceived image of hotel jobs. Through a thorough review of the related literature, a theoretical research framework was subsequently developed.

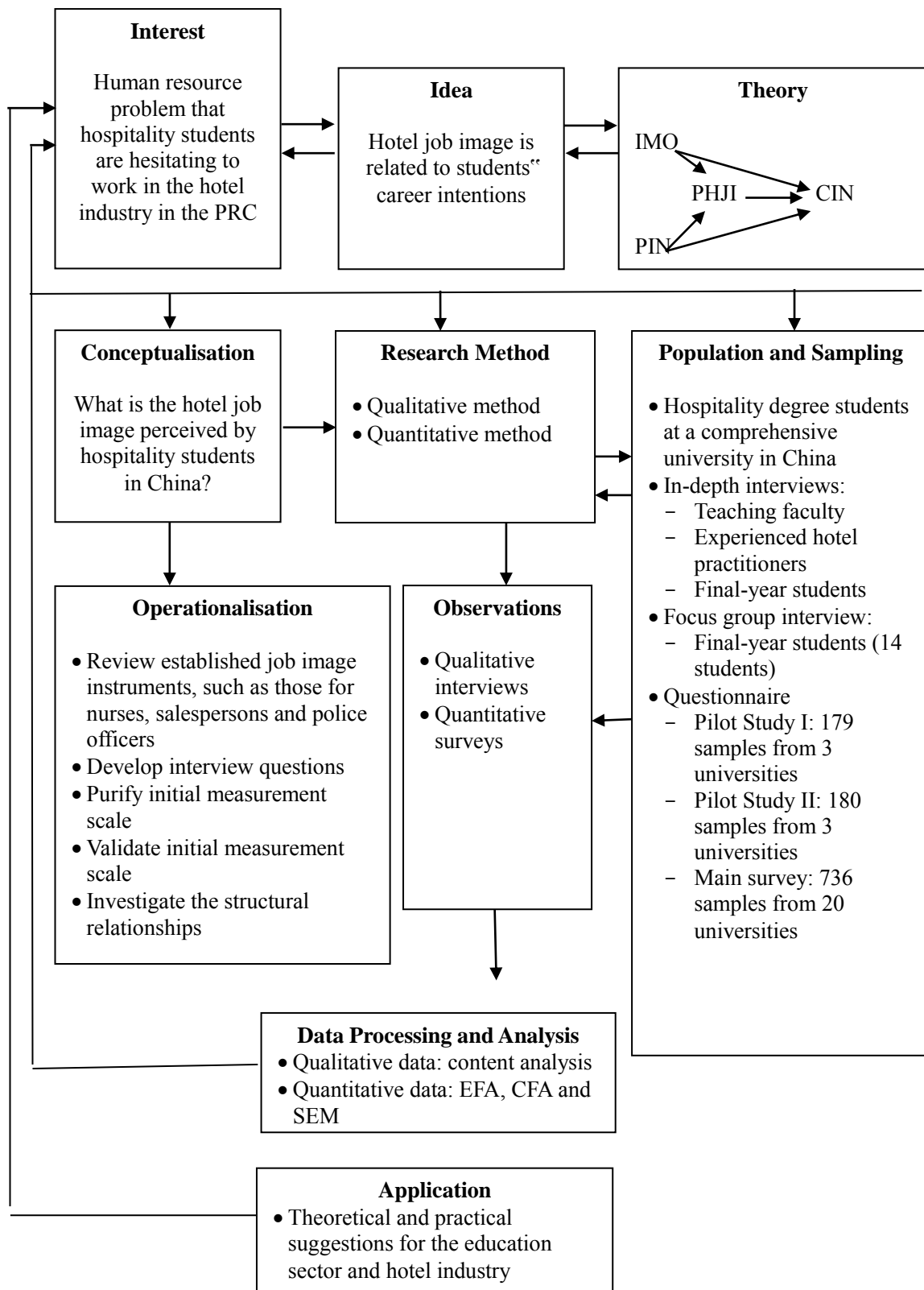


Figure 4.1 Schematic View of the Research Process (Adopted from Babbie, 2007)

The main unit of analysis in this study comprised hospitality degree students in their

final year at comprehensive universities in China. The target population included all of the students in hotel, tourism and MICE streams at the universities. The students from these different hospitality streams were combined for the following three reasons.

First and foremost, in some of the comprehensive universities selected for this study, the designation of hotel programmes was not distinctively separated from tourism management, making it impossible to isolate hotel management studies from tourism management studies. Tourism higher education began with the development of the tourism industry and experienced a development pattern of quantity expansion in the 1990s (Du, 2003; Zhang & Fan, 2005). Many universities restructured their programmes to meet the regional development of the tourism and hotel industry. Hotel education is either a sub-branch programme of the tourism school or integrated into tourism programmes without a separate designation.

For example, the Tourism Management programme at Zhejiang University is run by the School of Management. All of the graduates are awarded Bachelor of Science in Management degrees, including graduates with a specialisation in tourism management. Because tourism students are supposed to „work at managerial positions in government, tourism enterprises, and tourism research institutes and education organizations“, they take part in compulsory courses such as „Introduction to Hotel Management, Hotel Business Management, and Leisure Management“ (Zhejiang University, 2010). This provided justification for combining the student samples from different tourism school streams in China.

Second, although distinctions between various programmes have been upheld in some

universities, students' perceptions of the hotel job image, which is a shared belief related to job attributes and characteristics (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986), were probably unrelated to the specific programme examined by this study. On the contrary, because hospitality and tourism programmes had some subjects in common, the similarities might have contributed to a common perception of the hotel job image.

Third, given that the hotel industry is a major employer of tourism and hospitality graduates, it was considered appropriate to include tourism stream students in the sample. As Gu, Kavanaugh and Cong (2007) reported, approximately 53.7% of the graduates at 200 surveyed educational tourism institutions in China preferred to work in hotels, and 26.9% opted to work in travel services. If such graduate had been excluded from the current survey, the true population of potential hotel employees might not have been well represented.

Thus, for the foregoing reasons, hospitality students including tourism students were selected to participate in the survey for the current study. Final-year hospitality degree students were invited to participate in the survey. The data-collection process was designed for completion at a single point in time.

4.3 Research Methodology

To address the aforementioned research issues, this study adopted both qualitative and quantitative methods with an emphasis on quantitative techniques. The qualitative approach was used to develop initial instruments for the perceived hotel job image, and the quantitative approach was adopted to validate the instruments and explore the causal relationships among the constructs.

The qualitative approach served as the primary premise and helped to develop the construct of perceived hotel job image. Any opinions and advice obtained from the interviews were treated as important and valuable data. A triangulation approach was adopted to select the information sources, which might have limited the informants' personal biases and enhanced the generalisability of the study (Decrop, 1999). A content analysis technique was subsequently used to interpret the qualitative data.

A quantitative approach was also adopted in this study. Pilot Test I was designed to purify the initial items of perceived hotel job image that were generated in the qualitative study. EFA was adopted in this test to purify the initial items and discover the latent dimensions. Pilot Test II was conducted for three reasons: (1) to cross-validate the instruments of perceived hotel job image using a fresh sample, (2) to assess the reliability of the survey instruments of the other constructs (individual modernity, parental influence and career intentions) and (3) to finalise the questions and format of the main survey. Both confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and EFA were conducted to meet the study's aims in Pilot Test II. Finally, a quantitative approach was adopted for the main survey. Three major statistical techniques were used to analyse the main survey data: EFA and CFA and a structural equation model (SEM).

4.4 Instruments Adopted in the Study

Of the four constructs examined in the study, the instruments measuring individual modernity, parental influence and career intention were adopted from previous studies (Du, 2005; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Teng, 2008; Wong & Liu, 2010). The construct of individual modernity is a popular research focus that emerged in the

Western academic community in the 1960s-1970s (Hwang, 2003). A set of universal instruments was designed to measure an individual's attitudes, value and behaviour in different cultural communities (Smith & Inkeles, 1966). Studies of individual modernity in Chinese society began in Taiwan in the 1980s (Yang, 1988) and in mainland China in the 1990s (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994). Empirical studies have recently been conducted in the areas of education and social science (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Du, 2005; Du, 2007; Zhang, Zheng, & Wang, 2003). Du's (2005) instrument was adopted for two reasons. First, the instrument was developed based on the studies of Taiwan scholars conducted in the Chinese context. Second, it was validated in a study of the relationship between the degrees of modernity and the career aspirations of Chinese students. However, adopting the newly developed instrument in a different research context might have presented limitations. The instrument was further examined in a pre-test and a pilot study to determine its validity and reliability.

As Du's (2005) instruments were developed in the Chinese language and this study was conducted in the Chinese context, Chinese-language-speaking students and researchers were invited to participate in the pre-survey. One hospitality degree student at Sun Yat-sen University and five research colleagues in hotel and tourism programmes at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University commented on the individual modernity statements. All of these individuals grew up or did their undergraduate studies in a Chinese context. They suggested that the statement „family network/connection is the key factor contributing to success (reversed question)“ might have confused respondents due to the recent spread across Chinese society of a highly debatable topic related to the „wealthy second generation“. Members of the wealthy

second generation were born in wealthy families and their success came easier due to the help they received from their families and their extensive connections (China Daily, 2010). The original statement would not have accurately reflected the degree of modernity if some respondents confused it with the „family network is the key factor for the wealthy second generation“ statement. The statement was ultimately kept for testing in the pilot test for possible later deletion based on the pilot study results.

The instruments were also evaluated in terms of clarity and readability, and some of the wording was revised slightly. For example, the statement „the more education, the better life“ was revised to „I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have“ to make it clearer for the student respondents. The key wording was also printed in bold type in the survey in line with comments collected during the pre-test. The study adopted individual modernity measurements (as indicated in Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Items Measuring Individual Modernity (Adopted from Du, 2005)

Variables for Individual Modernity
1. I think fortune and fate are the key factors contributing to success.
2. I think family network/connection is the key factor contributing to personal success.
3. Although I have already had a better life, I need to earn money to provide a much better life for my family and myself.
4. I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have.
5. I think family background is the key factor for gaining the respect of others.
6. I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others.
7. I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends.
8. I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there.
9. I would better understand foreigners“ ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country.
10. I think our society has changed a lot.
11. I think the changes made to our society have been positive.
12. I think poor people“s opportunities to change their economic status have increased.

Measurements of parental influence were also adopted from a previous study conducted in China. The previous instruments were developed for hotel and tourism students to examine parental influence on students' career intentions. Parental influence has been proved to be significantly associated with students' career intentions to work in the hotel and tourism industry (Wong & Liu, 2010). This study adopted these instruments to further verify the instruments among hospitality students. The structural relationships between parental influence, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions to obtain employment in the hotel industry were also examined.

As the original instruments were developed to understand how parental influence affected students' intentions to obtain hotel and tourism employment, and hotels comprise one sector under the tourism industry umbrella in China, the wording „hotel and tourism“ was revised to „hotel“ in the current study, e.g., „I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold“. Table 4.2 shows the survey items adopted from Wong and Liu's (2010) study. The revised items were tested in a pilot test to determine their reliability and validity.

Table 4.2 Items Measuring Parental Influence (Adopted from Wong & Liu, 2010)

Variables for Parental Influence
1. I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold.
2. I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry.
3. I think my parents believe I can be successful working in the hotel industry.
4. I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning.
5. My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me.
6. I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers.

Variables for Parental Influence

7. I think my parents can refer me to work in the hotel industry.
8. My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training.
9. My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career.
10. My parents would prefer that I select a job with a group of highly qualified colleagues.
11. My parents encourage me to work for a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills.
12. My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in.
13. I think my parents will let me choose my own career.
14. My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities.
15. I will never take a job with a heavy workload that causes my parents to worry about me.
16. I will never take a shift duty job that causes my parents to worry about me.
17. I will consider location when selecting a job because my parents do not want me to stay far away from them.
18. I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older.
19. I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends.
20. My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career.
21. I consider my parents' opinions when making my career choices.
22. I think my parents' work values will influence mine.

The measurements for the career intentions construct were adopted from Teng (2008) and revised for the current study. The original four-item scale was designed in reference to previous hospitality research (Getz, 1994; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Ross, 1994) and empirically validated in a study conducted in the Chinese context, with a reliability coefficient greater than 0.7 (Teng, 2008).

Teng's (2008) study was conducted to understand hospitality students' intentions to obtain hospitality employment. The definition of hospitality is too broad in scope,

including hotel, restaurants, travel, casino attractions and other types of institutions that provide services to people away from home (Barrows & Powers, 2009). As such, the current study revised the word „hospitality“ to „hotel“ to reflect the respondents’ intentions to obtain employment in the hotel industry in China. For example, the scale statement „I would like to work in the hospitality industry“ was revised to „I would like to work in the hotel industry“. The measurement items are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Items Measuring Career Intentions (Adopted from Teng, 2008)

Variables for Career Intentions
1. I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation.
2. I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry.
3. I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives.
4. It would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path.

Because the instruments of the preceding three constructs have been studied in previous research and found to be valid and reliable, the current study conducted no further qualitative research. However, Pilot Study II and the main survey empirically examined the instruments of the three constructs.

4.5 Developing an Instrument for Perceived Hotel Job Image in China

The initial instruments for perceived job image in China’s hotel industry were developed and tested in Pilot Tests I and II. Section 4.5.1 describes the research design of the exploratory study. It then explains the initial instrument development procedures, and specifies the perceived hotel job image domains and initial item generation and purification processes. Section 4.5.2 presents the procedures and results of Pilot Test I.

Finally, Section 4.5.3 presents the procedures and results of Pilot Test II.

The construct of perceived hotel job image was a critically important construct for the research design. The perceived hotel job image measurements were developed and studied in relation to the occupations of nurse, salesperson and police officer. Thus, these scales were not fully applicable to hotel jobs. Measurement scales for perceived job image of the hotel industry in China have never been developed and tested empirically. This study explored and aimed to develop reliable measurements for perceived job image of the hotel industry in China. A qualitative research method was implemented to pursue an understanding of the hotel job image as perceived by students. Both in-depth and focus group interviews were conducted among students, hotel teaching faculty members and experienced hotel practitioners. The collected data were consolidated and analysed. The initial items developed in the qualitative study were tested in Pilot Test I. Internal reliability and construct validity were tested via EFA, through which the initial instruments of the perceived hotel job image were purified and generated.

4.5.1 Scale Development for Perceived Hotel Job Image

The survey instrument was developed following the phases suggested by Churchill (1979), including five major steps: (1) specifying the domain of the construct while referring to the related literature, (2) developing initial items via in-depth interviews with hotel academic faculties and experienced industry practitioners and via focus group interviews with hospitality degree students while considering and referring to the related literature, (3) purifying measurements via two pilot tests, (4) collecting data via a main survey and (5) assessing the validity and reliability of the proposed

measurements. Figure 4.2 shows the instrument development procedures.

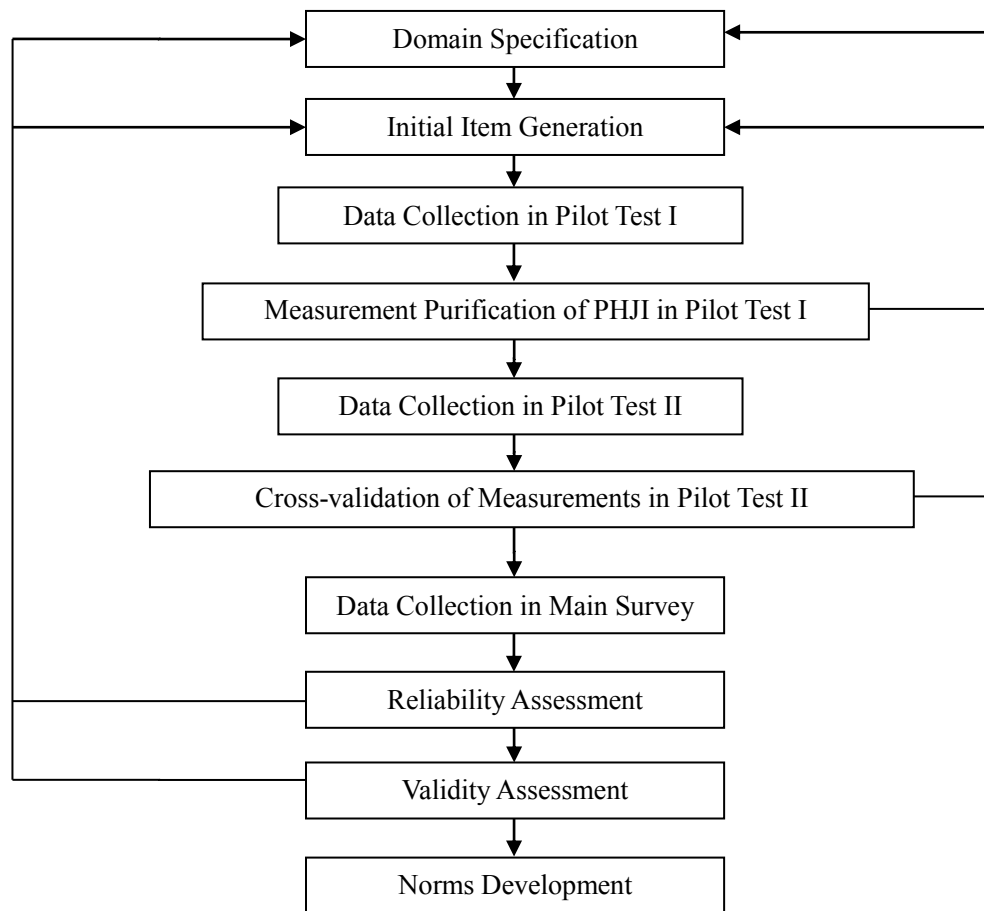


Figure 4.2 Instrument Development Procedures (Adopted from Churchill, 1979)

4.5.1.1 Specifying Domains

The domain of a construct should be specified to determine the definition (Churchill, 1979). Studies of perceived job image have largely concentrated on the occupations of nurse, salesperson and police officer. Although it shares similar characteristics with these three service occupations, little attention has been paid to hotel job image. The related job image measurements vary enormously, both within one occupation and between the three occupations. For example, the nursing job image has been measured according to task- and value-based scales. The scales used to measure salesperson jobs were derived from studies of occupational socioeconomic status and consumer

attitudes towards salespersons, and the measurements related to police officers have combined the research results of the other two occupations. During its exploratory phase, this study referenced the measurements of the police officer job image because it involved a combination of both the nursing and salesperson occupations and was validated in a recent empirical study. Four domains of the perceived hotel job image construct were identified: prestige, integrity, competence and non-routine job nature. Meanwhile, to explore the perceptions of the hotel job image extensively, the nursing job measurement scales were also considered. Two general questions were converted from the nursing job image literature and included in the semi-structured questions of the qualitative interview, such as „the task and value of taking a hotel job“.

4.5.1.2 Generating the Initial Items for Perceived Hotel Job Image

Churchill (1979) suggested that a valid and reliable measurement can ensure a good empirical study. The initial measurement items for perceived hotel job image were generated in two phases: a literature review and qualitative interviews (Selltiz et al., 1976).

4.5.1.2.1 Items Generated from the Literature Review

This study is the first to focus on perceived hotel job image. No study has exactly described such an image. Moreover, most of the research has been based only on observation rather than empirical study. The original definition of perceived job image is considered a key concept in developing measurements such as „shared beliefs about the meaning of occupational membership with regard to the social status, capability, and behavior patterns of individual members“ (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986, p. 662). Through a comprehensive review of the studies related to the nature of hotel jobs and

hotel employees' attitudes towards those jobs, a list of initial items including hotel job status, staff capability and staff perceptions was generated, as introduced in Section 2.4.4. When developing the initial instruments for measuring the perceived hotel job image in China, those variables were referred to and compared with the results of the qualitative study. The items in Table 2.8, which presents the characteristics of hotel jobs, were referred to when developing the initial instruments.

4.5.1.2.2 Items Generated from the Qualitative Study

The second stage of the measurement item development was completed by conducting qualitative interviews with relevant parties, including (1) final-year hospitality students, (2) hotel and tourism school faculty members and (3) experienced hotel practitioners.

The qualitative data served primarily as a premise and helped in developing the perceived hotel job image scales. Thus, any opinions and advice obtained from the conversations were well treated. According to the study's objectives and previous research results, interview questions were developed and commented on by other researchers. The final version of the semi-structured interview survey included two sections: open-ended questions that explored the perceived hotel job image, and questions to build up the respondents' demographic profiles. The interview questions were designed in three versions for experienced hotel practitioners, teaching faculty members and students, respectively. (see Appendices 1-3, respectively).

Focus groups and in-depth interviews were conducted with final-year hospitality degree students at Sun Yat-sen University in December 2011. Five focus-group

interviews and two in-depth interviews were held with final-year students of the Department of Hotel and Club Management at Sun Yat-sen University in Guangzhou, China. For the purpose of triangulation, in-depth interviews were conducted with both experienced hotel practitioners and faculty members from hotel and tourism schools. As they had the advantage of directly interacting with students via the recruiting and teaching processes, their opinions were valued and taken as contributions. Six experienced hotel practitioners participated in the in-depth interviews in Shenzhen, China. Four teaching faculties from Sun Yat-sen University and one lecturer from the Hong Kong Polytechnic University also participated in the in-depth interviews. The profiles of those who responded during the qualitative data-collection process are attached in Appendices 4-6. The sample sizes were determined via theoretical saturation, as Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggested that no additional interviews be conducted if no significantly new insights could be found. The informants' information was related to three main themes, including „hotel job“, „hotel people“ and „hotel ownership“. Moreover, the sampling process was stopped because the informants' information could be linked with previous studies of job advantages, non-routine job nature, prestige and other factors. The interview conversations were fully recorded for further analysis.

As there was not enough previous knowledge about perceived hotel job image, an inductive content analysis approach was adopted (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). First, the data were read through repeatedly to achieve full immersion. When reading the texts, notes and headings such as „task“ and „career path“ were written to establish an open coding. The headings were then compared and those with similar meanings were combined and classified under higher-order headings such as „hotel job“ and „hotel

people“. Finally, a conceptual framework (see Figure 4.3) was formulated to describe the relationships between all of the themes and subthemes.

Another researcher was invited to crosscheck the data and results. He agreed with the manner in which the data were categorised and classified.

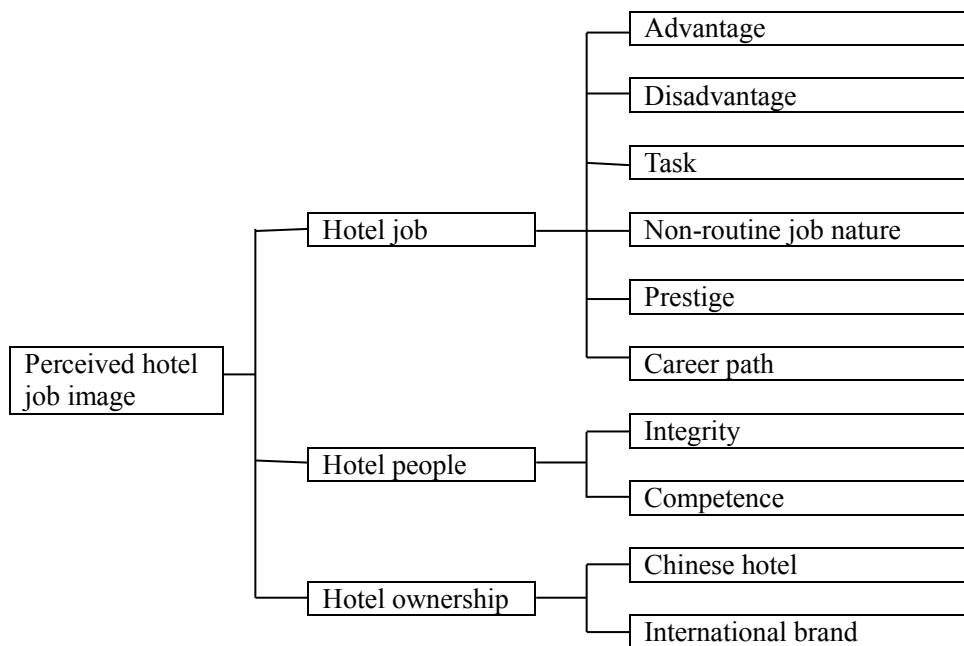


Figure 4.3 Categories Identified in the Qualitative Data

During the interviews, the students were asked to talk about their understanding of the tasks and duties associated with hotel jobs. The interviewees’ descriptions were not limited to the physical task of „serving or cleaning“, but related to the task of customer satisfaction, which reflected the typical hotel job characteristic of dealing with customers (Go et al., 1996; Jafari et al., 1990; Page et al., 2001). For example, one of the interviewees noted the following:

... To provide help to customers, such as making beds, delivering food, or

any other information our guests requested. And our job is to complete the job duty by satisfying our guests...

In terms of the task, some interviewees naturally talked about the non-routine job nature of the hotel industry, revealed in statements and questions such as „I have to work weekends“, „I cannot join family gatherings on Sunday“ and „If I got married and gave birth to a baby in the near future, how could I take care for the baby at night if I were on night shift?“. Meanwhile, interviewees from both the industry and academic faculties agreed that „unsocial working hours“ were part of the non-routine nature of hotel jobs and were thus widely perceived among the students. Other studies have also reported the perception of irregular working hours (Aksu & Koksall, 2005; Broadbridge & Swanson, 2006).

The salary and social status of hotel jobs were a repeated concern of the students, faculty members and industry practitioners. For example, one of the academic interviewees pointed out the following:

... I think that salary is very important for how the public and hospitality students evaluate hotel jobs. Supposing the salary of a hotel job is increased from RMB2,000 to RMB5,000 per month, students would compete to accept a hotel job offer, and the hotel industry would attract the most outstanding candidates. Accordingly, the social status of hotel employees would be increased, and families would also support students to work in a hotel...

The industry practitioners also recognised that the salaries of entry-level staff were comparatively low. They suggested that the salaries and social status associated with hotel jobs influenced the public's perception of the hotel job image. A general manager with more than 20 years of hotel work experience related the following:

...When I first worked in a hotel as a waitress in the business centre, about 20 years ago in Tianjin, China, I worked in an international brand hotel, which was the first foreign invested hotel in Tianjin at the time. All of my classmates were jealous of my job, even though they had been teachers or doctors, because I could work in a glamorous environment with air conditioning and talk to foreigners. The social status of a hotel job was higher than that of other occupations. However, hotel jobs are now very common and have a middle or low social status in China...

The students were mainly concerned with their career paths. When they talked about perceived hotel job image, most of them related characteristics such as how to start careers in the hotel industry, how to be promoted and how to develop their occupations in the future. They believed work experience to be more important than education, and considered working in a frontline position as the usual path in the hotel industry. Furthermore, they considered management trainee positions in the hotel industry a good starting point for their career paths. For instance, one student interviewee mentioned the following:

...I found a job in a hotel as a management trainee. They promised that I could rotate my job in F&B, rooms division and other departments in two years, and then I could be promoted to manager. Such a career path is different from those of other occupations, and it reflects the characteristics of a hotel job...

Table 4.4 summarises the results of the qualitative study. The interviews generated a list of 10 categories with 62 statements.

To explore the factors influencing students' intentions to join the hotel industry after

graduation, three probing questions were asked: „What factors will motivate you to join the hotel industry after graduation?“, „What factors will discourage you to join the hotel industry after graduation?“ and „Are there other opinions affecting your decision to join the hotel industry after graduation?“. In general, two major factors were identified: job-related and non-job-related factors. In terms of job-related factors, the interviewees' descriptions related mainly to „job task“, „job nature“, „prestige“, „career path“, „integrity“ and „competence“. The job-related factors were thus very similar to the job image categories. Meanwhile, the non-job-related factors were categorised into three sub-themes: (1) personal career interest, (2) family influence and (3) social-cultural influence.

First, personal career interest was a non-job-related factor influencing students' intentions to join the hotel industry. Some respondents reported having no intention to work at a hotel after graduation because they had no interest in finding a job in the service industry. One student interviewee offered the following explanation:

...I have no interest in a hospitality career. The Tourism School was not my first option in Gaokao (the National University Entry Exam). I entered Tourism School and gave up my favorite major as I wanted to study at this prestigious university. As my score in the National University Entry Exam was slightly lower than the entry-level requirement of the School of Medicine, I had to make a decision. With my slightly lower score, I had another chance to select my major and university. I could enter another non-prestigious university but study medicine as my major, or study a less competitive major at this prestigious university. However, rather than select this less competitive major, it was assigned to me. Finally, I decided to enter this prestigious university and was assigned to study in the Tourism School. I have no interest in a hospitality career even though I have a degree in hospitality management. I plan to find a

job outside the hospitality industry after graduation...

Some of the students had to sacrifice their own interests when selecting their majors. These students will face a dilemma when finding jobs after graduation and may instead pursue their own career preferences. Thus, low intentions to join the hotel industry were observed among the students.

Second, the students mentioned the influences of their parents, peers and relatives. The Chinese family is an ancient and complex institution, and Chinese children are taught to obey their parents and respect their elders (Zhang & Carrasquillo, 1995). In China, education has always been considered a ladder leading to a better and higher social status. Chinese parents in particular see education as a path to achievement (Schneider & Lee, 1990; Yao, 1979). Therefore, they discourage students from taking jobs if they are concerned about the associated benefits. Wong and Liu (2010) found that the Chinese parental focus on job welfare and prestige was a significant factor predicting students' intentions to work in hotels. For example, one informant from the hotel industry stated:

...Most of our staff members are from the younger generation, born in the 1980s and 1990s under the One Child Policy. They are the only kids in their families, so their parents have given them the best resources and have high expectations for their future careers. Parents may hesitate to support their only kids working in hotels...

The students also mentioned the influences of their relatives and peers on their career intentions. For instance, one student stated, *„If I worked as an entry-level employee in a hotel, I would not have the power to benefit my relatives. They may look down on my*

job'. Another student stated, *„I would not be admired by my friends or relatives if I worked as an entry-level employee in a hotel after graduation. It would be embarrassing if the guests I served were my friends or relatives’*.

Third, an individual’s career intentions are subject to social-cultural influences. The legacy of the Cultural Revolution has created an environment in which „service is demeaning to others“ (Huyton & Sutton, 1996). Due to this traditional value, many people have low perceptions of the prestige associated with hotel jobs, which influences their career intentions. For instance, one informant from the hotel industry observed the following:

...It is undeniable that students’ career intentions are still influenced by our traditional Chinese values. Serving others is believed to be an inferior or demeaning practice...

Unlike Japan and Great Britain, China does not have a long history of service-class people (Inkeles & Rossi, 1956). Cultural values play a critical role for individuals in forming their perceptions of the hotel job image and career intentions.

Table 4.4 Summary of the Perceived Hotel Job Image Generated from the Qualitative Interviews

Prestige
1. Serving others is demeaning.
2. Hotel jobs have a low social status, and the public does not respect hotel staff members.
3. My family does not support me in working at hotels.
4. I would be very respected if were a hotel manager.
5. Others look down on me because hotel jobs are not respected.
6. Guests do not recognise my work.
7. Guests do not respect my work and service.
8. Some people relate hotel jobs to prostitution.
9. The benefits and salary of a hotel job are not as competitive as those in other industries.
Integrity

-
1. Hotel staff members are hardworking.
 2. Hotel staff members are very polite and courteous.
 3. A hotel staff member's outer appearance and inner reality sometimes differ. For example, some staff members smile at guests only to slander or disrespect them later.
 4. Hotel staff members are very amiable and patient.
 5. Hotel staff members are very nice and helpful.
-

Competence

1. Hotel staff members are good at communication.
 2. Hotel jobs do not demand difficult skills.
 3. It is very easy to master jobs such as delivering food, cleaning rooms and operating laundry machines.
 4. I can learn any hotel job in a short time.
 5. Staff members speak English well.
 6. Some positions involve a great deal of skill, such as bartender and chef.
-

Non-routine job nature

1. Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.
 2. A hotel is like a mini society in that it entertains guests from any walk of life or class and I can work with various colleagues, waiters, bartenders, managers and foreigners.
 3. Hotel staff members have to work night shifts.
 4. I am interested in jobs that allow me to communicate with people.
 5. I can save money working at a hotel because it provides food and lodging for staff.
 6. Hotel staff members wear neat, standard and professional uniforms.
-

Task

1. The only hotel job is to serve guests.
 2. I help guests solve problems.
 3. I try to answer any questions asked by guests.
 4. Hotel jobs are physically repetitive.
 5. I work at a hotel to gain work value by providing help to guests.
 6. I serve guests to honour them.
-

International brand hotel

1. International hotels have a very good organisation culture.
 2. I am experiencing the management philosophy of an international company.
 3. I can work abroad if I work for an international hotel group.
-

Characteristics of China hotel jobs

1. State-owned and budget hotels provide very low salaries.
 2. The hotel industry is very promising in China.
 3. The hotel industry is not well developed in China, especially in some small cities that have no high-level international hotels.
-

Students' views of career paths in the hotel industry

1. It takes decades to become a high quality hotel staff member.
 2. Hotel jobs require experience instead of skill and a high level of education.
 3. Management trainee positions at international brand hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.
 4. I set hotel jobs as my last option when looking for jobs.
 5. My personal goal is to work in the service industry.
 6. I can be promoted sooner than other employees without bachelor's degrees.
 7. It is very easy to find a job in the hotel industry.
-

-
8. If I were to take on a hotel job as a waiter or waitress, I would not be sure about my career development.
 9. I have to work in a front-line position that is very laborious.
 10. I changed my perception of hotel jobs following an internship/placement. I found my job in an F&B department very laborious, repetitive, dirty and boring. The career development did not match what I learned at school.
 11. Serving others at a hotel is not fully accepted in some areas or cultural communities in China. For example, although hotel jobs in Guangzhou are considered common occupations, those in North China or Fujian Province involve serving others of a lower class.
-

Advantages of hotel jobs

1. Hotel jobs are stable.
 2. Hotel jobs are not very competitive.
 3. Hotel jobs are very interesting.
 4. Hotel jobs are very challenging.
 5. Working at a hotel provides an opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.
 6. The work environment is very glamorous.
 7. Working at a hotel can provide me with good hotel operation, management skill and personal inner quality training.
 8. I gain knowledge and experience when communicating with guests.
 9. Hotel jobs have a low stress level compared with jobs in other industries.
-

Disadvantages of hotel jobs

1. Frontline staff members have low levels of education. We have no similar interests, so it is hard to make friends.
 2. Although hotel lobbies are very glamorous and luxurious, staff exits are sometimes unattractive, poor and dirty.
 3. It is hard to make friends with hotel colleagues who do not share common interests.
 4. When working with my colleagues, I cannot keep updated on worldwide news and technology to develop myself and realise my career aspirations.
-

The qualitative interviews with students, faculty and hotel practitioners were summarised and compared with items generated from the literature. Some of the items such as „some people relate hotel jobs to prostitution“ were unique to the Chinese community. Some people, and especially members of the old generation, living in some less-developed areas in China where guesthouses operate prostitution businesses hold such perceptions. Some of the items contradict the items identified in the literature, such as „it is currently very easy to find a job in the hotel industry“ and „hotel jobs are competitive and challenging“ (Barron et al., 2007; Chan, Chan, & Qu, 2002; Lewis & Airey, 2001; Ross, 1994). According to the experienced hotel practitioners, the demands for human resources are increasing each year as the hotel

business develops. Thus, it is currently easy to find an entry-level position in the hotel industry in China. However, the hotel industry has spread across China, and hotel jobs are not as treasured or competitive as they were in the 1980s. Table 4.5 shows the initial items of perceived hotel job image based on both the literature review and qualitative interviews.

Table 4.5 Initial Items of Perceived Hotel Job Image

Categories and Items	Source
Task	
Serve guests.	QL
Physically repetitive.	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Page et al. (2001) QL
Gain work value by providing help to guests.	QL
Prestige	
Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China.	Huyton & Sutton (1996); QL
Low social status.	Wong & Liu (2010); QL
The families do not support.	Wong & Liu (2010); QL
Hotel job salaries are lower	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Krakover (2000); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001); QL
Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public.	Aksu & Koksall (2005); Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Jafari et al. (1990); Krakover (2000); Page et al. (2001); QL
Hotel jobs are related to prostitution.	QL
Non-routine job nature	
A hotel is like a mini society.	QL
Hotel staff members have a good body image.	QL
Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours.	Aksu & Koksall (2005); Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Jafari et al. (1990); Page et al. (2001); QL
Hotel staff members must work on weekends and public holidays.	Aksu & Koksall (2005); Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Jafari et al. (1990); Page et al. (2001); QL
Hotel staff members can save money, hotels provide food and lodging.	Aksu & Koksall (2005); Ross (1994); QL
Hotel jobs provide professional uniforms.	QL
Managers and rank-and-file workers are treated differently.	QL
Integrity	
Hotel staff members are very polite.	Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); QL
Hotel staff members are hardworking.	QL
Hotel staff members are very helpful.	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); QL
A hotel staff member's outside appearance and inner reality sometimes differ.	QL
Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Ross (1994); QL
Hotel staff members are amiable.	QL
Hotel frontline staff members have low levels of education.	QL
Competence	
Hotel staff members are good at communication.	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Jafari et al. (1990); McMahon & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001); QL
Views of career paths	

Categories and Items	Source
It takes decades to become a high quality hotel staff member.	QL
Hotel jobs require experience rather than a high level of education.	QL
Hotel jobs are my last option when looking for jobs.	QL
Working at a hotel in a large city is encouraging for career development.	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); QL
Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon.	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994); QL
Trainee positions at hotels ensure career path in the hotel industry.	QL
Hotel staff members must begin working in entry-level positions.	QL
Hotel staff members are not sure about their career development.	QL
It is currently very easy to find a job in the hotel industry.	QL
Advantages of hotel jobs	
Hotel jobs are very interesting.	Aksu & Koksak (2005); QL
Hotel jobs are very challenging.	Barron et al. (2007); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994); QL
Hotel staff members are flexible in terms of choosing a city to work in.	Barron et al. (2007); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994); QL
Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.	Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994); QL
Hotel jobs are very stable.	QL
Hotel staff members can gain experience by communicating with guests.	Barron et al. (2007); Barron & Maxwell (1993); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Ross (1994); QL
Hotel jobs have lower stress levels than jobs in other industries.	QL
The work environment in a hotel is very glamorous.	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); QL
Hotel staff members can experience the management philosophy of an international company.	QL
The hotel industry is very promising.	Barron & Maxwell (1993); Barron et al. (2007); Chan, Chan, & Qu (2002); Lewis & Airey (2001); Ross (1994); QL
Disadvantages of hotel jobs	
It is hard to make friends with hotel colleagues who do not share common interests.	QL
Hotel offices can be unattractive, poor and dirty.	Broadbridge & Swanson (2006); Go et al. (1996); Jafari et al. (1990); Krakover (2000); McMahan & Quinn (1995); Page et al. (2001); QL

Note: QL denotes qualitative study results.

4.5.1.3 Purifying the Instrument

A content validity examination was conducted to ensure that the initially generated items were relevant to the construct of perceived hotel job image and representative of the research construct (Haynes, Richard, & Kubany, 1995). The items generated from

the literature and interview discussions were submitted to a panel of experts. Five research fellows were invited to evaluate each item based on content, language and relatedness with the corresponding concepts, including both the English and Chinese versions. For example, they suggested that the originally obtained statement „frontline staff members have low levels of education; we have no similar interests, so it is hard to make friends“ be divided into two statements as follows: (1) „it is hard to make friends with hotel colleagues who share common interests“ and (2) „hotel frontline staff members have low levels of education“. In this way, the research fellows helped to clarify unclear items and deal with redundancies and irrelevant items. The initial measurements of perceived hotel job image were developed and applied to the preliminary survey distributed in Pilot Test I. (The survey is attached in Appendix 7)

4.5.2 Pilot Test I

Pilot Test I was designed and conducted to purify and assess the reliability of the initial items of perceived hotel job image developed in the qualitative study. Based on the results of this small-scale test, an instrument measuring perceived hotel job image was constructed and further validated in Pilot Test II.

4.5.2.1 Data Collection in Pilot Test I

Pilot Test I was conducted in March 2012 at three universities in China, including Sun Yat-sen University, Zhejiang University and Dongbei University of Finance and Economics. Each city (Guangzhou, Hangzhou and Dalian) had been ranked as a popular tourism destination receiving more than 0.2 million international tourists in 2013 (CNTA, 2014). The reputations of these cities as popular tourism destinations help to promote the development of hotel and tourism education and attract potential

students to enrol in hotel and tourism programmes.

Three hundred and twenty respondents from the three universities were approached in person and via e-mail. More specifically, a student helper at Sun Yat-sen University was invited to help with the data collection, and he helped distribute the surveys to students in both the Department of Hotel and Club Management at the School of Tourism Management and the Department of Tourism and Hotel Management at the Business School. The data from 138 completed surveys were analysed. For the Zhejiang University sample, a teacher working in the Department of Tourism Management helped collect data from final-year students. Of the 80 questionnaires originally distributed, 33 were completed and returned. A lecturer from the School of Tourism and Hotel Management at Dongbei University of Finance and Economics similarly helped with the data-collection process. Sixty final-year students were away from campus participating in internships in March 2012, and the lecturer distributed their surveys via e-mail. A reminder was emailed to the students one week later. However, only eight of the surveys were completed and returned to the researcher. Table 4.6 summarises the sampling for Pilot Test I.

Table 4.6 Sampling for Pilot Test I

No.	University/City	Questionnaire Distribution Method	Usable Sample
1	Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou	Convenience sampling via student assistant	138
2.	Zhejiang University, Hangzhou	Convenience sampling via teacher assistant	33
3.	Dongbei University of Finance and Economics, Dalian	Convenience sampling via e-mail	8
Total:			179

4.5.2.2 Data Analysis in Pilot Test I

The data from Pilot Test I were analysed in four main steps. First, descriptive analysis was performed to understand the respondents' profiles and average statement evaluations. Second, EFA was performed to identify and delete any items that were comparatively irrelevant to the construct under examination. According to Field (2005), EFA can be adopted to identify a theoretical structure and underlying dimensions. Therefore, the data obtained in Pilot Test I were subjected to EFA using SPSS software. Principal component analysis was used to decrease the amount of irrelevant items and identify the underlying factors. Moreover, the results were further tested with varimax rotation to improve interpretation. The EFA criteria included the following. A commonly used eigenvalue criterion was selected, and the eigenvalue was set at greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1960). Individual factors that loaded lower than 0.4 were cut (Stevens, 1992). The communality and scree plot results and extracting factors were considered, and the recommended average communality value was found to be greater than 0.60 (Kaiser, 1960). Therefore, any variables with relatively lower communality scores were deleted.

Third, a reliability test was conducted to determine the reliability of the factors obtained during the EFA. The correlation between the individual items and total item score, i.e., the corrected item-total correlation value obtained from the reliability test, had to be higher than 0.30 (Field, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha was checked factor by factor to assess the reliability of the measures. Any coefficients greater than or equal to 0.50 were accepted, as they indicated good construct reliability (Nunnally, 1978). These criteria were followed strictly to remove irrelevant variables and identify the final factors. Fourth, each factor that passed the reliability test was named according to

what it represented collectively.

Some variables were recoded to indicate a reverse tone of questioning. The answers rated by the respondents were reversed compared with all of the other statements. Therefore, these items were recoded in SPSS using the „transform“ function, changing the values of „1=strongly disagree“ to „5=strongly agree“ and „2=disagree“ to „4=agree“.

4.5.2.3 Results of Pilot Test I

Table 4.7 shows the demographic profiles of the respondents. The respondents included 75 males and 103 females, comprising 41.9% and 51.5% of the total, respectively. Among the respondents, 80.4% were either 22 or 23 years old, 13.5% were 21 or younger and 5.6% were 24 or older (5.6%). In terms of the majority of the respondents, 36.3% came from the hotel stream, 46.9% came from a tourism stream and 15.6% indicated they were studying in the MICE stream of a hotel and tourism department. All of the respondents had attended lectures on knowledge and skills related to hotel operation and management. One hundred and nine respondents claimed to already have internship experience at hotels, and the other sixty-seven respondents claimed no such experience. A large proportion of the respondents (72.6%) suggested that none of their family members (parents, brothers or sisters) were working in the hotel and tourism industry.

Table 4.7 Demographic Profile of the Respondents in Pilot Test I (N=179)

Items	Categories	Respondents	Frequency %
Gender	Male	75	41.9%
	Female	103	57.5%
Age	21 or younger	24	13.5%
	22-23	145	80.4%
	24 or older	10	5.6%
Major	Hotel stream	65	36.3%

Items	Categories	Respondents	Frequency %
	Tourism stream	84	46.9%
	MICE stream	28	15.6%
Internship experience at a hotel	Yes	109	61.2%
	No	67	37.6%
Family members working in the hotel industry	Yes	14	7.8%
	No	130	72.6%

As indicated in Table 4.8, the statement „work on weekends and public holidays“ received the highest mean score rating (4.31), followed by „professional uniforms“ and „irregular hours“, with mean values of 4.28 and 4.18, respectively. This suggests that the respondents strongly agreed on the variables describing the nature of hotel jobs. The mean scores for the statements „no family support“, „lower stress“, and „low levels of education“ were 2.63, 2.57 and 2.14, respectively. The statement „physically repetitive“ was not recoded, as it was a neutral description of the job nature. Moreover, the EFA results suggested a positive factor loading for this statement.

Table 4.8 Mean Value of Perceived Hotel Job Image Statements Presented in Descending Order in Pilot Test I (N=179)

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation
Q21-work on weekends and public holidays	4.31	0.786
Q23-professional uniforms	4.28	0.695
Q20-irregular hours	4.18	0.849
Q44-good management levels	4.08	0.796
Q10-multicultural	4.06	0.898
Q19-good appearance	4.01	0.699
Q5-work value gained by providing help to guests	4.00	0.807
Q1-serving guests	3.93	0.930
Q43-low salary	3.85	0.937
Q26-experience from communication	3.76	0.706
Q9-mini society	3.69	0.860
Q36-management trainee	3.63	0.785
Q16-good at communication	3.61	0.733
Q40-working on frontline	3.58	0.976
Q33-glamorous environment	3.52	0.847
Q12-polite staff	3.51	0.767
Q39-management of international brand	3.49	0.857
Q38-easy to find jobs	3.47	0.869

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation
Q3-challenging	3.43	0.917
Q6-demeaning	3.41	1.009
Q14-helpful	3.37	0.761
Q11-prostitution	3.35	0.990
Q22-save money	3.35	0.895
Q27-colleagues are amiable	3.25	0.733
Q32-encouraging career development	3.23	0.886
Q13-hardworking	3.21	0.784
Q45-hotel industry has a good future	3.19	0.846
Q17-decades of experience	3.17	1.126
Q35-promotion and education	3.14	0.777
Q18-experience and education	3.11	0.986
Q4-interesting	3.07	0.909
Q29-no friends with common interests	3.04	0.947
Q31-last option when looking for jobs	2.98	1.137
Q34-back office is poor	2.93	0.878
Q25-inner quality	2.89	0.768
Q37-working city	2.88	0.830
Q24-stable	2.84	0.860
Q15-appearance and inner quality	2.80	0.896
Q8-not well respected	2.80	0.870
Q7-low social status	2.79	0.971
Q41-uncertain about career	2.78	1.029
Q2-physically repetitive	2.74	0.882
Q42-no family support	2.63	1.033
Q30-low stress	2.57	0.983
Q28-frontline staff members have low levels of education	2.14	0.837

Table 4.9 presents the factor analysis results. Six dimensions with eighteen items were identified: (1) staff integrity, (2) non-routine job nature, (3) prestige and social status, (4) hotel job characteristics, (5) future development of the industry and (6) career path.

The following procedures were followed when conducting the EFA. First, items with lower communalities (less than 0.3) were deleted one by one, and the EFA was re-run each time an item was deleted (Field, 2005). Deleted items included „decades of experience“, „prostitution“, „stable“, „easy to find jobs“, „mini society“, „glamorous environment“, „uncertain about career development“, „working on frontline“, „low salary“, „no friends with common interests“ and „good management levels“. The

remaining 33 items were then reanalysed via EFA and the items with lower factor loadings (less than 0.4) were deleted (Hair et al., 2009), including „work value gained by providing help to guests“, „management of international brand“ and „back office is poor“. Third, the factors with only one item were deleted, as each factor had to include at least two items. Fourth, reliability tests were conducted to check the reliability of each factor. The factors with lower Cronbach’s alpha values (0.500) were deleted. Only six factors passed the criteria and were kept, with factor loadings ranging from 0.78 to 0.50. Because the pilot study was exploratory in nature and the measurements would be tested again in Pilot Test II, a loose criterion value (0.50) was taken as the cut-off point for the reliability coefficient (George & Mallery, 2003). Thus, the marginally accepted variables were retained.

As shown in Table 4.9, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.74. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity result was 810.18, with a significance level of 0.000. The eigenvalues of each factor were higher than 1.0. The average communality score was higher than 0.60. All six of the factors represented 64.19% of the total explained variance. In terms of the mean value of each factor, Factor 2 had the highest (4.17), followed by Factors 4 and 6, which had average scores of 3.52 and 3.39, respectively. The mean score of Factor 3 was the lowest, with a neutral score of 3.00.

Table 4.9 EFA Results for Perceived Hotel Job Image in Pilot Test I (N=179)

Perceived Hotel Job Image in China	Factor Loadings						Communality	Item Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Factor 1: Staff integrity								
Hotel staff members are very helpful.	.835						0.73	3.37
Hotel staff members are hardworking.	.795						0.66	3.21
Hotel staff members are very polite.	.656						0.55	3.51
Hotel staff members are amiable.	.619						0.42	3.25
Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.	.552						0.52	2.89

Perceived Hotel Job Image in China	Factor Loadings						Communality	Item Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Factor 2: Non-routine job nature								
Hotel staff members have to work on weekends and public holidays.		.804					0.69	4.31
Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts.		.708					0.55	4.01
Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.		.643					0.50	4.18
Factor 3: Prestige and social status of hotel jobs								
Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. (R)			.801				0.70	2.79
Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. (R)			.781				0.64	3.41
Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. (R)			.723				0.58	2.80
Factor 4: Hotel job characteristics								
Hotel jobs are very challenging.				.832			0.73	3.43
Hotel jobs are very interesting.				.742				3.07
Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.				.560			0.64	4.06
Factor 5: future development								
Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development.					.829		0.74	3.23
The hotel industry is very promising.					.736		0.68	3.19
Factor 6: Career path								
Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon.						.863	0.71	3.14
Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.						.640	0.59	3.63
	Factor mean	3.25	4.17	3.00	3.52	3.21	3.39	
	Eigen-value	2.70	2.01	1.86	1.80	1.73	1.46	
	Variance explained %	15.02	11.11	10.31	9.98	9.63	8.10	
	Cumulative %	15.02	26.18	36.49	46.46	56.09	64.19	
	Reliability coefficient	0.78	0.60	0.69	0.63	0.71	0.50	

KMO=0.743, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-Square= 810.180
Df=190, p-value=0.000

As indicated in Table 4.10, 18 items were identified via EFA and kept as instruments to measure the students' perceptions of the hotel job image in China.

Table 4.10 Instrument Measuring Perceived Hotel Job Image in China

Variables for Perceived Hotel Job Image
B1 Hotel staff members are very helpful.
B2 Hotel staff members are hardworking.
B3 Hotel staff members are very polite.
B4 Hotel staff members are amiable.
B5 Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.
B6 Hotel staff members have to work on weekends and public holidays.
B7 Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.

Variables for Perceived Hotel Job Image

B8 Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts.

B9 Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. (R)

B10 Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. (R)

B11 Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. (R)

B12 Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development.

B13 The hotel industry is very promising.

B14 Hotel jobs are very challenging.

B15 Hotel jobs are very interesting.

B16 Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.

B17 Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon.

B18 Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.

„R“ denotes a reversed variable.

This study aimed to conduct pioneering pilot tests that would purify the measurement scale for perceived hotel job image. It inevitably encountered certain limitations. First, only hospitality students were involved, and the sample size was therefore comparatively small. However, as these students were potential future employees of the hotel industry, were well educated and had received industry exposure, their perceptions may be considered representative. The main survey subsequently involved a larger sample and collected more opinions from different locations. Because the aim was to purify the measurement scales developed in the qualitative study, the criteria adopted to refine the scale were comparatively liberal. Finally, the results should not be considered an attempt to construct the image of any specific job role in the hotel industry. Rather, the study aimed to investigate the overall perceptions of a related collective identity.

A survey was produced based on the results of Pilot Test I. The first section included the individual modernity measurements, which comprised 12 statements, to collect information about the respondents' degrees of individual modernity. The construct of perceived hotel job image was included in the second section, and the items obtained from the EFA were also included. The third section contained statements related to

parental influence (22 items) and asked the respondents to rate their level of agreement with each item according to their own experiences. Students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation were then surveyed in the fourth section. A seven-point Likert scale was adopted to record the respondents' agreement with each item from „1=strongly disagree“ to „7=strongly agree“. Finally, the survey collected the respondents' demographic information related to gender, age, study major and internship experience in the hotel industry. (The survey is attached in Appendix 8.)

4.5.3 Pilot Test II

The sole aim of Pilot Test I was to purify the instruments of the perceived hotel job image generated in the qualitative study. Fresh data were requested to cross-validate the purified instrument and compare the validated parameters (Hair et al., 2009). Therefore, Pilot Test II was purposely designed to cross-validate the instrument of perceived hotel job image and to examine other instruments adopted from previous studies, including individual modernity, parental influence and career intention. Moreover, the instruments adopted from previous studies (individual modernity, parental influence and career intention) were tested and purified in Pilot Test II. The survey was further polished in terms of its layout, wording and clarity based on the results of Pilot Test II.

4.5.3.1 Data Collection in Pilot Test II

Pilot Test II was conducted at three universities located in three popular tourism cities in the north, south and east of China. One hundred and ninety-six final-year degree students participated in the study. Sixteen cases in which more than 20% of the values were missing were discarded. The remaining 180 samples were used in the data

analysis. Table 4.11 exhibits the survey distribution.

Table 4.11 Total Samples in Pilot Test II (N=180)

No.	University	Location	Usable sample
1	Tianjin University of Finance and Economics	Tianjin, North of China	65
2	Guangzhou University	Guangzhou, South of China	68
3	Zhejiang Agriculture and Forestry University	Hangzhou, East of China	48
Total			180

A set of fieldwork instructions was developed to assist in the data-collection process and ensure efficiency. It contained the research background, objectives, study coverage and scope introduced to the respondents, and specified the procedures and tasks of the interviewers. (The instructions are attached in Appendix 9.)

4.5.3.2 Data Analysis in Pilot Test II

In terms of the raw data collected in Pilot Test II, the cases with missing values were examined and data normality was assessed to ensure normal distribution before other analytical techniques were used. Descriptive and frequency analyses were then conducted to understand the respondents' demographic details, including age, gender, study major, internship experience, residential status (*Hukou* status) information and whether their current majors were their first choices when applying for undergraduate degree programmes. Both EFA and CFA were performed in the third step to cross-validate the perceived hotel job image instrument and validate the other instruments adopted in this study (Field, 2005).

4.5.3.3 Results of Pilot Test II

4.5.3.3.1 Data Preparation

The raw data were examined in two steps to prepare them for further analysis. The cases with missing values were checked, and incomplete cases were found to be missing at random. In Part I, which focused on individual modernity, two cases had missing values for item 5, i.e., „I think a family network/connection is the key factor contributing to personal success“. One case had missing values for items 2, 3, 7 and 10, representing less than 1% of the dataset. In Part II, which focused on perceived hotel job image, items 8 and 14 each had one incomplete case, consisting of less than 1% of the total dataset. In Part III, which focused on parental influence, items 3 and 11 each had one missing case. According to Kline (2012), missing values that are less than 5% of a single variable can be ignored in a large sample.

The normality of the dataset was then assessed graphically and numerically. Box plot analysis was conducted to identify outliers. No outliers were found in the dataset. Skewness and kurtosis were examined, which is necessary when assessing data distribution (Finney & Distefano, 2006). The absolute univariate skewness and kurtosis values were found to be less than 3 and 8, respectively, indicating that the dataset was normally distributed (Kline, 2012). Tables 4.12, 4.13, 4.14 and 4.15 show the descriptive statistics for the four constructs.

Table 4.12 Descriptive Statistics for Individual Modernity in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Variables	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
A1_fate (R)	4.17	1.35	1.35	-.77
A2_family network (R)	3.79	1.32	1.32	.57
A3_earning money	5.46	1.18	1.18	-3.61
A4_more education	4.87	1.24	1.24	-1.87
A5_family background (R)	4.70	1.20	1.20	-2.31
A6_self-achievement	5.13	1.33	1.33	-2.60
A7_new friends	5.61	1.14	1.14	-3.33
A8_move to another place	4.65	1.30	1.30	-1.65
A9_foreigner's way of thinking	5.19	1.13	1.13	-1.93

Variables	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
A10_society change	5.47	1.15	1.15	-3.83
A11_change is positive	4.71	1.11	1.11	-1.48
A12_poor people's opportunities	4.63	1.22	1.22	-2.62

„R“ denotes a reversed measurement item.

Table 4.13 Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Hotel Job Image in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Variables	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
B1_staff helpful	4.84	1.10	-0.57	0.55
B2_staff hardworking	4.68	1.02	-0.08	0.30
B3_staff polite	5.03	1.07	-0.42	-0.09
B4_staff amiable	4.77	1.08	-0.39	0.25
B5_staff good personal inner quality	4.31	1.17	-0.42	-0.09
B6_work on the weekends and holidays	5.23	1.28	-0.52	-0.27
B7_good body image	5.40	0.93	-0.59	0.30
B8_irregular hours	5.53	1.22	-0.64	-0.32
B9_demeaning in China (R)	4.38	1.49	-0.15	-0.47
B10_low social status (R)	3.94	1.41	0.02	-0.48
B11_not well respected by public (R)	3.95	1.43	-0.02	-0.55
B12_good career development	4.39	1.11	-0.62	0.56
B13_industry is very promising	4.49	1.10	-0.50	0.32
B14_job challenging	4.78	1.13	-0.35	-0.10
B15_job interesting	4.32	1.23	-0.33	-0.04
B16_multiple cultures	5.22	1.12	-0.47	0.10
B17_promoted sooner	4.49	1.10	-0.44	0.60
B18_management trainee position	4.77	1.15	-0.40	0.25

„R“ denotes a reversed measurement item.

Table 4.14 Descriptive Statistics for Parental Influence in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Variables	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
C1_parents support me	4.06	1.32	-0.16	-0.62
C2_parents have positive attitudes	4.19	1.22	-0.09	-0.80
C3_parents believe I can be successful	4.45	1.25	-0.37	-0.38
C4_parents think it would be good for me to find a job related to my education	4.45	1.29	-0.43	-0.36
C5_parents discuss careers	3.72	1.45	-0.07	-0.80
C6_parents receive accurate information	3.84	1.29	-0.22	-0.55
C7_parents can refer me to work at a hotel job	3.79	1.62	-0.09	-1.05
C8_career education and training	4.71	1.31	-0.73	0.22
C9_help me pursue my chosen career	4.74	1.37	-0.91	0.38
C10_highly qualified colleagues	5.47	0.97	-0.90	1.71
C11_company receiving training and develop skills	5.17	1.04	-0.59	0.19
C12_encourage me to choose an interesting job	5.41	1.01	-0.76	0.99
C13_let me choose my career myself	5.39	1.08	-0.86	0.99

Variables	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
C14_encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities	5.31	1.00	-0.54	0.30
C15_heavy workload	4.52	1.33	-0.39	0.06
C16_shift duty job	4.69	1.36	-0.24	-0.26
C17_considering company location	4.62	1.48	-0.64	-0.33
C18_choose job to ensure parents' quality of life	5.45	1.13	-0.93	1.74
C19_choose job to make parents proud	5.30	1.14	-0.67	1.05
C20_encourage a stable job	5.65	1.00	-0.80	1.64
C21_consider parents' opinions	5.24	0.99	-0.63	1.79
C22_parents' work values influence mine	5.00	1.12	-0.54	1.14

„R“ denotes a reversed measurement item.

Table 4.15 Descriptive Statistics for Career Intentions in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Variables	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
In1_I would like to work at a hotel after graduation	3.78	1.50	0.01	-0.49
In2_I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry	4.06	1.48	-0.14	-0.58
In3_I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives	3.68	1.33	-0.18	-0.48
In4_It would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path (R)	4.36	1.18	-0.09	0.46

„R“ denotes a reversed measurement item.

4.5.3.3.2 Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

Table 4.16 reports the demographic information of the respondents in Pilot Test II. The respondents comprised 81.1% females and 18.9% males, among whom 40.0% were 22 years old, 31.1% were 23, 18.9% were 21, 8.9% were 24 and 0.6% were 20 and 25. Among the respondents, 74.4% studied in the hotel stream and 25.6% studied in the tourism stream. Furthermore, 60% of the respondents indicated that a tourism and hotel major was not their first choice when applying for a study major during the university entrance exams. Most of the respondents (71.1%) had internship experience at hotels. Around two thirds (72.8%) of the respondents came from urban areas, and 75% claimed they had no family members working in the hotel industry.

Table 4.16 Demographic Profiles of the Respondents in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Items	Categories	Respondents	Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	34	18.9
	Female	146	81.1
Age	20 years old	1	0.6
	21 years old	34	18.9
	22 years old	72	40.0
	23 years old	56	31.1
	24 years old	16	8.9
	25 years old	1	0.6
Major	Hotel stream	134	74.4
	Tourism stream	46	25.6
<i>Gaokao</i> application *	First option	72	40.0
	Non-first option	108	60.0
Internship experience at a hotel	Yes	128	71.1
	No	52	28.9
<i>Hukou</i> status **	City residential status	131	72.8
	Agricultural residential status	49	27.2
Family members working in the hotel industry	Yes	44	24.4
	No	135	75.0
	Missing value	1	0.6

* Refers to students' choice of major according to their national university entrance exams.

** Refers to residential status.

4.5.3.3.3 Instruments Validation

Pilot Test II was conducted to filter out the initial instruments by enhancing their scale reliability and validity. The instrument validity and reliability of each construct (individual modernity, the perceived hotel job image, parental influence and career intentions) were assessed to make the instruments more compact and trustworthy for the current study context (Field, 2005). Indicators with low reliability or low factor loadings on the underlying factors were deleted, and the retained variables were kept for further examination in the main survey.

4.5.3.3.3.1 Instrument Validation: Perceived Hotel Job Image

A six-dimension instrument with 18 items was generated in Pilot Test I for the perceived hotel job image construct. Hair et al. (2009) suggested using fresh data to confirm the measurement instruments on the basis of EFA results. In other words,

multiple sets of samples were requested to cross-validate the measurement instruments. Pilot Test II thus collected an additional dataset (n=180).

CFA was conducted using the AMOS software package to examine the underlying factor structures and assess both the internal and external consistency of the scales. A group of indices was generated in the CFA to indicate the degree to which the observed model was estimated by the proposed model. As it is not necessary or realistic to report all of the fit indices, the most common fit indices are reported according to researcher recommendations including a chi-square test, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI, also known as the non-normed fit index or NNFI) (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2012; McDonald & Ho, 2002). A chi-square test „assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices“ (Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 2). In a chi-square test, the accepted range of the ratio of the chi-square to the degree of freedom (χ^2/df) is 2.0-5.0 (Wheaton et al., 1977). The RMSEA index shows how well a proposed model fits a population and is considered one of the „most informative fit indices“ (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 85). A cut-off point below 0.10 is considered acceptable, and one below 0.08 is considered a good fit (MacCallum et al., 1996). The CFI reports the model fit while considering the effect of the sample size, and is the indicator least affected by sample size. A CFI value equal to or greater than 0.90 is suggested as the threshold (Kline, 2012). The TLI provides a measure of parsimony with a comparative index between the proposed and null models. The recommended cut-off point for the TLI is as low as 0.80 (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).

The data were subjected to CFA in Pilot Test II to obtain a set of goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2=251.20$, $df=118$, $\chi^2/df=2.13$, $p<0.01$, $RMSEA=0.08$, $TLI=0.90$, $CFI=0.92$). The results suggested an acceptable fit between the proposed CFA and observed models. As shown in Table 4.17, the standardised factor loadings of each indicator were near or greater than 0.5, and the estimated loadings of all of the factors were significant at $p<0.01$, indicating convergent validity for the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4.17 CFA Results for Perceived Hotel Job Image in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Factors and variables	Std FL	t-value	SMC
Factor 1: Staff integrity			
Hotel staff members are very helpful.	0.88	6.95	0.78
Hotel staff members are hardworking.	0.86	6.88	0.73
Hotel staff members are very polite.	0.82	6.77	0.68
Hotel staff members are amiable.	0.83	6.81	0.69
Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.	0.48	N/A	0.23
Factor 2: Non-routine job nature			
Hotel staff members have to work on weekends and public holidays.	0.77	7.67	0.59
Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.	0.55	6.40	0.30
Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts.	0.78	N/A	0.61
Factor 3: Prestige and social status of hotel jobs			
Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. (R)	0.65	8.97	0.42
Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. (R)	0.86	11.52	0.73
Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. (R)	0.87	N/A	0.75
Factor 4: Hotel job characteristics			
Hotel jobs are very challenging.	0.78	9.64	0.61
Hotel jobs are very interesting.	0.66	8.63	0.44
Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.	0.74	N/A	0.55
Factor 5: Future development			
Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development.	0.84	12.76	0.70
The hotel industry is very promising.	0.94	N/A	0.89
Factor 6: Career path			
Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon.	0.77	8.07	0.60
Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.	0.91	N/A	0.82

Note: „R“ denotes a reversed statement.

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ denotes that T-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

In addition to convergent validity, discriminant validity should be considered to establish the construct validity of a proposed measure (Churchill, 1979). The average variance extracted (AVE) indicates the extent to which the indicator represents the latent construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As indicated in Table 4.18, the AVE of each construct was equal to or higher than 0.5, indicating good representation. Moreover, the AVE was greater than the squared correlation coefficients for the corresponding inter-constructs. For example, the AVE of Dimension 1, „Integrity“ (0.62), was greater than the value of the corresponding inter-construct squared correlation coefficients (0.01, 0.14, 0.18, 0.25, 0.12), revealing discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliability of the multi-item was also achieved, ranging from 0.75 to 0.89 above the cut-off point of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 4.18 Correlations (Squared Correlation), Reliability, AVE, Mean and Standard Deviations for Perceived Hotel Job Image in Pilot Test II (N=180)

	Integrity	Non-routine	Prestige	Characteristic	Future Dev.	Career Path
Integrity	1.00					
Non-routine	-0.11 (.01)	1.00				
Prestige	0.38 (.14)	-0.27 (.07)	1.00			
Characteristic	0.43 (.18)	0.14 (.02)	0.37 (.14)	1.00		
Future dev.	0.50 (.25)	-0.08 (.01)	0.28 (.08)	0.73 (.53)	1.00	
Career path	0.34 (.12)	0.08 (.01)	0.26 (.07)	0.60 (.36)	0.46 (.21)	1.00
CCR	0.89	0.75	0.84	0.77	0.89	0.83
AVE	0.62	0.50	0.64	0.53	0.79	0.71
Mean	4.73	5.39	3.91	4.77	4.44	4.63
Std dev.	0.90	0.94	1.24	0.96	1.04	1.04

„CCR“ refers to the composite construct reliability.

„AVE“ refers to the average variance extracted.

4.5.3.3.2 Instrument Purification: Individual Modernity

Because this study borrowed its instruments for measuring individual modernity from

a previous study (Du, 2005), a pilot test was conducted to determine the instruments' application to the current research background.

EFA was used to discover the underlying groups of variables. Several criteria were adopted for the EFA. For example, the „attitudes towards fortune and fate“ dimension and the following three variables were deleted: QA1 („fortune and fate“), QA2 („family network/connection“) and QA3 („earn money to provide a much better life for my family and myself“). The Cronbach's alpha value for the construct reliability was lower than the cut-off point of 0.50 suggested by George and Mallery (2003). Moreover, item QA5 (family background“) was dropped because it cross-loaded into two factors. According to the results (as shown in Table 4.19), three dimensions with eight items were generated: (1) attitudes towards achievement and adventure, (2) openness to new things and (3) attitudes towards social change, which explained 69.58% of the total variance. Meanwhile, the construct reliability was examined (ranging from 0.64 to 0.76) and found to be greater than 0.5 (George & Mallery, 2003).

The result of this pilot study showed differences from the literature (Du, 2005), possibly due to the differences in respondents. The respondents comprised hospitality students located in three cities in China, and were members of China's so-called young generation (born in the 1990s). This young generation exhibits many different traits from previous generations (Yi, Ribbens, & Morgan, 2010).

Table 4.19 EFA Results for Individual Modernity in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Individual Modernity (N=180)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- nalities
Factor 1: Attitudes towards achievement and adventure		1.531	19.14	0.64	

Individual Modernity (N=180)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- -nalities
QA4 I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have.	0.842				0.78
QA6 I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others.	0.536				0.58
QA8 I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there.	0.573				0.57
Factor 2: Openness to new things		2.193	27.41	0.76	
QA7 I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends.	0.729				0.64
QA9 I would better understand foreigners** ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country.	0.810				0.72
QA10 I think our society has changed a lot.	0.664				0.75
Factor 3: Attitudes towards social change		1.842	23.02	0.73	
QA11 I think the changes made to our society have been positive.	0.796				0.78
QA12 I think poor people's opportunities to change their economic status have increased.	0.846				0.75
Note: KMO=0.826; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2=443.622$, df=28, $p<0.000$.					

4.5.3.3.3 Instrument Purification: Parental Influence

The parental influence construct was also borrowed from a previous study (Wong & Liu, 2010). EFA was conducted to further discover latent dimensions and validate the measurements.

The scale was purified based on the EFA results. Variables with low factor loadings (less than 0.4) were deleted, such as QC7 („refer me to work in the hotel industry“) and QC10 („select a job with a group of highly qualified colleagues“). Moreover, a reliability test was conducted. The „perceived parental barriers“ dimension was dropped because the Cronbach's alpha value of the construct reliability was less than 0.5 (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, three items were deleted, including QC15 („heavy workload“), QC16 („a shift-duty job“) and QC17 („company's location“). As indicated

in Table 4.20, a four-factor construct with 17 variables was achieved. The KMO value was 0.797, indicating measurement adequacy. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2=1,556.98$, $df=136$, $p<0.000$). The eigenvalue of each factor was greater than 1.0. All four of the factors represented 67.06% of the total explained variance. The four dimensions were (1) perceived parental support, which explained about 24.27% of the variance; (2) parental involvement, which explained 13.05% of the variance; (3) parental encouragement, which explained 14.84% of the variance; and (4) parental concerns and the transmission of Chinese parental values, which explained 19.03% of the variance. The purified instruments were kept for further examination in the main survey.

Table 4.20 EFA Results for Parental Influence in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Parental Influence (N=180)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- -nalities
Factor 1. Parental support		4.98	24.27	0.90	
C1 I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold.	0.883				0.803
C2 I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry.	0.888				0.794
C3 I think my parents believe I can be successful working in the hotel industry.	0.853				0.752
C4 I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning.	0.821				0.739
C5 My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me.	0.757				0.667
C6 I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers.	0.632				0.633
Factor 2. Parental involvement		1.39	13.05	0.70	
C8 My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training.	0.773				0.665
C9 My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career.	0.796				0.680
C11 My parents encourage me to work for a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills.	0.507				0.394
Factor 3. Parental encouragement		1.72	14.84	0.84	
C12 My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in.	0.770				0.711
C13 I think my parents will let me choose my own career.	0.837				0.743

Parental Influence (N=180)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- -nalities
C14 My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities.	0.737				0.660
Factor 4. Transmission of Chinese parental values		3.32	14.90	0.77	
C18 I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older.	0.663				0.646
C19 I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends.	0.730				0.586
C20 My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career.	0.626				0.652
C21 I consider my parents' opinions when making my career choices.	0.702				0.581
C22 I think my parents' work values will influence mine.	0.714				0.693
Note: KMO=0.797; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2=1,556.98$, $df=136$, $p<0.000$.					

4.5.3.3.4 Instrument Purification: Career Intentions

The career intentions construct was adopted from Teng (2008), who applied it to hospitality students in Taiwan. Table 4.21 summarises the EFA results and reliability tests for this construct. According to the results (KMO=0.806, Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2=433.11$, $df=6$, $p<0.000$), all four of the items were retained, explaining 74.26% of the variance. The factor loadings of each variable were greater than the 0.5 threshold. The coefficient of construct reliability was 0.88, suggesting good internal consistency. All four of the variables were kept for further tests in the main survey.

Table 4.21 EFA Results for Career Intentions in Pilot Test II (N=180)

Career Intention (N = 180)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- -nalities
Factor 1. Career intention		2.97	74.26	0.88	
In1 I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation.	0.918				0.843
In2 I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry.	0.915				0.836
In3 I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives.	0.845				0.715
In4 It would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path.	0.759				0.576
Note: KMO=0.806, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: $\chi^2=433.11$, $df=6$, $p<0.000$.					

Pilot Test II served as a live test to modify the survey instruments. Therefore, it was limited by its sample size. The sample coverage was ultimately increased in the main survey.

As the original instruments were given in Chinese and the survey was conducted in Chinese, only the Chinese questionnaire was assessed. Three steps were taken to examine the validity of the instruments. First, in a pre-test, one hospitality degree student and six researchers from a hotel and tourism school were invited to assess the content in terms of its relevance and usefulness. For example, some researchers suggested that the item „a family network/connection is the key factor contributing to personal success (reversed question)“ might not have been suitable for measuring the respondents“ modern attitudes..

Chinese society has recently raised and debated such issues as the „wealthy second generation“, whose members were born in wealthy families and found success more easily thanks to the extensive help and resources they obtained from their family connections (China Daily, 2010). Despite their modern traits, the respondents might have been confused by such debate, and the statement might have failed to accurately measure their modernity. The pre-test was the first step taken to qualitatively assess the instruments. The debatable statement was ultimately kept and tested further in Pilot Test II. The quantitative survey results suggested deleting the debatable item, as its construct reliability was lower than the accepted threshold.

The clarity and smoothness of the instruments were also assessed. For instance, the

item „the more education, the better the life“ was revised to „I think that the more education I have, the better the life I could have“. The key wording in the statement was typed in bold in the questionnaire. It was also suggested that a 7-point Likert scale be adopted to provide more scale points for the respondents“ selections.

A pilot test using EFA was then conducted to purify the instruments adopted from other studies. In the test, four statements of individual modernity were deleted due to low construct reliability or cross-loading into two factors. Eighteen statements describing perceived hotel job image were retained. Five parental influence items were dropped because the factor loadings were less than 0.4 or the construct reliability was low (Cronbach’s alpha value was less than 0.5). Finally, four items measuring students“ career intentions were retained.

The third step was to validate the remaining instruments in the main survey via CFA. In accordance with the pilot test results, the main survey (attached in Appendix 10) included five sections. The first section asked the respondents to evaluate their modernity traits. The second section focused on the respondents“ perceptions of the hotel job image. The respondents“ perceptions of how they were influenced by their parents were tested in the third section, and the fourth section asked the respondents to indicate their intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation. The respondents“ levels of agreement with each survey question in the first four sections were recorded from „1=strongly disagree“ to „7=strongly agree“. The final section collected each respondent’s demographic information.

4.6 Main Survey

The main survey was organised to explore the structural relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and career intention.

4.6.1 Data Collection in the Main Survey

In the main survey, hospitality students in their final year of study at comprehensive universities were targeted as respondents. According to the tourism school and college statistics (CNTA, 2008), there were 1,336 tourism schools and colleges in China, located in 31 provinces and cities with 566,493 students enrolled. The sample universities were selected according to three major criteria: they had to be (1) different from the universities involved in the pilot tests, (2) similar-scale and prestige universities located in popular tourism destinations and (3) located within the five geographic zones of China, i.e., the north, south, west, east and centre. A convenience sampling technique was adopted due to the convenient accessibility guaranteed to the researcher. The participants were given standard instructions for completing the surveys and were recruited voluntarily with their anonymity ensured.

Table 4.22 lists the universities involved in the main survey, including the university types and the hotel management knowledge and skills they provided. To facilitate national economic development, the Chinese government funded the „211 Project“ and „985 Project“ among universities in China. The „211 Project“ aimed to help about 100 universities to take leading positions in the country’s socio-economic development and international competition by the early 21st century. The „985 Project“ similarly aimed to develop a number of world-class universities and research centres of excellence in China (Cheng & Wang, 2012). The two projects provided funding to universities to

help them establish research platforms. One thousand surveys were distributed to final-year students at twenty universities located in twelve cities. Seven hundred and seventy-four samples were returned for further analysis, of which thirty-eight were screened out and seven hundred and thirty-six were retained for further analysis.

Table 4.22 Distribution of Samples in the Main Survey

No.	University	University Type	Subjects related to hospitality management and Career Objectives	Location	Completed Cases	Used in Data Analysis
1	Zhejiang Normal University	Second tier	– Hotel Management – Tourism Enterprises (China Education Online, 2008)	Jinhua, Zhejiang	37	37
2	Zhejiang University	First tier	– Introduction to Hotel Management, Hotel Business Management – Tourism Enterprises (Zhejiang University, 2010)	Hangzhou, Zhejiang	11	11
3	Zhejiang University City College	Second tier	– International Hotel Management – Tourism Enterprises (Zhejiang University City College, 2014)	Hangzhou, Zhejiang	47	46
4	Zhejiang Gongshang University	Second tier	– Hotel Operation and Management, Food and Beverage Operation – Hotel Industry, MICE Industry, and Other Tourism Enterprises (Zhejiang Gongshang University, 2014)	Hangzhou, Zhejiang	55	54
5	South China University of Technology	First tier	– International Hotel Management, Hotel Operation and Management – Tourism Enterprises (South China University of Technology, 2008)	Guangzhou, Guangdong	39	35
6	Shenzhen University	Second tier	– Introduction to Hotel Management, F&B Management, Service Marketing – Tourism Enterprises (Shenzhen University, 2010)	Shenzhen, Guangdong	41	40
7	South-Central University for Nationalities	Second tier	– Hotel Management, Hotel Operation and Management – Tourism Enterprises (South-Central University for Nationalities, 2010)	Wuhan, Hubei	33	32
8	Zhongnan University of Economics and Law	First tier	– Hotel Management – Tourism Enterprises (Zhongnan University of Economics and Law, 2010)	Wuhan, Hubei	37	35
9	Hunan Normal University	First tier	– Introduction to Hotel Management, F&B Management, Front Office Management, Hotel Investment Management – Tourism and Hospitality Industry (Hunan Normal University, 2014)	Changsha, Hunan	46	45
10	Yangzhou University	Second tier	– Hotel Management, F&B Management, Housekeeping Management – Tourism and Hospitality Industry (Yangzhou University, 2014)	Yangzhou, Jiangsu	72	68

N o.	University	Univer sity Type	Subjects related to hospitality management and Career Objectives	Locati on	Com plete d Cases	Used in Data Anal ysis
11	Jilin Teachers' Institute of Engineering & Technology	Second tier	- Hotel Management - Tourism Enterprises (Jilin Teachers' Institute of Engineering & Technology, 2013)	Chang chun, Jilin	27	23
12	Guanghua College of Changchun University	Second tier	- Hotel Management, F&B Management, Front Office Management - Tourism Enterprises (China Gaokao, 2012)	Chang chun, Jilin	39	39
13	Changchun Normal University	Second tier	- Introduction to Hotel Management - Tourism Enterprises (China Gaokao, 2011)	Chang chun, Jilin	65	58
14	Dalian University of Foreign Languages	Second tier	- Introduction to Hotel Management, F&B Management, Front Office and Housekeeping Management - Tourism Enterprises (Dalian University of Foreign Languages, 2011)	Dalian, Liaoni ng	44	42
15	Fudan University	First tier	- Hotel Management, Service Management, Hotel Supervision Management, Hotel Human Resources Management, Front Office and Housekeeping Management - Tourism Enterprises (Fudan University, 2011)	Shangh ai	11	11
16	Shanghai Normal University	Second tier	- Hotel Management, Human Resources Management - Tourism Enterprises (Shanghai Normal University, 2013)	Shangh ai	17	16
17	Shanghai Institute of Foreign Trade	Second tier	- Hotel Management, Marketing Management - Tourism Enterprises (China Gaokao, 2009)	Shangh ai	30	27
18	Sichuan Normal University	Second tier	- Hotel Management, F&B Service and Management - Tourism Enterprises (Sichuan Normal University, 2009)	Cheng du, Sichua n	35	33
19	Sichuan University	First tier	- Hotel Management - Tourism Enterprises (China Education Online, 2014)	Cheng du, Sichua n	25	23
20	Tianjin Normal University	Second tier	- Hotel Management - Tourism Enterprises (Tianjin Normal University, 2012)	Tianjin	63	61
				Total:	774	736

4.6.2 Data Analysis in the Main Survey

In accordance with the objectives of the study, the data were processed using SPSS, through which their normality was examined to ensure a multivariate normal distribution (Byrne, 2009). EFA was used to identify the key factors underlying each

individual construct, and CFA was used to confirm the validity of the constructs. The overall measurement model validity was checked by assessing the goodness-of-fit and construct validity. Lastly, SEM analysis was conducted to verify the proposed interrelationships.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces the research methodology adopted for the study. It describes the research design and discusses the methodology, adopted instruments and instrument development procedures. It addresses the instrument development procedures for perceived hotel job image and presents the results. It describes the sampling procedures performed in both Pilot Test II and the main survey. Lastly, it discusses the data analysis techniques used.

Chapter 5 Research Findings

5.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the main survey, including the data preparation process, descriptive analysis and EFA and CFA results. The final section presents the findings of the overall measurement model, structural model and multi-group invariance tests.

5.2 Data Screening

In terms of the data collected in the main survey, cases with missing values were identified via the SPSS software. Two cases were deleted from the main dataset because they had missing values greater than 10%. After the deletion, nine variables still had a missing value of 1%. As the missing values followed no specific pattern and

the percentage of missing observations was low, they were ignored and replaced using the mean-substitution method (Kline, 2012). Thus, 772 samples qualified for the normality test.

The outliers of the dataset were then examined using Mahalanobis distance analysis via the AMOS program. Mahalanobis distance analysis calculates the distance and lists the cases farthest away from the centroid (Hair et al., 2009). According to the results, 36 cases were identified as outliers and removed, as their p-values were less than 0.01 (Kline, 2012). After the further elimination of those 36 outliers, 736 samples were retained.

The normality of the dataset was then assessed by checking the univariate skewness, univariate kurtosis and multivariate normality. Univariate normality assesses the distribution for an individual variable, and multivariate normality examines the normality of every variable. Because a non-normal distribution of the dataset may generate an unreliable goodness-of-fit index in the multivariate analysis, normal distribution is a basic requirement for an SEM analysis (Byrne, 2009). Kline (2012) suggested cut-off points for a normal dataset in terms of the skewness (less than 3.00) and kurtosis (less than 8.00). The absolute univariate skewness and kurtosis values shown in Table 5.1 are less than 3 and 8, respectively. Hair et al. (2009) suggested that multivariate normality can be achieved when the univariate normality of each variable is achieved. Furthermore, the multivariate non-normality effect can be reduced if the sample size is large enough (more than 200) (Kline, 2012). Thus, the dataset was normally distributed.

Table 5.1 Univariate Normality Test Results in the Main Survey (N=736)

Variable (N=736)	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
Individual Modernity			
A1 I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have.	5.06	-.586	.164
A2 I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others.	5.25	-.513	-.186
A3 I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends.	5.75	-.826	.614
A4 I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there.	4.50	-.063	-.384
A5 I would better understand foreigners" ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country.	5.40	-.569	-.286
A6 I think our society has changed a lot.	5.85	-1.030	1.217
A7 I think the changes made to our society have been positive.	4.86	-.031	-.403
A8 I think poor people"s opportunities to change their economic status have increased.	4.65	-.196	-.146
Perceived Hotel Job Image			
B1 Hotel staff members are very helpful.	4.85	-.212	-.565
B2 Hotel staff members are hardworking.	4.72	-.086	-.444
B3 Hotel staff members are very polite.	5.19	-.473	.073
B4 Hotel staff members are amiable.	4.98	-.307	.139
B5 Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.	4.38	.082	.006
B6 Hotel staff members have to work on weekends and public holidays.	5.53	-.738	.178
B7 Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.	5.41	-.646	.433
B8 Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts.	5.62	-.571	-.252
B9 Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. (R)	3.42	.161	-.570
B10 Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. (R)	3.95	-.053	-.747
B11 Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. (R)	3.90	-.092	-.548
B12 Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development.	4.35	.127	.021
B13 The hotel industry is very promising.	4.59	-.125	-.185
B14 Hotel jobs are very challenging.	5.00	-.443	-.112
B15 Hotel jobs are very interesting.	4.46	-.076	-.307
B16 Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.	5.36	-.812	.819
B17 Staff members with a bachelor"s degree can be promoted soon.	4.55	-.244	.165
B18 Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.	4.85	-.288	-.238
Parental Influence			
C1 I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold.	4.07	.138	-.493
C2 I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry.	4.08	.191	-.583
C3 I think my parents believe I can be successful working in the hotel industry.	4.42	-.141	-.505
C4 I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning.	4.47	-.160	-.711
C5 My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me.	3.53	.179	-.420
C6 I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers.	3.63	.151	-.350
C7 My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training.	4.69	-.370	-.236

Variable (N=736)	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
C8 My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career.	4.93	-.549	-.031
C9 My parents encourage me to work for a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills.	4.98	-.488	.207
C10 My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in.	5.41	-.637	-.019
C11 I think my parents will let me choose my own career.	5.55	-.695	.091
C12 My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities.	5.47	-.696	.210
C13 I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older.	5.88	-1.065	1.669
C14 I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends.	5.36	-.750	.991
C15 My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career.	5.71	-.928	.834
C16 I consider my parents' opinions when making my career choices.	5.33	-.505	.323
C17 I think my parents' work values will influence mine.	4.86	-.472	.241
Career Intentions			
In1 I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation.	4.14	.007	-.258
In2 I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry.	4.33	-.109	-.285
In3 I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives.	3.83	.147	.069
In4 It would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path. (R)	3.35	.140	.355

5.3 Results of the Main Survey

5.3.1 Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

Table 5.2 shows the profiles of the main survey respondents. Among the respondents, 80.4% were female and 19.6% were male, figures consistent with the gender distribution of students enrolled in tourism schools in China. In terms of age distribution, students aged 22-24 comprised 92.1% of the respondents. This figure is also reflective of final-year college students in China. In terms of streams, 75% of the respondents studied in the tourism stream and 25% studied in the hotel stream of the tourism school. However, 63.8% of the respondents indicated that a tourism and hotel major was not their first option when they applied for university entrance. All of the students had internship experience in tourism enterprises as requested by their programmes. Most of the respondents (60.9%) had internship experience at hotels. More than half of the respondents (58.8%) came from urban areas and had city

residential status before they entered university, and 84% claimed that they had no family members working in the hotel industry.

Table 5.2 Demographic Profiles of the Respondents in the Main Survey (N=736)

Items	Categories	Respondents	Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	144	19.6
	Female	592	80.4
Age	19-20 years old	38	5.1
	21 years old	184	25.0
	22 years old	334	45.4
	23 years old	160	21.7
	24-26 years old	20	2.8
Major	Hotel stream	184	25.0
	Tourism stream	552	75.0
<i>Gaokao</i> application *	First choice	266	36.1
	Non-first choice	470	63.8
Internship experience at a hotel	Yes	448	60.9
	No	288	39.5
<i>Hukou</i> status **	Urban status	427	58.0
	Rural status	309	42.0
Family members working in hotels	Yes	118	16.0
	No	618	84.0

* Refers to the students' choice of major according to their national university entrance exams.

** Refers to the students' residential status.

5.3.2 Descriptive Statistics

In the main survey, respondents were asked to rate their perceptions of individual modernity, perceived hotel job image, parental influence and career intentions on a seven- point Likert scale. Table 5.3 presents the mean values and standard deviation for each variable.

Table 5.3 Descriptive Statistics for Individual Modernity, Perceived Hotel Job Image, Parental Influence and Career Intentions (N=736)

Construct and Variables	Mean (μ / μ R)	Std Dev.
Individual Modernity		
A1 I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have.	5.06	1.15
A2 I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others.	5.25	1.21
A3 I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends.	5.75	1.00

Construct and Variables	Mean (μ / μ R)	Std Dev.
A4 I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there.	4.50	1.28
A5 I would better understand foreigners' ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country.	5.40	1.12
A6 I think our society has changed a lot.	5.85	1.01
A7 I think the changes made to our society have been positive.	4.86	1.09
A8 I think poor people's opportunities to change their economic status have increased.	4.65	1.13
Perceived Hotel Job Image		
B1 Hotel staff members are very helpful.	4.85	1.05
B2 Hotel staff members are hardworking.	4.72	1.07
B3 Hotel staff members are very polite.	5.19	1.03
B4 Hotel staff members are amiable.	4.98	1.01
B5 Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.	4.38	1.11
B6 Hotel staff members have to work on weekends and public holidays.	5.53	1.15
B7 Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.	5.41	0.98
B8 Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts.	5.62	1.12
B9 Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. (R)	4.58	1.44
B10 Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. (R)	4.05	1.48
B11 Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. (R)	4.10	1.40
B12 Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development.	4.35	1.01
B13 The hotel industry is very promising.	4.59	1.11
B14 Hotel jobs are very challenging.	5.00	1.15
B15 Hotel jobs are very interesting.	4.46	1.21
B16 Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.	5.36	1.14
B17 Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon.	4.55	1.09
B18 Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.	4.85	1.05
Parental Influence		
C1 I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold.	4.07	1.34
C2 I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry.	4.08	1.33
C3 I think my parents believe I can be successful working in the hotel industry.	4.42	1.30
C4 I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning.	4.47	1.35
C5 My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me.	3.53	1.35
C6 I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers.	3.63	1.26
C7 My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training.	4.69	1.27
C8 My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career.	4.93	1.31
C9 My parents encourage me to work for a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills.	4.98	1.17
C10 My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in.	5.41	1.18
C11 I think my parents will let me choose my own career.	5.55	1.17
C12 My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities.	5.47	1.18
C13 I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older.	5.88	1.00
C14 I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends.	5.36	1.14
C15 My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career.	5.71	1.07
C16 I consider my parents' opinions when making my career choices.	5.33	0.99

Construct and Variables	Mean (μ / μ R)	Std Dev.
C17 I think my parents' work values will influence mine.	4.86	1.22
Career Intentions		
In1 I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation.	4.14	1.37
In2 I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry.	4.33	1.35
In3 I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives.	3.83	1.27
In4 It would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path. (R)	3.35	1.18

Note: „R“ denotes a reversed statement. The mean value for a reversed statement (measured by a seven-point Likert scale) is calculated as follows: $\mu(R) = 8 - \mu$.

Among all of the individual modernity variables, „I think our society has changed a lot“ (QA6, $\mu = 5.85$) was rated the highest on average, followed by „I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends“ (QA3, $\mu = 5.75$) and „I would better understand foreigners' ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country“ (QA5, $\mu = 5.40$). These statements more or less represent the attitudes of hospitality students towards social change and their behaviour in the social modernisation process. In contrast, the lowest-rated items were „I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there“ (QA4, $\mu = 4.50$), „I think poor people's opportunities to change their economic status have increased“ (QA8, $\mu = 4.65$) and „I think the changes made to our society have been positive“ (QA7, $\mu = 4.86$). Although these items received the lowest ratings out of the individual modernity items, the respondents nevertheless tended to agree with them.

In terms of perceived hotel job image in general, the respondents agreed strongly that hotel jobs were non-routine in nature, an opinion apparent in the popularity of statements including „irregular hours“ (QB8, $\mu = 5.62$); „working weekends and on holidays“ (QB6, $\mu = 5.53$) and „a good body image“ (QB7, $\mu = 5.41$). However, the respondents also indicated relatively low agreement with some variables. The reversed

items of „a low social status“ (QB10, $\mu (R)= 4.05$) and „hotel staff members are not well respected by the public“ (QB11, $\mu (R)= 4.10$) were rated lowest out of the perceived hotel job image variables. This indicates that most of the respondents had neutral attitudes towards the statements related to the low social status of hotel jobs or lack of respect for hotel staff members. The reversed ratings for the negative statements were nevertheless on the positive side (with mean values higher than 4), even if the level of agreement was relatively low.

In the parental influence section, participants rated the „I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older“ statement highly (QC13, $\mu = 5.88$). This reflects the concerns of Chinese children for their parents' quality of life when choosing a job. The respondents also rated the „my parents encourage me to pursue a stable career“ statement highly (QC15, $\mu = 5.71$), and agreed that their parents expected them to find stable jobs after graduation. The mean value of QC11 („I think my parents will let me choose my own career“) was 5.55, indicating that the respondents believed that their parents encouraged them to choose their careers freely.

Some of the items in the parental influence section met with low agreement and even disagreement. The respondents agreed least with the „My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me“ (QC5, $\mu = 3.53$) and „I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers“ (QC6, $\mu = 3.63$) statements, suggesting that parents and children are less communicative about hotel industry careers. Moreover, the respondents showed slightly neutral attitudes towards the „I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold“

(QC1, $\mu = 4.07$), „I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry“ (QC2, $\mu = 4.08$) and „I think my parents believe I can be successful working in the hotel industry“ (QC3, $\mu = 4.42$) statements.

Furthermore, the respondents had generally neutral attitudes towards career intention. They rated the „I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry“ (QIn2, $\mu = 4.33$) and „I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation“ (QIn2, $\mu = 4.14$) statements neutrally on average. Moreover, they evaluated whether working in the hotel industry was a correct decision on the negative side (QIn4, $\mu (R) = 3.35$), and did not agree that they would recommend hotel jobs to their friends and relatives (QIn3, $\mu = 3.83$). The respondents thus indicated hesitance about choosing a career in the hotel industry in China.

5.3.3 Individual Measurement Model

The individual measurement model was assessed via EFA and then via CFA. Cross-validation is typically used to assess the generalisability of statistical results to the general population and to prove that the data structure is representative of that population. Either a split sample from the original dataset or a separate fresh sample is required in a cross-validation. A randomly split method is suggested if the original dataset is large enough (Hair et al., 2009).

In this study, the original sample size permitted a random split through the default functions in SPSS. Two sub-datasets with approximately equal cases were attained: one dataset with 369 samples for the EFA and another with 367 cases for the CFA.

EFA was adopted to discover the underlying dimensions. Several criteria were considered: (1) the eigenvalue of each factor had to be greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1960); (2) a factor loading of 0.5 was considered the cut-off point for interpreting each factor (Stevens, 1992); (3) variables cross-loading onto two or more factors had to be dropped (Hair et al., 2009); (4) the average communality had to be greater than 0.5 (variables with very low communality values were considered outliers) (Hair et al., 2009); and (5) a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.6 was the minimum acceptable value in the scale reliability test (Field, 2005).

CFA was performed to assess the factors and their indicators. Hair et al. (2009) suggested that „reporting the chi-square value and degrees of freedom, the CFI or TLI, and the RMSEA will usually provide sufficient unique information to evaluate a model“ (Hair et al., 2009, p. 672). The current study thus reported the chi-square value plus its associated degrees of freedom, which measured the differences between the observed model and estimated covariance matrices. The cut-off point for the χ^2/df was set at 2.0-5.0 (Wheaton et al., 1977). The CFI was also reported to examine how well the estimated statistics fit the alternative model. A CFI equal to or greater than 0.9 indicated a well-fitting model (Bentler, 1992; Kline, 2012). Furthermore, the TLI was reported, combining a measurement of parsimony into a comparative index between the proposed and null models. A TLI greater than 0.8 suggests an acceptable model fit (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Finally, the absolute fit measurement RMSEA was reported to assess how well the models were estimated in the population. An RMSEA value of less than 0.05 indicates a good model fit and a value of less than 0.08 suggests an acceptable fit (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996).

When adjusting the CFA model, two diagnostics generated in the AMOS program were used to identify problems: (1) standardised residuals, which could indicate inaccurate predictions between a pair of items (Hair et al., 2009), and (2) modification indices, which could show misspecification terms in the specified measurement model (Byrne, 2009).

The proposed individual model had latent dimensions. For example, the individual modernity construct had three latent factors, and thus both first- and second-order factor analysis techniques were used to validate the measurement model. The rule of thumb in a second-order CFA is the same as that in a first-order CFA.

The following three principles were adopted for a construct validity test. First, as Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested, if the standardised factor loading of each indicator was over 0.5 with a 95% significance level ($p < 0.05$), then convergent validity could be determined. Second, the AVE indicated the extent to which the indicator represented the latent construct. Although the AVE of each valid construct had a threshold of 0.5, a loose criteria value of 0.4 was also acceptable (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Third, the composite reliability of the multi-item construct had to be assessed at a cut-off point of 0.7 or at least 0.6 (Field, 2005).

5.3.3.1 Measurement Model for Individual Modernity (IMO)

5.3.3.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Individual Modernity (IMO)

EFA was conducted to determine the underlying factors of individual modernity. Indicator QA4 (I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn

twice as much there') was eliminated because its communality value was too low. As shown in Table 5.4, three factors with seven measures were generated and explained 64.19% of the total variance. The factor loadings of each variable were higher than 0.7. The values of the KMO (0.739) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2=611.331$, $df=28$, $p<0.000$) suggested an acceptable result. Again, the structure of the individual modernity construct in the main survey showed discrepancies with the literature (Du, 2005). The result was similar to that found in Pilot Test II. There are two possible reasons for the discrepancy. First, the current survey focused on final-year students who were born in the 1990s. The students in Du's (2005) sample were about 10 years older than those involved in the current study. The young generation often exhibits many traits that are totally different from those of previous generations (Yi, Ribbens, & Morgan, 2010) and modern traits are significantly influenced by demographic characteristics such as age (Liu, 1996). Second, an individual's modern traits are also affected by late-socialisation variables such as the individual's occupation type, mass-media exposure and living standard (Inkeles & Smith, 1975). Thus, it is not surprising to observe discrepancies in the measurement model, in which the respondents exhibited different modern traits. The measurement model of individual modernity was further examined and developed by an empirical study conducted among the young generation.

Table 5.4 EFA Results for Individual Modernity (N=369)

Individual Modernity (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- -nalities
Factor 1: Attitudes towards achievement		2.865	25.68	0.615	
QA1 I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have.	0.865				0.759
QA2 I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others.	0.795				0.701
Factor 2: Openness to new things		1.218	20.07	0.714	
QA3 I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends.	0.754				0.620

Individual Modernity (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- nalities
QA5 I would better understand foreigners' ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country.	0.770				0.793
QA6 I think our society has changed a lot.	0.719				0.788
Factor 3: Attitudes towards social change		1.052	18.44	0.741	
QA7 I think the changes made to our society have been positive.	0.867				0.793
QA8 I think poor people's opportunities to change their economic status have increased.	0.869				0.788
Note: KMO=0.739; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2=611.331$, df=28, $p<0.000$.					

5.3.3.1.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Individual Modernity (IMO)

First-order CFA

The individual modernity construct was then examined via first-order CFA. As indicated in Table 5.5, the results of the first-order CFA model for individual modernity illustrated a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 28.53$, $df = 11$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.59$, CFI=0.97, TLI=0.94, RMSEA=0.07). The factor loadings of each indicator were significant and greater than 0.5. However, the SMC values of some of the variables were less than 0.4, indicating that the latent dimensions explained less than 40% of the variance. Hair et al. (2009) suggested keeping as many of the indicators as possible at this stage of the model testing. Thus, the problematic items were kept for other tests.

Table 5.5 First-order CFA Results for Individual Modernity (N=367)

IMO (N = 367)	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
QA1<--attitudes towards achievement	0.59	4.81	0.55	0.31
QA2<--attitudes towards achievement	1.00	N/A	0.91	0.83
QA3<--openness to new things	0.79	9.00	0.60	0.36
QA5<--openness to new things	0.91	8.81	0.61	0.38
QA6<--openness to new things	1.00	N/A	0.74	0.55
QA7<--attitudes towards social change	1.56	6.21	0.88	0.78
QA8<--attitudes towards social change	1.00	N/A	0.58	0.33
$\chi^2 = 28.53$, $df = 11$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.59$, CFI=0.97, TLI=0.94, RMSEA= 0.07				

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ denotes that t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

Second-order CFA

Because individual modernity has multidimensional constructs, second-order CFA was performed to assess the identification of the related model. Table 5.6 presents the second-order CFA results. The individual modernity construct with three dimensions was assessed with a set of good model fit indices ($\chi^2=28.53$, $df=11$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df=2.59$, $CFI=0.97$, $TLI=0.94$, $RMSEA=0.07$). Each factor was significant with a standardised factor loading greater than 0.5. However, the SMC value for the attitudes towards the achievement factor remained lower than 0.4, indicating that this dimension explained less than 40% of the variance. As all of the other critical model fit indices were statistically significant and acceptable, the factors with lower SMC values were considered acceptable.

Table 5.6 Second-order CFA Results for Individual Modernity (N=367)

	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Attitudes towards achievement<---individual modernity	1.00	N/A	0.55	0.30
Openness to new things<---individual modernity	1.15	5.31	0.88	0.78
Attitudes towards social change<---individual modernity	0.69	4.59	0.64	0.40
$\chi^2 = 28.53$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.59$, $CFI = .97$, $TLI = .94$, $RMSEA = .07$				

Notes: All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ denotes that t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

As indicated in Table 5.7, the construct reliability of each factor ranged from 0.69 to 0.71 and the AVE ranged from 0.43 to 0.57. More specifically, the AVE for the „openness to new things“ dimension was lower than 0.50, within an acceptable level when considering a loose cut-off point of 0.4, as suggested by Diamantopoulos and

Siguaw (2000). Moreover, the AVE was greater than the squared correlation coefficients for the corresponding inter-constructs. For example, the AVE of the „openness to new things“ dimension (0.43) was greater than the value of the corresponding inter-construct squared correlation coefficients (0.31). Thus, discriminant validity was determined (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.7 IMO Correlations (Squared Correlation), Reliability, AVE and Mean (N=367)

Factor	Attitudes towards Achievement	Openness to New Things	Attitudes towards Social Change	IMO
Attitudes towards Achievement	1.00			
Openness to New Things	0.48 (.23)	1.00		
Attitudes towards Social Change	0.35 (.12)	0.56 (.31)	1.00	
Reliability	0.71	0.69	0.71	0.74
AVE	0.57	0.43	0.56	0.50
Mean	5.13	5.68	4.78	5.20

5.3.3.2 Measurement Model for Perceived Hotel Job Image (PHJI)

5.3.3.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Perceived Hotel Job Image (PHJI)

A summary of the EFA results for perceived hotel job image is shown in Table 5.8. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.873. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was 3,286.96, with a significance level of 0.000. The eigenvalues of each factor were higher than 1.0, which was deemed acceptable. All four of the factors represented 65.59% of the total explained variance. Different from the pilot test, the variables (B12-B18) related to the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers were loaded on one dimension instead of three. This might have occurred due to the sample size increase and change in the geographic locations used for the data collection. Moreover, these seven variables shared similarities in explaining one dimension of the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers. The four dimensions were (1) staff

integrity, which explained about 19.99% of the variance and comprised five items representing beliefs about the integrity of hotel staff members; (2) non-routine job nature as perceived by the public, which explained 14.43% of the variance; (3) the prestige and social status of hotel jobs, which explained 12.14% of the variance; and (4) the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers, which explained 19.03% of the variance.

Table 5.8 EFA Results for Perceived Hotel Job Image (N=369)

Perceived Hotel Job Image (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Commu- -nalities
Factor 1. Staff integrity		6.454	19.99	0.891	
B1 Hotel staff members are very helpful.	.823				.740
B2 Hotel staff members are hardworking.	.809				.727
B3 Hotel staff members are very polite.	.772				.742
B4 Hotel staff members are amiable.	.788				.742
B5 Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities.	.734				.660
Factor 2. Non-routine job nature		1.556	14.43	0.783	
B6 Hotel staff members have to work weekends and on public holidays.	.792				.683
B7 Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed.	.684				.668
B8 Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts.	.823				.691
Factor 3. Prestige and social status		1.400	12.14	0.777	
B9 Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. (R)	.813				.680
B10 Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. (R)	.826				.740
B11 Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. (R)	.812				.686
Factor 4. Characteristics and uniqueness of hotel jobs		2.396	19.03	0.846	
B12 Working at a hotel in a large city offers good career development.	.780				.655
B13 The hotel industry is very promising.	.810				.682
B14 Hotel jobs are very challenging.	.566				.569
B15 Hotel jobs are very interesting.	.653				.579
B16 Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment.	.597				.660
B17 Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon.	.598				.463

Perceived Hotel Job Image (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Communi- -calities
B18 Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry.	.504				.439

Note: KMO=0.873; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2 = 3,286.962$, $df=153$, $p<0.000$.

5.3.3.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Perceived Hotel Job Image (PHJI)

First-order CFA

First-order CFA was conducted for the perceived hotel job image construct. According to the goodness-of-fit indices (as shown in Table 5.9), $\chi^2 = 569.63.20$, $df=129$, $p<0.01$, RMSEA=0.10, TLI=0.83, CFI=0.86 and the proposed initial measurement model had an unsatisfactory model fit. The standardised residual and modification indices were reviewed to obtain a better model fit. The standardised residual covariance matrix revealed that QB8 („irregular hours“), QB12 („offers good career development“) and QB17 („be promoted soon“) had large residuals (>2.00), which could have caused a high degree of error. As such, QB8, QB12 and QB17 were dropped. The modification indices (MI) were examined to identify any misspecifications. The error covariance between the error items for e1 (error for QB1, „Hotel staff members are very helpful“) and e2 (error for QB2, „Hotel staff members are hardworking“) was found to be quite large (MI=40.06). However, it was reasonable for a covariance to exist between e1 and e2, as both QB1 and QB2 described hotel staff integrity. Therefore, a covariance line (a double-headed arrow) was added to improve the model fit.

As shown in Table 5.9, the model was re-examined and a more satisfactory result was achieved ($\chi^2=179.29$, $df=83$, $p=0.000$, $\chi^2/df=2.16$, CFI=0.96, TLI=0.95, RMSEA=0.06). The factor loadings of each indicator were significant and greater than 0.5 with the exception of QB6 (Std FL=0.44). Some variables had SMC values less

than 0.4, suggesting that they were problematic indicators. However, following the recommendation of Hair et al. (2009) to keep as many variables as possible, the minor problematic items were kept for further tests.

Table 5.9 Initial and Respecified First-order CFA Model of Perceived Hotel Job Image (N=367)

Initial PHJI Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Factor 1				
QB1<--Integrity	1.05	13.15	0.77	0.59
QB2<--Integrity	1.08	13.18	0.77	0.59
QB3<--Integrity	1.13	14.34	0.85	0.72
QB4<--Integrity	1.17	14.63	0.86	0.75
QB5<--Integrity	1.00	N/A	0.68	0.46
Factor 2				
QB6<--Non-routine	1.00	8.72	0.58	0.34
QB7<--Non-routine	1.11	5.83	0.77	0.60
QB8<--Non-routine	1.00	N/A	0.60	0.36
Factor 3				
QB9<--Prestige	0.94	13.29	0.69	0.48
QB10<--Prestige	1.36	13.94	0.95	0.90
QB11<--Prestige	1.00	N/A	0.75	0.56
Factor 4				
QB12<--Characteristics	0.99	9.76	0.65	0.43
QB13<--Characteristics	1.13	10.11	0.68	0.46
QB14<--Characteristics	1.15	10.42	0.68	0.47
QB15<--Characteristics	1.17	10.03	0.65	0.42
QB16<--Characteristics	1.05	10.03	0.63	0.40
QB17<--Characteristics	1.08	10.72	0.66	0.43
QB18<--Characteristics	1.00	N/A	0.63	0.40
$\chi^2 = 569.63.20$, $df=129$, $p<0.01$, $\chi^2/df = 4.42$, TLI=0.83, CFI=0.86, RMSEA=0.10				
Respecified PHJI Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Factor 1				
QB1<--Integrity	0.99	12.57	0.73	0.53
QB2<--Integrity	1.02	12.58	0.73	0.53
QB3<--Integrity	1.15	14.43	0.87	0.75
QB4<--Integrity	1.18	14.68	0.87	0.76
QB5<--Integrity	1.00	N/A	0.68	0.46
Factor 2				
QB6<--Non-routine	0.60	5.71	0.44	0.20
QB7<--Non-routine	1.00	N/A	0.89	0.78
Factor 3				
QB9<--Prestige	0.94	13.37	0.70	0.49
QB10<--Prestige	1.34	14.27	0.94	0.89
QB11<--Prestige	1.00	N/A	0.75	0.56
Factor 4				
QB13<--Characteristics	1.06	8.99	0.60	0.37
QB14<--Characteristics	1.31	10.07	0.74	0.55

Respecified PHJI Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
QB15<--Characteristics	1.23	9.32	0.64	0.42
QB16<--Characteristics	1.18	9.74	0.67	0.45
QB18<--Characteristics	1.00	N/A	0.60	0.36

$\chi^2 = 179.29$, $df = 83$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.16$, $CFI=0.96$, $TLI=0.95$, $RMSEA= 0.06$

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ denotes that t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

Second-order CFA

Second-order CFA was performed to examine the model identification status of the higher perceived hotel job image level. As shown in Table 5.10, although the initial second-order model presented a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 186.67$, $df = 85$, $p < 0.00$, $\chi^2/df = 2.20$, $CFI = 0.96$, $TLI = 0.95$, $RMSEA = 0.06$), the standardised factor loadings for Factor 3, „Prestige“, were only 0.08, extremely low compared with the cut-off point of 0.5. Therefore, Factor 3 was removed along with its three indicators. The model was re-run and its reliability was examined again.

As shown in Table 5.10, in the respecified model, the model fit decreased a little but remained at an acceptable level ($\chi^2 = 113.92$, $df = 50$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.28$, $CFI = 0.95$, $TLI = 0.94$, $RMSEA = 0.07$). All three of the factors were significant, with critical ratio values (t-value) higher than 1.96, suggesting that the measures reflected the theoretical construct well (Hair et al., 2009). The standardised factor loadings of each component were greater than 0.7. Moreover, as indicated by the SMC values, more than 50% of the variance could be explained by each factor.

Table 5.10 Initial and Respecified Second-order CFA Model of Perceived Hotel Job Image (N=367)

Initial Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Integrity<---PHJI	6.44	1.29	0.77	0.60
Non-routine<---PHJI	7.09	1.28	0.73	0.54

Initial Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Prestige<---PHJI	1.00	N/A	0.08	0.01
Characteristics<---PHJI	5.44	1.29	0.78	0.61

$\chi^2 = 186.67$, $df=85$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.20$, CFI = 0.96, TLI=0.95, RMSEA = 0.06

Respecified Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Integrity<---PHJI	1.19	6.97	0.77	0.60
Non-routine<---PHJI	1.32	7.67	0.74	0.55
Characteristics<---PHJI	1.00	N/A	0.78	0.60

$\chi^2 = 113.92$, $df=50$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.28$, CFI = 0.95, TLI=0.94, RMSEA = 0.07

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ denotes that t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

The construct reliability and validity were also assessed. As indicated in Table 5.11, the composite reliability values of each factor were 0.88, 0.65 and 0.79, respectively, and the reliability for perceived hotel job image was 0.81. The AVE values ranged from 0.43 to 0.61. The AVE value for the „characteristics“ factor was lower than 0.5, which could be considered acceptable (Diamantopoulos & Sigua, 2000). Discriminant validity was determined by comparing the AVE and squared correlation values. As shown in Table 5.11, the AVE value for the three components was greater than the inter-construct squared correlation coefficients.

Table 5.11 PHJI Correlations (Squared Correlation), Reliability, AVE and Mean (N=367)

Factor	Integrity	Non-routine Job Nature	Characteristics	PHJI
Integrity	1.00			
Non-routine job nature	0.58 (0.34)	1.00		
Characteristics	0.60 (0.36)	0.58 (0.34)	1.00	
Reliability	0.88	0.65	0.79	0.81
AVE	0.61	0.52	0.43	0.58
Mean	4.78	5.46	4.83	5.02

5.3.3.3 Measurement Model for Parental Influence (PIN)

5.3.3.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Parental Influence (PIN)

The parental influence measurement was adopted from previous literature (Wong & Liu, 2010). As the sample coverage was enlarged in the main survey and the research focus was shifted to parental influence on hotel job intention, EFA was performed on the current sample to examine the instruments ($N=369$).

According to the EFA results, item QC17 („I think my parents“ work values will influence mine“) had a low factor loading (less than 0.4). As such, the item was removed. As shown in Table 5.12, the KMO was 0.871, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was 3,824.997, with a significance level of 0.000. The eigenvalue of each factor was higher than 1.0 and therefore well accepted. The reliability coefficients ranged from 0.73 to 0.90, determining the internal consistency of the constructs. Thus, all of the remaining 16 variables were kept for the CFA validation. The results of the main survey were different from those of Wong and Liu’s (2010) study. Only 16 items loading onto four dimensions were validated by the EFA, perhaps due to the differences in the chosen survey sample and the shifting of the research focus.

Table 5.12 EFA Results for Parental Influence ($N=369$)

Parental Influence ($N = 369$)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Communi- -calities
Factor 1. Parental support		6.42	20.92	0.896	
C1 I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold.	0.846				0.756
C2 I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry.	0.890				0.813
C3 I think my parents believe I can be successful working in the hotel industry.	0.832				0.766
C4 I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning.	0.778				0.670
C5 My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me.	0.722				0.651

Parental Influence (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Communi- -calities
C6 I think my parents have been accurately informed about hotel industry careers.	0.668				0.661
Factor 2. Parental involvement		1.23	10.44	0.730	
C7 My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training.	0.677				0.573
C8 My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career.	0.714				0.669
C9 My parents encourage me to work in a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills.	0.607				0.648
Factor 3. Parental encouragement		1.59	13.75	0.904	
C10 My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in.	0.814				0.827
C11 I think my parents will let me choose my own career.	0.856				0.833
C12 My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities.	0.814				0.809
Factor 4. Transmission of Chinese parental values		3.16	15.13	0.812	
C13 I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older.	0.793				0.718
C14 I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends.	0.719				0.618
C15 My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career.	0.745				0.620
C16 I consider my parents' opinions when making my career choices	0.691				0.629
Note: KMO=0.871; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2=3,824.997$, $df=171$, $p<0.000$.					

5.3.3.3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Parental Influence (PIN)

First-order CFA

One separate dataset ($N=367$) was used in the CFA for the parental influence construct. Table 5.13 illustrates the first-order CFA results. Although the goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2=330.36$, $df=98$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df=3.37$, $CFI=0.91$, $TLI=0.89$, $RMSEA=0.08$) fell within an acceptable level, four items (QC5, QC6, QC8, QC15 and QC16) had SMC values less than 40%, indicating that their corresponding explained little of the variance. However, the factor loadings for each variable were significant and greater

than 0.5. Thus, all of the indicators were kept for a higher-level test.

Table 5.13 First-order CFA Results for Parental Influence (N=367)

PIN (N = 367)	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Factor 1				
QC1<--Support	1.41	10.75	0.76	0.58
QC2<--Support	1.60	11.70	0.88	0.78
QC3<--Support	1.38	10.96	0.80	0.64
QC4<--Support	1.29	10.43	0.72	0.52
QC5<--Support	1.12	9.20	0.58	0.33
QC6<--Support	1.00	N/A	0.58	0.33
Factor 2				
QC7<--Involvement	0.92	10.67	0.67	0.45
QC8<--Involvement	0.91	9.81	0.62	0.38
QC9<--Involvement	1.00	N/A	0.77	0.59
Factor 3				
QC10<--Encouragement	1.05	18.14	0.87	0.75
QC11<--Encouragement	1.00	17.71	0.82	0.68
QC12<--Encouragement	1.00	N/A	0.84	0.71
Factor 4				
QC13<--Transmissions	1.29	9.58	0.76	0.58
QC14<--Transmissions	1.46	9.59	0.73	0.53
QC15<--Transmissions	1.08	8.82	0.59	0.35
QC16<--Transmissions	1.00	N/A	0.60	0.36

$\chi^2=330.36$, $df=98$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df=3.37$, $CFI=0.91$, $TLI=0.89$, $RMSEA=0.08$

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ denotes t-values were not available for those items with the parameter fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

Second-order CFA

The first-order latent dimensions were treated as indicators in the second-order CFA. Four indicators (parental support, parental involvement, parental encouragement and transmission of Chinese parental values) were examined. As indicated in Table 5.14, the model fit was poor but within an acceptable level ($\chi^2=356.95$, $df=100$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df=3.57$, $CFI=0.90$, $TLI=0.88$, $RMSEA=0.08$). However, both the factor loading (0.42) and SMC value (0.18) for Factor 1 („parental support“) were lower than the satisfactory level. This suggests that the factor explained less than 20% of the variance. Wong and Liu (2010) found the „parental support“ factor to be significantly related to

the career intentions of hospitality students (with a high coefficient number of 0.651). Hence, the factor might have had an influential effect on students' career intentions in the structural model. Consequently, this factor was kept for further examination.

Table 5.14 Second-order CFA Results for Parental Influence (N=367)

Model	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC
Support<---PIN	0.40	5.12	0.42	0.18
Involvement<---PIN	0.91	6.55	0.78	0.61
Encouragement<---PIN	1.00	N/A	0.82	0.67
Transmissions<---PIN	0.43	6.09	0.57	0.33

$\chi^2=356.95$, $df=100$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.57$, CFI=0.90, TLI=0.88, RMSEA=0.08

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ indicates that the t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

As indicated in Table 5.15, the composite reliability coefficients for each factor ranged from 0.73 to 0.88, and the reliability coefficient for the PIN construct was 0.75, implying adequate construct reliability. The AVE values for the „parental involvement“ and „transmission of Chinese parental values“ dimensions were 0.47 and 0.46, respectively, a little lower than the cut-off point of 0.5 suggested by Hair et al. (2009) but higher than the loose cut-off point of 0.4 suggested by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000). Discriminant validity was achieved when comparing the AVE coefficients and the squared correlation values. The AVE values for the three components were greater than the squared correlation coefficients. Thus, it can be concluded that both discriminant and convergent validity were achieved for this indicator.

Table 5.15 PIN Correlations (Squared Correlation), Reliability, AVE and Mean (N=367)

Factor	Support	Involvement	Encouragement	Transmissions	PIN
Support	1.00				
Involvement	0.33 (.11)	1.00			
Encouragement	0.34 (.12)	0.64 (.41)	1.00		
Transmissions	0.24 (.06)	0.44 (.20)	0.47 (.22)	1.00	
Reliability	0.87	0.73	0.88	0.77	0.75
AVE	0.53	0.47	0.71	0.46	0.44
Mean	4.08	4.91	5.48	5.37	5.25

5.3.3.4 Measurement Model for Career Intentions (CIN)

5.3.3.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Career Intentions (CIN)

The career intentions measurement was borrowed from Teng (2008) and involved four indicators. EFA with varimax rotation was conducted to discover the underlying constructs. All four of the items loaded onto one dimension, explaining 68.57% of the total variance. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, meaning that the correlation patterns were compact and the factor was reliable (Field, 2005). However, the communality coefficient of QIn4 (,It would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path") was only 0.328. Moreover, the results of the scale reliability test suggested that the Cronbach's alpha value could be increased from 0.842 to 0.901 if QIn4 were deleted. Therefore, QIn4 was removed from the CIN. As shown in Table 5.16, all of the figures indicated the internal consistency of the dimensions. These three variables were used for the overall measurement model test.

Table 5.16 EFA Results for Career Intentions (N=369)

Career Intention (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Communalities
Factor 1. Career intention		2.74	68.57	0.901	
In1 I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation.	0.912				0.831

Career Intention (N = 369)	Factor Loading	Eigen- value	Var. (%)	Reliability Coefficient	Communi- -calities
In2 I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry.	0.925				0.855
In3 I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives.	0.853				0.728

Note: KMO =.765; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi^2=798.346$, df=6, $p<0.000$.

5.3.3.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Career Intentions (CIN)

CFA was used to examine the career intentions measurement model with three indicators. Because the CIN had a single-layer construct, only a first-order CFA was performed. When running the CFA model, the AMOS results suggested the following: “the model has zero degrees of freedom. The model should fit the data perfectly, and the chi-square statistic should be zero. Consequently, no probability level can be assigned to the chi-square statistic, then the probability level cannot be computed” (Haque, Rahman, & Khatibi, 2010, p. 36). The indices indicated the adequate fit of the model.

As illustrated in Table 5.17, the factor loadings of each variable ranged from 0.78 to 0.92, and the SMC value was greater than 0.61. Both the composite reliability (0.90) and AVE (0.76) met the sufficient levels of acceptance.

Table 5.17 First-order CFA Results for Career Intentions (N=367)

	Estimate	t-value	Std FL	SMC	Composite Reliability	AVE	Mean
Career Intention-->In1	1.00	N/A	0.92	0.84			
Career Intention-->In2	0.97	23.40	0.90	0.82			
Career Intention-->In3	0.77	19.15	0.78	0.61			
Career Intention					0.90	0.76	4.10

$\chi^2=0.00$, df=0, probability level could not be computed, CFI=1.00

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p<0.000$.

„Std FL“ denotes standardised factor loading.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ indicates that t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

5.3.4 Overall Measurement Model

Testing the construct validity of each individual measurement model (IMO, PHJI, PIN and CIN) was a prerequisite for assessing the overall measurement model (Hair et al., 2009). The constructs of individual modernity, perceived hotel job image and parental influence were treated as second-order constructs. More specifically, individual modernity included three dimensions: attitudes towards achievement, openness to new things and attitudes towards social change. The perceived hotel job image also included three dimensions: integrity, non-routine job nature and job characteristics. Parental influence included four dimensions: parental support, parental involvement, parental encouragement and the transmission of Chinese parental values. The fourth key construct was career intention, which was defined as a single-layer construct because it had only three indicators. The entire dataset ($N=736$) was used to test the overall measurement model.

As shown in Table 5.18, the model fit indices for the initial model ($\chi^2 = 2,349.26$, $df = 649$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.62$, $CFI = 0.88$, $TLI = 0.87$, $RMSEA = 0.060$) suggested an acceptable but slightly poor model fit, indicating that the model did not fit the data very well. The modification indices indicated that the overall model fit could be improved by drawing covariances between the error terms. For example, the MI for the correlations between errors 12 (QC5) and 13 (QC6) was 141.225, and that between errors 25 (QB1) and 26 (QB2) was 96.162. Both QC5 („my parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me“) and QC6 („I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers“) described parents“ support of their children“s careers in the hotel industry. Thus, the measurement errors were respecified to improve the model fit.

Furthermore, because QB1 („hotel staff members are very helpful“) and QB2 („hotel staff members are hardworking“) both referred to the integrity of hotel staff members, it was reasonable to draw a double-headed arrow between e25 and e26. A better model fit was achieved by adding the covariance between the measurement errors.

Table 5.18 presents the results of the respecified overall measurement model test. The ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom decreased to 3.24, and all of the other model indices increased slightly ($\chi^2 = 2,086.168$, $df = 647$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.24$, CFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.89, RMSEA = 0.055). All of the standardised factor loadings were statistically significant with a coefficient greater than 0.5, except the „parental support“ dimension under parental influence, which had a standardised factor loading of 0.44. Moreover, the SMC values for the „attitudes towards achievement“ and „attitudes towards social change“ factors under individual modernity and the „parental support“ factor under parental influence were less than 0.4.

Table 5.18 Overall Measurement Model (N=736)

Initial Model	Estimate	t-value	Std. Factor Loading	SMC
Attitudes towards achievement<---IMO	1.24	7.46	0.52	0.27
Openness to new things <---IMO	1.59	8.26	0.95	0.90
Attitudes towards social change<---IMO	1.00	N/A	0.57	0.33
Support<---PIN	0.71	7.39	0.44	0.20
Involvement<---PIN	1.61	10.98	0.79	0.62
Encouragement<---PIN	1.70	11.22	0.79	0.62
Transmissions<---PIN	1.00	N/A	0.70	0.49
Integrity<---PHJI	1.00	N/A	0.69	0.48
Non-routine nature<---PHJI	0.89	9.67	0.77	0.59
Characteristics<---PHJI	1.03	11.64	0.92	0.85
QIn1<---CIN	1.00	N/A	0.92	0.84
QIn2<---CIN	0.98	34.40	0.91	0.84
QIn3<---CIN	0.77	26.03	0.76	0.57

$\chi^2 = 2,349.26$, $df = 649$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.62$, CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.87, RMSEA = 0.060

Respecified Mode	Estimate	t-value	Std. Factor Loading	SMC
Attitudes towards achievement<---IMO	1.25	7.44	0.52	0.27
Openness to new things<---IMO	1.61	8.24	0.95	0.90
Attitudes towards social change<---IMO	1.00	N/A	0.57	0.33
Support<---PIN	0.67	7.30	0.44	0.20
Involvement<---PIN	1.60	10.98	0.78	0.61
Encouragement<---PIN	1.70	11.22	0.79	0.62
Transmissions<---PIN	1.00	N/A	0.70	0.49
Integrity<---PHJI	1.00	N/A	0.70	0.48
Non-routine nature<---PHJI	0.94	9.52	0.77	0.59
Characteristics<---PHJI	1.09	11.37	0.92	0.85
QIn1<---CIN	1.00	N/A	0.92	0.84
QIn2<---CIN	0.98	34.40	0.91	0.84
QIn3<---CIN	0.77	26.03	0.76	0.57

$\chi^2 = 2,086.168$, $df = 647$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.24$, $CFI = 0.90$, $TLI = 0.89$, $RMSEA = 0.055$

All of the factor loadings are significant at $p < 0.000$.

„SMC“ denotes squared multiple correlations.

„N/A“ indicates that t-values were not available for items with parameters fixed at 1 for identification purposes.

The construct validity of the overall measurement model was then assessed. As displayed in Table 5.19, the AVE values for IMO, PHJI and CIN exceeded 0.4, which was an acceptable level suggested by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000). Meanwhile, the squared correlation coefficients for the corresponding inter-constructs were equal to or lower than the AVE values, suggesting that discriminant validity of the measurement was achieved. The composite reliability coefficient ranged from 0.74 to 0.90, indicating that construct reliability was also achieved (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.19 Overall Measurement Model Correlations (Squared Correlation), Reliability and AVE (N=736)

Factor	IMO	PIN	PHJI	CIN
IMO	1.00			
PIN	0.71 (.50)	1.00		
PHJI	0.68 (.46)	0.67 (.45)	1.00	
CIN	0.23 (.05)	0.25 (.06)	0.46 (.21)	1.00
Reliability	0.74	0.78	0.84	0.90
AVE	0.50	0.48	0.64	0.75
Mean	5.26	4.84	4.94	4.10
Std. Deviation	0.69	0.71	0.72	1.21

5.3.5 Structural Model

With the acceptable overall measurement model determined, the proposed structural model could be assessed. The aim of testing the structural model was to identify whether the data empirically rejected the proposed hypotheses. As presented in Figure 5.1, both IMO and PIN were proposed as exogenous variables, and PHJI and CIN were proposed as endogenous variables. The study thus aimed to assess the hypothesised theoretical relationships (H1-H5) between IMO and CIN, PIN and CIN, PHJI and CIN, IMO and PHJI, and PIN and PHJI. Moreover, the mediating effect (H6-H7) of PHJI on the relationships between IMO and CIN and between PIN and CIN were also examined. The structural model was finally tested using the entire dataset ($N=736$) via the AMOS software.

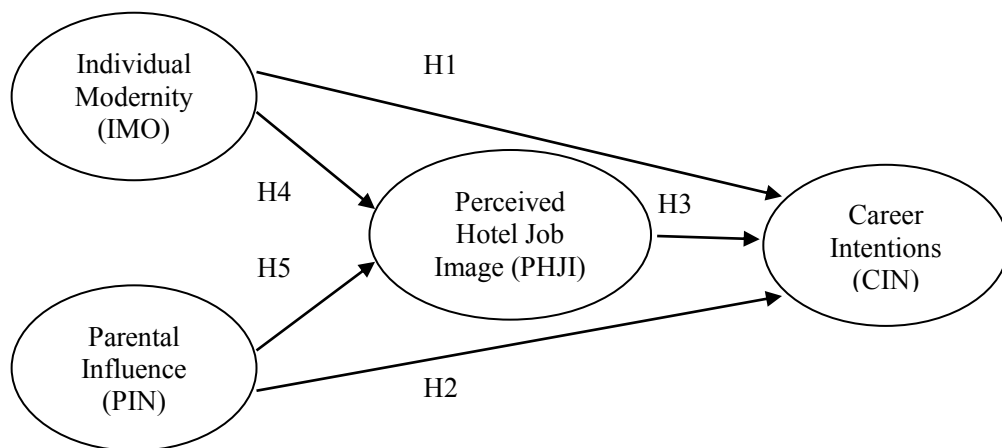


Figure 5.1 Proposed Structural Model

The model fit indices indicated that the proposed structural model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 2,086.168$, $df = 647$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.24$, $CFI = 0.90$, $TLI = 0.89$, $RMSEA = 0.055$). Compared with the overall measurement model fit, the fit indices of both the measurement and structural models were exactly the same, implying the validity of the structural theory. This essentially means that the structural model adequately explained

the inter-construct relationships (Hair et al., 2009).

The proposed structural path estimates were subsequently assessed, and Table 5.20 summarises the results. As portrayed in the visual diagram (Figure 5.2), five proposed hypotheses were significant at the 0.01 level and two hypotheses were rejected by the empirical data.

H1: Individual modernity is likely to have a positive effect on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

Hypothesis 1 was examined by checking the path coefficient between the independent (individual modernity) and dependent (career intention) variables. As shown in Table 5.20, the coefficient for the path from individual modernity to career intentions was -0.144 and the t-value (CR) was -1.645, indicating that the regression weight for IMO in the CIN prediction was not significantly different from zero with a 95% confidence interval (Hair et al., 2009). Finally, the proposed relationship between individual modernity and career intentions was statistically insignificant. In other words, individual modernity had an insignificant effect on career intention, and thus Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

H2: Parental influence is likely to have a positive effect on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

Hypothesis 2 was tested by assessing the path coefficient between the independent (parental influence) and dependent (career intention) variables. As presented in Table 5.20, the coefficient for the path from parental influence to career intentions was -0.048 and the t-value (CR) was -0.588 (greater than -1.96), indicating that the

proposed relationship between parental influence and career intentions was statistically insignificant with a 95% confidence interval. In other words, parental influence had an insignificant effect on career intention. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

H3: Perceived hotel job image is likely to have a positive effect on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry.

Hypothesis 3 was tested by examining the path coefficient between the independent (perceived hotel job image) and dependent (career intention) variables. As presented in Table 5.20, the coefficient for the path from perceived hotel job image to career intentions was 0.59, and the t-value (CR) was 7.19 (exceeding 1.96), indicating that the proposed relationship between the two was statistically significant with a 95% confidence interval. In other words, the perceived hotel job image had a significant positive effect on career intention. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

H4: Individual modernity is likely to have a positive effect on perceived hotel job image.

Hypothesis 4 was tested by evaluating the path coefficient between the independent (individual modernity) and dependent (perceived hotel job image) variables. As presented in Table 5.20, the coefficient for the path from individual modernity to perceived hotel job image was 0.42 and the t-value (CR) was 4.65 (exceeding 1.96), indicating that the proposed relationship between the two was statistically significant with a 95% confidence interval. In other words, individual modernity had a significant positive effect on perceived hotel job image. Hypothesis 4 was thus supported.

H5: Parental influence is likely to have a positive effect on perceived hotel job

image.

Hypothesis 5 was tested by evaluating the path coefficient between the independent (parental influence) and dependent (perceived hotel job image) variables. As presented in Table 5.20, the coefficient for the path from parental influence to the perceived hotel job image was 0.37 and the t-value (CR) was 4.53 (exceeding 1.96), indicating that the proposed relationship between the two was statistically significant with a 95% confidence interval. In other words, parental influence had a significant positive effect on the perceived hotel job image. As a result, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

H6. Perceived hotel job image is likely to have a mediating effect between individual modernity and career intention.

MacKinnon, Warsi and Dwyer (1995) suggested a formula for calculating an indirect effect: indirect effect = $a \times b$, where a is the path coefficient of the exogenous variable and the mediator and b is the path coefficient of the mediator and endogenous variable. In the current study, the coefficient for the indirect effect of individual modernity on career intentions was accordingly 0.25 (Table 5.20). Furthermore, Sobel (1982) developed a statistically based method for judging the significance of a mediating effect. Based on Sobel's test results, the t-value (CR) was 3.91 (exceeding 1.96), suggesting that the proposed mediating effect of the perceived hotel job image on the relationship between individual modernity and career intentions was statistically significant. In other words, perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationship between individual modernity and students' career intentions. Hypothesis 6 was thus supported.

H7. Perceived hotel job image is likely to have a mediating effect on the

relationship between parental influence and career intention.

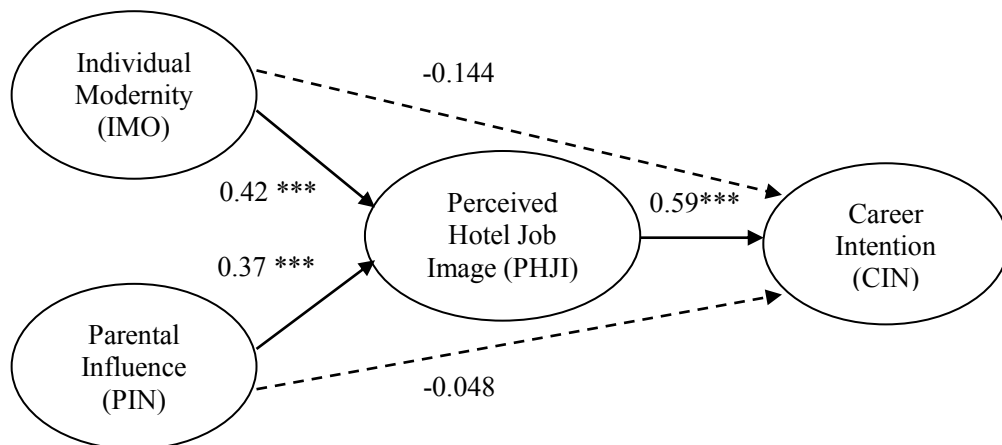
Hypothesis 7 was tested by evaluating the path coefficient of the indirect effect between parental influence and career intention. As presented in Table 5.20, the indirect coefficient effect was 0.22 and the t-value was 3.86 (exceeding 1.96), indicating that the proposed mediating effect of perceived hotel job image on the relationship between parental influence and career intentions was statistically significant. In other words, perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationship between parental influence and career intention. Hypothesis 7 was thus supported.

Table 5.20 Hypotheses Testing Results for the Structural Model (N=736)

Hypotheses	IMO, PIN, PHJI and CIN (N = 736)	Standardised Coefficient	t-value	Results
H1	IMO --> CIN	-0.144	-1.645	Not Supported
H2	PIN --> CIN	-0.048	-0.588	Not Supported
H3	PHJI --> CIN	0.59	7.19***	Supported
H4	IMO --> PHJI	0.42	4.65***	Supported
H5	PIN --> PHJI	0.37	4.53***	Supported
H6	Mediating effect of PHJI on the relationship between IMO and CIN.	0.25	3.91***	Supported
H7	Mediating effect of PHJI on the relationship between PIN and CIN.	0.22	3.86***	Supported

$\chi^2 = 2,086.168$, $df = 647$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 3.24$, $CFI = 0.90$, $TLI = 0.89$, $RMSEA = 0.055$

Note: *** significant at $p < 0.01$; ** significant at $p < 0.05$.



Note: → denotes a significant relationship between the constructs;

--► denotes an insignificant relationship between the constructs.

Figure 5.2 Structural Model with Estimated Path Coefficients

In summary, the structural model test supported five of the proposed hypotheses were supported. Three direct effects (the effects of individual modernity on perceived hotel job image, parental influence on perceived hotel job image and perceived hotel job image on career intention) were statistically supported. Two indirect effects (on the relationships between individual modernity and career intentions and between parental influence and career intention) were also supported. In other words, perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationships between individual modernity and career intentions and between parental influence and career intention.

5.3.6 Multi-group Invariance Analysis

To determine the presence of invariance in the proposed model across different demographic groups, the model was tested with multi-group invariance techniques using the AMOS software. Six variables were tested via multi-group invariance analysis, including gender (female and male respondents), study stream (tourism and hotel streams), choice of study major according to university entrance exams (first and non-first choices), internship experience (experienced and non-experienced), residential (*Hukou*) status (city and agricultural status) and family members' occupations (working at hotels and not working at hotels).

As Hair et al. (2009) suggested, a two-step testing procedure was adopted in the multi-group invariance analysis, including (1) measurement model invariance testing to assess whether the measurement model showed significant differences across different groups and (2) structural model invariance testing. Step 1 was a prerequisite

for step 2. In other words, the measurement model had to be equivalent across the different sample groups before the structural model invariance could be evaluated. Otherwise, there would have been no need to do so.

5.3.6.1 Multi-group Invariance Analysis: Gender

The survey asked for the demographic information of the respondents, a group comprising 592 females and 144 males. A multi-group analysis technique was applied to test whether the proposed model was significantly different when applied across two gender groups (female vs. male respondents). A poor but acceptable goodness of model fit was achieved ($\chi^2 = 2,883.97$, $df = 1294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.23$, CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.04). The model comparison indices were then examined ($\Delta\chi^2=32.25$, $\Delta df=27$, $p=0.22>0.05$). The invariance of the measurement model across the female and male groups was statistically not rejected, indicating that the measurement models used across the two gender groups were equivalent. Thus, it was deemed that the structural model invariance across the gender groups could be evaluated.

The structural invariance was further assessed. The baseline structural model generated a set of model fit indices, which were the same as those in the measurement model ($\chi^2 = 2,883.97$, $df = 1294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.23$, CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.04). The chi-square differences and significance levels were then checked via a comparison of the constrained and unconstrained models. The results ($\Delta\chi^2=32.25$, $\Delta df=27$, $p =0.22>0.05$) showed an insignificant difference in terms of the structural models used across the female and male groups.

5.3.6.2 Multi-group Invariance Analysis: Study Major

One hundred and eighty-four respondents studying in the hotel stream and five hundred and fifty-two respondents studying in the tourism stream participated in the main survey. The overall sample was divided into hotel ($N=184$) and tourism ($N=552$) groups according to the variable of the chosen study major. The multi-group invariance was tested across the two groups. According to the model fit generated by the AMOS results ($\chi^2 = 2,850.37$, $df = 1294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.20$, $CFI = 0.89$, $TLI = 0.88$, $RMSEA = 0.04$), the measurement model showed an acceptable fit. The differences in chi-square and degrees of freedom were examined by reviewing the results under a „model comparison“ using the AMOS software. The results indicated significant differences in the chi-square values of the two models ($\Delta\chi^2=46.65$, $\Delta df=27$, $p=0.01 < 0.05$), indicating that the invariance of the measurement models used across the two groups was rejected. Thus, structural invariance could not be further evaluated across the two groups.

5.3.6.3 Multi-group Invariance Analysis: Choices of Study Major on University Entrance Exam

The survey asked respondents about the decisions they made when choosing their majors on their university entrance exams. Two hundred and sixty-six of the respondents indicated that „studying a hotel or tourism major“ was their first choice when applying for university, and the other four hundred and seventy indicated that it was not their first choice. Multi-group analysis was conducted to check whether the proposed model performed significantly differently across these two groups. An acceptable goodness of model fit was achieved ($\chi^2 = 2,897.329$, $df = 1294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.24$, $CFI = 0.89$, $TLI = 0.88$, $RMSEA = 0.04$). The model comparison indices were then examined ($\Delta\chi^2=33.81$, $\Delta df=27$, $p=0.172 > 0.05$). The invariance of the measurement model was accepted, implying equivalence in the measurement models

across the two groups. The measurement invariance allowed a further statistical test of the equivalence of the structural model to be conducted across the two groups.

The structural invariance across the two groups (hotel and tourism major as first choice vs. hotel and tourism major as subsequent choice) was further examined. The baseline structural model generated the same model fit as the measurement model ($\chi^2=2,897.329$, $df=1,294$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df=2.24$, $CFI=0.89$, $TLI=0.88$, $RMSEA=0.04$). The differences in chi-square values and significance levels were then assessed by comparing the constrained and unconstrained models. According to the results ($\Delta\chi^2=33.81$, $\Delta df=27$, $p=0.17>0.05$), an insignificant difference was found in the structural models used across the two groups in relation to the choices of study majors made during university entrance exams.

5.3.6.4 Multi-group Invariance Analysis: Internship Experience

Multi-group invariance was also determined for the internship experience groups. The respondents with ($N=448$) and without ($N=288$) hotel internship experience were divided into two groups. The model fit results showed an acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 2,842.73$, $df = 1,294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.20$, $CFI = 0.89$, $TLI = 0.88$, $RMSEA = 0.04$). Furthermore, differences in the chi-square values and degrees of freedom were examined. The results indicated that there were significant differences in the chi-squares of the two models ($\Delta\chi^2 = 54.00$, $\Delta df = 27$, $p=0.00<0.05$). This implies that there was a significant difference in the measurement models used across the two groups. Thus, the structural invariance of the model could not be further evaluated across the two groups.

5.3.6.5 Multi-group Invariance Analysis: *Hukou* Status

The respondents' *Hukou* status (urban or agricultural residents in China's household registration system) was investigated in the main study. Four hundred and twenty-seven respondents reported having urban *Hukou* status before entering university, and the other three hundred and nine came from rural areas. Multi-group analysis was performed to identify the differences in the measurement models used across the two groups (urban vs. agricultural status). First, the model generated an acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 2,885.88$, $df = 1,294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.23$, $CFI = 0.89$, $TLI = 0.88$, $RMSEA = 0.04$). Next, an insignificant difference was found in the chi-square values ($\Delta\chi^2 = 35.38$, $\Delta df = 27$, $p = 0.13 > 0.05$). As such, the structural model could be further assessed to identify the invariance across the two sample groups.

Multi-group invariance analysis was subsequently conducted across the two sample groups (urban and agricultural *Hukou* status). The model fit for a baseline structural model was achieved ($\chi^2 = 2,885.88$, $df = 1,294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.23$, $CFI = 0.89$, $TLI = 0.88$, $RMSEA = 0.04$). The results were exactly the same as those for the measurement model multi-group analysis. The differences in chi-square values and their significance levels were determined by comparing the two models ($\Delta\chi^2 = 35.38$, $\Delta df = 27$, $p = 0.13 > 0.05$). An insignificant difference was found in the structural models used across the two groups. Therefore, the structural model invariance across the two sample groups was not rejected.

5.3.6.6 Multi-group Invariance Analysis: Family Members Working in Hotels

Information related to whether the respondents' family members worked in the hotel industry was collected via the survey. Only 118 respondents stated that they had family members working in the industry. The other 618 reportedly had no family members

working there. First, multi-group analysis was conducted to determine the measurement models used across the two sample groups (family members working in the hotel industry vs. no family members working in the hotel industry). The model fit was found to be acceptable ($\chi^2 = 2,969.47$, $df=1,294$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.30$, CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.89, RMSEA = 0.04). Moreover, by reviewing the model comparison indices ($\Delta\chi^2=11.18$, $\Delta df=7$, $p =0.13>0.05$), insignificant differences were found in the measurement models used across the two groups. Thus, the structural model could be further evaluated.

To identify the multi-group invariance in the structural models used across the two groups (family members/no family members working in the hotel industry), the procedure explained earlier was repeated. The structural model generated the same result as that of the measurement model ($\chi^2=2,969.47$, $df=1,294$, $p<0.000$, $\chi^2/df=2.30$, CFI=0.88, TLI=0.89, RMSEA=0.04). The difference in chi-square values was checked and found to be insignificant ($\Delta\chi^2=34.53$, $\Delta df =27$, $p=0.15>0.05$), suggesting the presence of structural model invariances across the two groups. Table 5.21 summarises the results of the multi-group invariance test.

Table 5.21 Results of Multi-group Invariance Analysis (N=736)

Demographic Groups	Measurement Model Testing	Structural Model Testing
Gender (Female and Male)	The invariance of the measurement models used across two groups is not rejected	The invariance of the structural models used across two groups is not rejected
Study major (Tourism stream and Hotel stream)	The invariance of the measurement models used across two groups is rejected	The invariance of the structural models used across two groups could not be further evaluated
Choice of study major made during university entrance exam (First choice and Non-first choice)	The invariance of the measurement models used across two groups is not rejected	The invariance of the structural models used across two groups is not rejected
Internship experience (Internship experience and No internship experience)	The invariance of the measurement models used across two groups is rejected	The invariance of the structural models used across two groups could not be further evaluated

Demographic Groups	Measurement Model Testing	Structural Model Testing
Residential (<i>Hukou</i>) status (City and Rural)	The invariance of the measurement models used across two groups is not rejected	The invariance of the structural models used across two groups is not rejected
Family members working in the hotel industry (Family members working in the hotel industry; No family members working in the hotel industry)	The invariance of the measurement models used across two groups is not rejected	The invariance of the structural models used across two groups is not rejected

5.4 Chapter Summary

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the main survey data. First, the raw dataset was prepared (i.e., data normality was checked and problematic cases were screened out). Seven hundred and thirty-six samples were deemed valid for data analysis. Second, the dataset was randomly split into two sub-datasets: one for EFA ($N=369$) and the other for CFA ($N=367$). The factor structure of each construct could be identified via EFA, and the proposed individual measurement models could be validated via CFA.

The overall measurement model and structural model with four constructs were then examined. The models fit the data well, and seven hypotheses were tested. Multi-group invariance analyses were then performed in relation to six demographic variables. The analyses indicated that the invariance of the proposed model was not rejected across the six demographic groups.

Chapter 6 Discussion and Conclusions

6.1 Chapter Introduction

Chapter 6 presents a discussion of the research findings and the proposed research objectives. In addition, it evaluates the study's theoretical and practical contributions. It reviews the study's limitations and indicates future study directions. Finally, it summarises the study.

6.2 Discussion of the Research Objectives

This study focused on the hotel job image as perceived by hospitality students in China. It measured perceived hotel job image and explored its relationships with individual modernity, parental influence and students' career intentions. Each individual measurement model (individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and career intention) was assessed and validated via statistical analysis. Moreover, hypotheses related to the structural relationships among these four constructs were tested. Table 6.1 summarises the findings according to each research objective. The following section discusses the proposed research objectives and related findings.

Table 6.1 Summary of Research Objectives and Findings

Research Objectives	Findings
<p>Research Objective 1: To develop a measurement scale for the perceived hotel job image in China.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Perceived hotel job image was found to be a second-order construct with three dimensions: (1) integrity, (2) non-routine job nature and (3) the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers.
<p>Research Objective 2: To examine students' intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students were found to have neutral attitudes (mean value was 4.10 on a 7-point Likert scale) towards seeking careers in the hotel industry after graduation.
<p>Research Objective 3: To examine the effect of perceived hotel job image on students' career intentions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Perceived hotel job image was found to have a significant positive effect on career intention. Hypothesis 3 was supported.
<p>Research Objective 4: To examine the relationships between individual modernity, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individual modernity was found to have an insignificant direct effect on career intention. Hypothesis 1 was not supported. - Individual modernity was found to have a significant positive effect on perceived hotel job image. Hypothesis 4 was supported. - Perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationship between individual modernity and students' career intentions. Hypothesis 6 was supported.
<p>Research Objective 5: To examine the relationships between parental influence, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Parental influence was found to have an insignificant direct effect on career intention. Hypothesis 2 was not supported. - Parental influence was found to have a significant positive effect on perceived hotel job image. Hypothesis 5 was supported. - Perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions. Hypothesis 7 was supported.

6.2.1 Research Objective 1: Measurement Scale Development for Perceived Hotel Job Image

Many studies have examined and conceptualised the perceived job images of

professions such as nursing (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Brown, Swift, & Oberman, 1974; Corwin, 1961; Davis & Olesen, 1964; Tzeng, 2006), law enforcement (Griswold, 1994; Gundersen, 1987; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000) and sales (Ball & Nourse, 1988; Webb, 2000). However, the measurements of perceived job image have varied vastly both within and across these three occupations. The previously used instruments were deemed unsuitable for direct use in investigating the perceived hotel job image systematically and appropriately in the Chinese context. This study initially focused on the perceived hotel job image in China, and then developed a scale to measure hospitality students' perceptions of the hotel job image in China.

The study referred to Churchill's (1979) paradigm for developing norms to generate and validate the measurement scale of the perceived hotel job image. First and foremost, it reviewed the related literature and conducted a qualitative study to generate initial measurement items (45 items) for perceived hotel job image. Qualitative interviews were held with hospitality students, academic teaching staff from hospitality schools and senior managers from the hotel industry. A quantitative survey (Pilot Test I) was subsequently conducted to discover the latent dimensions of perceived hotel job image. EFA yielded six factors with eighteen items: (1) staff integrity, comprising five items representing beliefs about the integrity of hotel staff members; (2) non-routine job nature; (3) prestige and social status; (4) hotel job characteristics; (5) future development of the industry; and (6) career paths. The measurement scales were then examined using a fresh sample dataset (Pilot Test II) to assess their reliability and validity. The six dimensions were validated via CFA. A main survey was then conducted to further assess the generalisability of the scale.

According to the main survey results, the 12 indicators generated 3 dimensions: (1) staff integrity (2) non-routine job nature and (3) the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers. Five indicators were loaded onto staff integrity (Factor 1), including general beliefs about the values, inner qualities, principles and moral character of hotel staff members. Hotel staff members were perceived as „helpful, hardworking, polite and amiable“, with a factor mean value of 4.78. However, the survey respondents did not give high ratings to „good personal inner qualities“ (which had a variable mean value of 4.38), suggesting that hotel staff members must improve this aspect to maintain a good public image.

Factor 2 („non-routine job nature“) achieved the highest mean score (5.46). The results indicated that the respondents perceived non-routine job nature as the most important factor. Two indicators were loaded onto Factor 2 („non-routine job nature“), including the working schedule and professional image of staff members. The respondents perceived hotel jobs as being non-routine in nature (for example, by virtue of requiring people to work weekends or on public holidays). Mason (1965) suggested that the working schedule and flexibility of a particular job were significant indicators of the public’s evaluation of the associated job image. For example, the public tended to be impressed by lawyers and dentists, who enjoyed manageable work schedules (Wheeler, 1983). Hotel jobs also require staff members to present a professional image. Tesone and Ricci (2006) found that hotel employees should have the knowledge of grooming and demeanour to give people an impression of their professional behaviour.

In terms of the characteristics and uniqueness of hotel careers (Factor 3), five variables were found to load onto one dimension, differing from the findings in the pilot studies.

The respondents believed that hotel jobs could provide opportunities to experience a multicultural environment. They also agreed that hotel jobs were challenging, but were neutral or less in agreement that the jobs were interesting. In addition, the item „the hotel industry is very promising“ was perceived as an indicator under Factor 3. The growth in international inbound and outbound tourism in addition to domestic travel is likely to spur hotel development in China (Gu, Ryan, & Yu, 2012). The development of the hotel sector in China also seems to have prompted people to adopt slightly more positive attitudes towards hotel jobs and the future of the hotel industry (Chan & Yeung, 2009). The prosperity and development of the hotel industry could function as selling points for attracting potential employees. In particular, the statement „a management trainee position at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry“ described hospitality students“ impressions of career paths in the Chinese hotel industry. A management trainee position could thus ensure smoother career development compared with other paths. As Dermody and Holloway (1998) suggested, management trainee programmes are a low-cost way to motivate and increase the loyalty of entry-level employees. Hospitality graduates expect to be accepted for positions at a management level from the outset. In summary, the three-dimensional construct was found to be valid and applicable for measuring hospitality students“ perceptions of the hotel job image.

This study attempted to address the typical aspects of the hotel job image. However, some elements were omitted from the quantitative study or deleted from statistical analysis. Only the most representative and reliable variables were included based on the statistical analysis results. In particular, two important dimensions were not included in the measurements, and both deserve further consideration. For instance,

job competency is an imperative dimension in describing the job image of a police officer (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). However, the hotel job competency variable was not kept in this study, as it was perceived to be an atypical or unreliable scale for measuring perceived hotel job image. Future research may focus on job competency in this context and provide relevant insights.

Another excluded but potentially important factor is job social status. Social status has been an essential variable in measuring job image, and may also affect career intentions (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). However, the variable was deleted in the quantitative analysis, as the results indicated that it was unreliable (low factor loadings) for estimating the structural relationships in the model. Although Huyton and Sutton (1996) suggested that „serving others is demeaning in China“, the findings of the main survey indicated a different result. The respondents adopted a neutral attitude towards the „social status is low, demeaning work, not respected by the public“ statements (which had a factor mean of 4.24). Therefore, an obvious extension of the current study would be to explain these results in more detail. For example, follow-up interviews with hospitality students may reveal why hotel job competency was perceived as atypical and why diversified attitudes were indicated when evaluating hotel job status. Follow-up qualitative research could provide a better understanding of the factors underpinning the perceived hotel job image measurement scales developed in this study.

6.2.2 Research Objective 2: Students' Career Intentions

Many researchers have recognised the importance of career intentions in the hospitality field (Getz, 1994; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Ross, 1994; Teng, 2008).

This study adopted Teng's (2008) instruments to measure hospitality students' career intentions, with a focus on students' intentions to work in the hotel industry in China. The survey asked respondents to indicate their inclinations towards working in the hotel industry after graduation on a Likert scale.

The four-item scale was examined in three steps. Its validity was tested in a pre-test and a pilot test during the first phase of the study. The results showed a high degree of internal consistency. Thus, the four items were used in the main survey. The scale was then examined in the main survey. One of the four items („it would be a wrong decision to choose the hotel industry as a career path“) was deleted to improve the reliability of the construct. Moreover, the statistical results showed that this item had a relatively low communality value, indicating inadequate explanation of the variance.

This result was consistent with Teng's (2008) study, in which this item had a very low factor loading (0.31). The reversed wording might have accounted for this consistency. The respondents might have confused the item with a more negative meaning such as „it would be a wrong decision“. The other three items might have been perceived in a more positive way. The remaining three-item scale presented a high degree of validity and reliability, with an AVE value of 0.76 and a composite reliability value of 0.90 in the individual measurement model test, and an AVE value of 0.75 and a composite reliability value of 0.90 in the overall measurement test.

The mean value for the career intentions construct was 4.10 (on a 7-point Likert scale), indicating a neutrality of intention towards working in the hotel industry after graduation. The findings thus showed a similarity with previous studies. For example,

Kang and Gould (2002) suggested that hospitality students were not strongly determined to work in the hotel industry and would seek jobs in another industry within five years after graduation. Teng (2008) also found that students generally held neutral attitudes (mean value=3.05 on a 5-point Likert scale) towards working in the hospitality industry in Taiwan.

As reported in the qualitative study, many non-job-related factors may influence students' intentions to join the hotel industry after graduation. For example, some students reported that they would pursue their career aspirations in a financial field, and had a low intention of joining the hotel industry after graduation. Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994) found career interests to be significantly related to career decisions. An extension of the current research could focus on the effect of other non-job-related factors such as career interest, peer influence and relative influence on hospitality students' career intentions.

According to Zhang, Pine and Lam (2005), the development of the hotel industry depends on high quality staff. However, the findings of the current study indicated that hospitality students were hesitant to join hotel occupations, even if they had studied related skills for years. It can thus be inferred that hotel jobs are not prioritised and that excellent students may turn away from the industry. This may lower the competitiveness of the hotel industry and become a vicious circle in the long term.

6.2.3 Research Objective 3: Effect of Perceived Hotel Job Image on Students'

Career Intentions

The statistical results indicated a strongly significant association between perceived

hotel job image and students' career intentions (H3: estimate=0.59, $t=7.19$, $p<0.01$). Hypothesis 3 was thus empirically supported. The presumption was approved that hospitality students' perceived hotel job image influenced their intentions to pursue careers in the hotel industry after graduation.

Perceived job image was shown to have significant effects on job-related behaviour such as job satisfaction, OCB and job retention (Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Jasovsky, 2001; Krau & Ziv, 1990; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000; Tzeng, 2006; Wotruba, 1990). This study also examined the effects of perceived hotel job image on students' intentions to seek careers in the hotel industry. A positive association between perceived hotel job image and career intentions was subsequently found.

This study measured perceived hotel job image systematically and empirically. It was found to have three latent dimensions, including job integrity, non-routine job nature and career path characteristics. The results showed that the respondents had neutral attitudes towards job integrity and career characteristics (which had dimension mean values of 4.78 and 4.83, respectively, on a seven-point Likert scale). Meanwhile, indifferent attitudes towards career intentions (which had a mean value of 4.10 on a 7-point Likert scale) were observed. The results were thus similar to those of previous studies. For example, Wan, Wong and Kong (2014) empirically examined the relationships between hotel job traits and students' career prospects, and found the nature of hotel jobs to influence the latter.

In the qualitative study, hotel industry practitioners largely agreed that perceived hotel job image influences both employee retention and potential employees' intentions.

They also reported that students had low intentions to work in hotels after graduation. For example, they observed that unfavourable job traits were widely perceived among students. Hotel industry occupations are largely seen as manual tasks rather than mental activities. Mason (1965) proposed that mentally challenging (white-collar) jobs were more attractive than manual occupations or blue-collar jobs. Although „hotel job“ is a general term and it is difficult to distinguish white-collar jobs from blue-collar jobs in the hotel industry, manual occupations remain an essential symbol of that industry. In addition, flexible working hours attached to a particular occupation are seen as extra benefits when evaluating a job. However, the students widely acknowledged the unsocial working hours attached to hotel occupations, which may also have influenced their career inclinations.

In summary, both the quantitative and qualitative results of this study support the notion that the perceived hotel job image has a significant and positive effect on students' intentions to seek careers in the hotel industry in China. Therefore, the intentions of hospitality students to work in the hotel industry could be enhanced by improving the related perceived hotel job image.

6.2.4 Research Objective 4: Relationships between Individual Modernity, the Perceived Hotel Job Image and Students' Career Intentions

This study explored the relationships among the three key constructs of individual modernity, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions. Three hypotheses were proposed and empirically assessed, and three findings were reached. First, individual modernity was likely to have a probably insignificant effect on career intentions. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Second, individual modernity

was likely to have a significant positive effect on perceived hotel job image. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported. Third, individual modernity was likely to have a significant indirect effect on career intention, and perceived hotel job image was found to mediate their relationship. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

6.2.4.1 Relationships between the Individual Modernity and Career Intentions of Individuals Working in the Hotel Industry

The standardised path coefficient and critical value were examined to determine the relationship between individual modernity and students' career intentions. The path coefficient was -0.144 with a t-value of -1.645 and was thus statistically insignificant. Individual modernity had an insignificant direct effect on the career intentions of hospitality students in China.

Contrary to the presumptions, Hypothesis 1 was not supported, and the direct effect of individual modernity on students' career intentions was not proved. As presumed, students with more modern traits were supposed to be more likely to recognise societal changes, such as industry trends and job market changes. They were accordingly interested in jobs that matched their modern traits. The statement „I think our society has changed a lot“ achieved an average score of 5.85, indicating that the respondents were already aware of societal changes. They were also inclined to chase novelty, as indicated by their response to the „meet and interact socially with new friends“ statement (mean score of 5.75). However, an insignificant relationship was found between students' modern traits and hotel career intentions, perhaps because hotel jobs are no longer perceived as new occupations or trendy. Western hotel brands have expanded since the hotel industry began developing in China more than three decades

ago, and a modern philosophy related to style management has already been widely accepted (Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012). Although they show modern traits, students are not currently attracted to hotel occupations and do not seek them.

Another possible explanation for the insignificant direct effect may be the fierce competition over human capital between the hotel industry and other service sectors in China. In this context, the public perceives hotel jobs as novelties rather than traditional jobs. The downside is that other modern industries and trendy occupations are competing with the hotel industry. Similar to the hotel industry, other service sectors such as the financial services sector target high-end customers by providing good service quality. Thus, many excellent hospitality graduates are recruited outside the hotel sector. Employers from other service sectors value hospitality graduates because the students are often well trained and understand the service concept and customer communication skills (Jou, 2011). However, young-generation students with more modern traits like to try new things such as joining new industries (Yi, Ribbens, & Morgan, 2010), even if those industries do not match their study majors. Students with modern traits are also attracted to pursuing unobvious occupations in other service industries. Hence, an insignificant association between individual modernity and hotel career intentions was observed in this study.

The qualitative study findings were also in line with the preceding observation. According to hotel educators, numerous final-year students pursue jobs outside the hotel industry, such as in the financial services sector, real-estate companies and luxury goods retail stores. At the beginning of the final semester, employers usually join the career fairs on campuses and recruit qualified graduates to work in their

organisations. Excellent graduates from hotel and tourism schools are high in demand in the job market. The hotel sector is experiencing labour shortages and high turnover (Kong & Baum, 2006) and is challenged by intensive capital competition from other service industries (Jou, 2011).

6.2.4.2 Relationships between Individual Modernity and Perceived Hotel Job Image

According to the results of this study (H4: estimate=0.42, $t=4.65$, $p<0.01$), individual modernity had a statistically significant effect on perceived hotel job image. Moreover, a positive relationship was statistically supported, indicating that individual modernity was an empirical predictor of perceived hotel job image. The findings further supported this presumption.

Hospitality students who possessed more modern characteristics were found to be more likely to show better attitudes towards the hotel job image. The results empirically supported the theory that perceived job image is influenced by an individual's value orientations, which are acquired during the social evolution process (Caplow, 1954). This study adopted individual modernity instruments to measure the modern and traditional value orientations. It found that students who had more modern values such as future orientations were more likely to perceive the hotel job image in a more positive light.

The results also indicated that three modern traits (attitudes towards achievement, openness to new things and attitudes towards social change) of individual modernity were all positively related to perceived hotel job image. Among the three traits,

„openness to new things“ had the greatest influence on the perceived hotel job image, including such variables as knowing new friends, understanding foreigners“ ways of thinking and recognising the changes happening in society (Du, 2005). These results confirmed McCrae’s (1987) theory that individuals with more open traits were more motivated to try new things such as non-routine occupations, and that closed individuals were reluctant to do so. People with open characteristics (modern Chinese) were found to have a significant positive perception of the hotel job image.

„Attitudes towards achievement“ were found to have a positive influence on students“ hotel job image perceptions. A modern individual adopts more future-oriented attitudes towards achievement (Armer & Youtz, 1971). For example, he or she emphasises the importance of education for achieving a better life, and prefers to engage in jobs to achieve long-term success (Inkeles, Brooded, & Cao, 1997). Hotel jobs project images to the public, such as those of a disparity between rewards and efforts (Broadbridge & Swanson, 2006) and a promising industry and career path (Barron et al., 2007). Shen et al. (2007) also found young Chinese individuals to be more future oriented. Therefore, students with more modern traits are more likely to recognise hotel job image characteristics such as future career paths.

The „attitudes towards social change“ factor also contributes positively to the influence of perceived hotel job image. Young Chinese individuals may have conflicting attitudes towards social development. Individuals with modern traits may adopt a positive attitude towards a newly established occupation, and people with more traditional Chinese traits may react negatively (Yang, 1998). The results indicate that respondents with more positive attitudes towards social change have more positive

perceptions of the hotel job image.

6.2.4.3 Mediating Role of Perceived Hotel Job Image on the Relationship between Individual Modernity and Career Intention

The statistical results showed individual modernity to have a significant indirect effect on students' career intentions via perceived hotel job image (H4: estimate=0.42, $t=4.65$, $p<0.01$; H6: estimate=0.25, $t=3.91$, $p<0.01$). Therefore, perceived hotel job image was found to completely mediate the relationship between individual modernity and hospitality students' career intentions in China. In other words, when hospitality students possess more modern attitudes such as positive attitudes towards social change, they may have better perceptions of the hotel job image. Such perceptions lead to increased intentions to work in the hotel industry after graduation. The process by which individual modernity influences career intentions is fully mediated by the perceived hotel job image. This finding is similar to that of Teng (2008). Students' attitudes towards hotel jobs were found to mediate the relationship between students' personalities and career aspirations. Thus, the intermediate variable is clearly important for explaining the total effect (Preacher & Kelly, 2011).

The results indicated that perceived hotel job image could strengthen or weaken the effect of individual modernity on students' career intentions. Thus, it seems to contribute to the added value of employee recruitment and retention management in the hotel industry in China. This study further confirmed the important role of perceived hotel job image in mediating the effect of individual modernity traits on students' career intentions.

If potential employees exhibit modern traits such as an acceptance of new things, positive attitudes towards social changes and future orientations, then hotels and hotel educators should attempt to encourage work in the hotel industry by enhancing the hotel job image.

6.2.5 Research Objective 5: Relationships between Parental Influence, Perceived Hotel Job Image and Students' Career Intentions

The relationships between parental influence, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions were investigated and three hypotheses were tested accordingly. The study arrived at three findings. First, it found that parental influence was likely to have an insignificant effect on career intention. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Second, it found that parental influence was likely to have a significant positive effect on perceived hotel job image. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported. Third, it found that parental influence was likely to have a significant indirect effect on career intention, and that their relationship was fully mediated by perceived hotel job image. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was statistically supported.

6.2.5.1 Relationships between Parental Influence and the Career Intentions of Individuals Working in the Hotel Industry

According to the results, the standardised coefficient of the path between parental influence and career intentions was -0.048 and the t-value was -0.588, indicating a statistically insignificant relationship. Students who are influenced more by their parents, e.g., in the form of encouragement to enter hotel occupations, may not aspire to work in the industry. This finding contradicts those of a previous study by Wong and Liu (2010).

The insignificant effect may have been caused by the different analytical techniques adopted in the current study. Wong and Liu (2010) used multiple regression analysis to test only one significant relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions. The current study examined three relationships (between parental influence and students' career intentions, parental influence and perceived hotel job image, and perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions) simultaneously via SEM while checking the interaction effects between the dependent, independent and mediator variables. Musil, Jones and Warner (1998) suggested that SEM is superior to multiple regression analysis because it provides a more precise prediction of the indirect effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables.

Moreover, the respondents were final-year students who had already been exposed to hotel-operations-related knowledge and skills and were thus independent and determined enough to seek their own occupations. Yi, Ribbens and Morgan (2010) found that members of the young Chinese generation born in the new millennium were characterised by individuality and independence of action. Parental influence may only be a reference to some degree instead of the enforcement of a specific job option.

To some extent, the results further expand Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) TRA. Students' intentions to work in the hotel industry are influenced by their attitudes towards the behaviour. Other possible influential factors are classified as external factors that have indirect effects on intentions via the construct of attitude. Rosenberg and Hovland (1960, cited in Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 19) also suggested that the effects of various stimuli (individuals, situations, social issues and social groups) on intentions

are mediated by a person's attitude. Chinese parents instil their job-related values in their children's value systems and influence their attitudes at a young age (Hairston, 2000). Thus, parental influence could be classified as an external factor that indirectly affects students' career intentions via the students' perceived hotel job image. This finding is consistent with other studies (Hutchinson & Wood, 2007) that have positioned parental influence as an external factor indirectly affecting intention.

6.2.5.2 Relationships between Parental Influence and Perceived Hotel Job Image

This study verified the positive association between parental influence and perceived hotel job image (H5: estimate=0.37, $t=4.53$, $p<0.01$). Students who are more influenced by their parents by way of support and encouragement to work in the hotel industry are more likely to have positive perceptions of the hotel job image. Because parents instil their values in their children at a young age (Hairston, 2000), students' perceptions of the hotel job image can be affected by parental influence. Children in Chinese families particularly respect their parents' advice (Yao, 1979), and it is understandable that parental influence would affect the perceptions of Chinese students.

There are four latent forms of parental influence, three of which have similar positive effects on the perceived hotel job image, including „parental involvement“, „parental encouragement“ and „the transmission of Chinese parental values“. These three types of parental influence are latent forces or unconscious motives that affect students' career intentions. For example, the respondents agreed with the „My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career“ statement. Students keep their parents' sacrifices in mind and choose jobs that ensure their parents' quality of life or make

their parents proud as a form of repayment. Studies have found that Chinese parents' values and behavioural patterns are transmitted to their offspring unconsciously, and that this is in turn observable in Chinese students' attitudes and behaviour (Stambler, 1998; Yao, 1979).

These forms of „parental support“ contribute relatively less in terms of their effect on children's perceived hotel job image. Statements such as „I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry“ and „my parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me“ describe positive parental involvement, meaning that parents provide related information rather than enforce an option. Taylor, Clayton and Rowley (2004) suggested that positive parental involvement can considerably influence a child's perceptions and attitudes. Such positive involvement may increase a child's career-related interests by providing a variety of experiences at an early age (Naizer, 1993).

Parental influence affects students' perceptions of the hotel job image by way of positive involvement, verbal support, the provision of necessary information and the transmission of Chinese parental values. These results explain how parental influence affects perceived hotel job image.

6.2.5.3 Mediating Role of Perceived Hotel Job Image on the Relationship between Parental Influence and Career Intention

This study also examined the mediating role of perceived hotel job image and the indirect effect of parental influence on career intention. The results suggest that parental influence has a significant indirect effect on students' career intentions and

that their relationship is mediated by perceived hotel job image (H7: estimate=0.22, $t=3.86$, $p<0.01$). Thus, perceived hotel job image completely mediates the relationship between parental influence and students' career intentions in the context of the hotel industry in China.

The mediating role of perceived hotel job image explains how students translate parental influence into an intention to work in the hotel industry after graduation. How students perceive the hotel job image can mediate (strengthen or weaken) the effect of parental influence on their career intentions. Perceived hotel job image refers to the students' attitudes towards job characteristics, such as staff integrity, job nature and career path. If students have their parents' support to work in the hotel industry, it may encourage them to have a more positive perception of hotel occupations, which would increase their intentions to seek those occupations. The results of this study highlight the importance of perceived hotel job image.

The results also support Rosenberg and Hovland's (1960) theory that an individual's attitudes mediate the effect of social groups on his or her intentions. Parental influence as an external factor indirectly affects students' career intentions via perceived hotel job image.

6.3 Research Contributions and Implications

In this study, a measurement instrument for perceived hotel job image was developed in the context of China, and the structural relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and hospitality students' career intentions were examined empirically. Although further study is expected to make

additional generalisations, this study makes both theoretical and practical contributions.

6.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

A comprehensive empirical study was conducted to investigate the relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and hospitality students' intentions to work in the hotel industry. It offers four major theoretical contributions.

The study's first contribution is its development and validation of a measurement scale for perceived hotel job image. Other studies of perceived hotel job image have been largely observation based (Baum, Amoha, & Spivack, 1997; Chan, Chan, & Qu 2002) rather than empirical research based. The current study followed Churchill's (1979) scale development procedures to develop an instrument across four separate studies. First, it developed initial measurement items in a qualitative study. Second, it purified the measurement items in a quantitative pilot study. Third, it cross-validated the measures in a separate quantitative pilot study. Fourth, it further assessed the reliability and validity of the measures in a main survey. Finally, it identified three dimensions with twelve variables. Because few empirical studies have focused on perceived hotel job image in China, the instruments developed in this study fill a gap in the literature.

The study's second contribution is its finding that the perceived hotel job image is a significant predictor of career intention. According to the structural relationship test results, how students perceive the hotel industry job image directly influences their intentions to enter into hotel occupations. Previous studies related to hotel employee

job retention and selection have mainly focused on factors such as internship experience, academic experience, self-efficacy and work values (Chuang & Jenkins, 2010; Song & Chathoth, 2008; Wong & Liu, 2010). This study provides a new approach in its examination of the career intentions of both potential and current hotel industry employees in China.

Third, this study examined how individual modernity influences students' career intentions via perceived hotel job image. Three types of modern traits (i.e., openness to new things, attitudes towards achievement and attitudes towards social change) were validated to positively influence perceived hotel job image. More importantly, the results show that perceived hotel job image completely mediates the relationship between individual modernity and career intentions in the hotel industry in China.

Lastly, this study identified the relationships between parental influence, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions. Distinct from Wong and Liu's (2010) study, parental influence was found to have a significant indirect effect on students' career intentions rather than a direct effect. These findings may support Rosenberg and Hovland's (1960) theory by identifying parental influence as an external factor affecting students' career intentions via students' attitudes towards the hotel job image.

6.3.2 Practical Contributions

Perceived hotel job image completely mediates the relationships between individual modernity and students' career intentions and between parental influence and career intentions. This has key implications for both the hotel industry and hotel-related educational institutes.

6.3.2.1 Implications for the Hotel Industry

This study's empirical results have four salient managerial implications for the hotel industry to attract potential employees and retain current employees.

6.3.2.1.1 Implications for the Hotel Industry: Perceived Hotel Job Image

Perceived hotel job image is a critically important factor mediating the relationships between individual modernity and students' career intentions and between parental influence and career intention. Thus, it is necessary for the hotel industry to maintain a good perceived image among its employees and the public. Based on the empirical findings, three practical managerial implications are proposed.

First, as staff integrity was validated as a latent component of perceived hotel job image, strategies for developing and sustaining staff integrity should be encouraged. Building staff integrity involves developing professional behaviour among employees. Andrew and Lewis (2002) advised organisations to create a professional learning community to promote staff integrity, through which employees could have a shared understanding of integrity and foster high professional standards. Such understanding and learning would in turn contribute to the development of a positive hotel job image. Other strategies such as the role model effect and employee integrity training may also be adopted. For example, staff members who exhibit good integrity through proper conduct should be rewarded. This would serve as an example, motivate other employees and create a role model effect (Gillis, Jackson, & Beiswanger, 2004), which would correspondingly improve the job image.

Second, non-routine job nature is a significant indicator of perceived hotel job image. Human resource departments at hotels may plan a range of actions to improve the hotel job image and decrease the effect of unfavourable job traits. For example, a work-life balance strategy could significantly increase job satisfaction and decrease the staff turnover rate in the hotel industry (Deery, 2008). Human resource experts at hotels could provide more flexible working hours, a family-friendly work schedule, adequate breaks and various types of leave.

Third, some characteristics of the hotel career path are perceived as unique. According to the survey results, the respondents were concerned about the future development of the hotel industry and hotel careers in China. Future-oriented staff policies may be attractive to these talents. For example, management trainee positions are popular among students because they can guarantee a dignified managerial-grade career path.

6.3.2.1.2 Implications for the Hotel Industry: Individual Modernity

The second implication is that individual modernity has a significant direct effect on perceived hotel job image and an indirect effect on students' career intentions. In terms of the effect of individual modernity, two suggestions are made.

First, based on individual modernity theory, employees and potential employees' degrees of individual modernity can be identified by understanding their attitudes towards achievement and social changes. Due to the positive associations between individual modernity and perceived hotel job image, employers may select and recruit candidates with modern traits because they have more positive perceptions of the hotel job image. Students with more modern traits have a higher intention to obtain hotel

jobs under the mediation of their perceived hotel job image.

Second, because individual modernity is closely associated with mass media, the hotel industry may use mass media to increase public awareness of the modern components of the hotel job image. Social media tools can be well used to guide and motivate both potential and current employees. Moreover, social media communications are very popular in China, particularly for the younger generations. By the end of 2012, China had a total of 564 million Internet users and 420 million mobile Web users (Xinhua News, 2013). Via social media communication outlets such as online alumni, teammates and colleagues groups, students and employees can obtain updated information related to the hotel industry, including job offers, promotions, future career paths, popular issues and even family matters. They may also experience a sense of belonging via social network communication and gain a more positive impression of hotel jobs.

6.3.2.1.3 Implications for the Hotel Industry: Parental Influence

The third implication is that parental influence has a positive effect on students' perceptions of the hotel job image. As such, the hotel industry could adopt two strategies to gain parental support.

First, the industry could organise seminars for parents to clarify the nature of hotel jobs and deliver hotel-career-related information to parents. Parents also positively influence students' attitudes and involve themselves in their career choices by providing career-related information (Taylor, Clayton, & Rowley, 2004). Thus,

information related to hotel employees' integrity, career development and job benefits should be delivered to parents.

Second, employee family benefits such as family buffet coupons and room vouchers may also encourage parents to support their children in obtaining hotel jobs. Family benefits also function as rewards for employees and their families for maintaining their dignity and social connections.

6.3.2.1.4 Implications for the Hotel Industry: Hotel Job Prestige

The qualitative study results also suggest the importance of a prestigious social status for improving perceived hotel job image. This gives rise to two sub-implications for improving the prestige of hotel jobs.

First, job benefits are a main indicator for judging occupational prestige. Salaries reflect the general positions of the different occupations within a society. According to a report from the National Bureau of Statistics of China, in 2012, the annual income for hotel and restaurant staff was RMB27,486 and that of staff in the finance industry was RMB81,109. At a regional level, the salaries for hotel and catering employees were highest at RMB37,830 per year in Shanghai and lowest at RMB17,239 per year in Shangxi Province (NBSC, 2013). The rewards in the hotel industry are thus much lower than those in other industries and varies greatly by region. Other service sectors are also competing with hotel employers in recruiting excellent human capital by offering high salaries and good benefits (Jou, 2011). Thus, hotels should improve the hotel job image by increasing employee job benefits.

Second, dignity and respect are critical components of an occupation. Hotel employers could offer various activities to show that their employees are respected and treasured. Moreover, hotel customers vary in terms of quality, and disrespectful attitudes and actions towards employees often disappoint hospitality students. Customers' respect for employees should be fostered. Hotels have the option of launching advertising campaigns to promote service quality to guests. At the same time, the message that employees are valued should be delivered to customers.

6.3.2.2 Implications for Hotel-related Educational Institutes

The findings of this study also have implications for hotel-related educational institutions. In guiding students to improve their perceptions of the hotel job image, hotel educators may integrate image components such as staff integrity, job nature and career paths into their teaching and learning practices.

First, career talks could be held to familiarise students with the nature and scope of hotel industry jobs, allowing them to learn more about the components of the hotel job image. Alumni and individuals working in the hotel industry could be invited to present their professional images, talk about the nature of their jobs and discuss their career paths. Such talks would connect students with the hotel industry and improve their perceived hotel job image.

Second, educational institutes could provide internship programmes to students. Chuang and Jenkins (2010) suggested that such programmes could help to provide students with realistic job experiences. Students could apply the skills and knowledge gained during their academic studies and develop real-life awareness of the

components of the hotel job image. For example, students could be trained to improve their grooming and demeanour and asked to present professional images in the workplace. They would also gain a better understanding of staff members' work values, inner qualities and moral character in the workplace.

Third, institutes could provide a platform for promoting effective communication between hotel employers and parents. For example, workshops could be organised to invite both hotel practitioners and parents to share the most updated information related to hotel careers. Hotel tours could also be arranged to allow parents to directly visit the workplace and engage in discussions with other employees, thereby enhancing their understanding of the nature and scope of jobs and improving their perceived hotel job image.

It may be difficult to raise the individual modernity levels of students quickly, as modernity traits are determined by an individual's social experience, education level and cultural values (Broaded, Cao, & Inkeles, 1994; Du, 2005; Inkeles & Smith, 1975; Inkeles, Broaded, & Cao, 1997; Zhang, Zheng, & Wang, 2003). However, according to the study results, students with modern traits believe in the benefits of education, are future oriented and have the courage to experience new things. Thus, hotel educators should identify the degree of students' modernity and design related courses that help students understand that hotel jobs have some components that may match their modern traits. For example, a course could inform students of hotel occupation features such as future orientation. It could teach them that hotel training is valuable for personal development and that hotel jobs have technological applications and sustainable trends.

6.4 Research Limitations

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were adopted in this study to clarify final-year students' perceptions of the hotel job image in China and to explore the relationships between the four core constructs. The study aimed to be a pioneering empirical study of the perceived hotel job image and its relationship with hospitality students' career intentions in China. Consequently, it met with certain limitations that must be acknowledged.

The first limitation is the study's restriction of its sample to final-year students enrolled in hotel and tourism schools in China. Data were collected from 20 universities in 12 cities throughout China and the respondents were diversified across geographical regions. However, they may not be representative of all hospitality students. Hotel and tourism education in China has many programmes, such as degree, diploma, master's and vocational training programmes. Future studies should focus on samples from other hotel and tourism education programmes.

The second limitation is one common to survey-type studies. Surveys are believed to be less effective than personal interviews when collecting subjective perceptions and substantive information related to specific issues. For example, students may exhibit a low intention to work in the hotel industry for many reasons. Survey-type study results cannot provide completely insightful information in relation to this issue. Moreover, the cross-sectional design of the study made it impossible to track changes or detect any possible causal associations between the constructs in the model. Thus, future studies

should involve a well-planned longitudinal research design to further ascertain the relationships found in the proposed model.

Third, the survey instruments and questionnaires presented limitations. In terms of the adoption and purification of survey instruments, although a very careful procedure was implemented based on previous literature and pilot test results, the results were probably affected by bias. This was particularly the case for the individual modernity instrument, which was originally constructed in the context of 1960s America, redeveloped in a Taiwanese context in the 1980s and further modified and applied to college students in Guangdong Province in China. In Du's (2005) study, the scale was used to test students' career intentions and the sample were about 10 years older than those involved in the current study. The young generation often exhibits many traits that are totally different from those of previous generations (Yi, Ribbens, & Morgan, 2010). The instrument may not be appropriate for younger generations (e.g., individuals born in the 1990s). Moreover, the results might have been more reliable if more items had been used. As Smith and Inkeles (1966) suggested, the more questions adopted to measure people's modernity, the more reliable the data. Meanwhile, some of the questions could be further improved due to double-barrel issues. Other measurement scales and an improved survey could be implemented to better assess the research questions in a future study.

Fourth, the adoption of an SEM resulted in two major limitations. First, when investigating the structural relationships between the four core constructs, three constructs were conceptualised as second-order constructs: individual modernity had three dimensions, perceived hotel job image had three dimensions and parental

influence had four dimensions. Therefore, the influences of the first-order latent dimensions (such as the effect of job integrity on career intention) could not be assessed. Second, to achieve a good model fit, some important variables and dimensions had to be dropped. For instance, job prestige and social status are key dimensions in evaluating job image (Lim, Teo, & See, 2000). However, they could not be kept in the final model.

Finally, because this study aimed to be a pioneering study, it should not be considered an attempt to construct the image of any specific job role in the hotel industry. Rather, it aimed to investigate the overall perceptions of a collective identity. The scales developed here may thus be used in future studies to develop image scales across different types of jobs in the hospitality sector. These limitations may constrain the generalisability of the study's results. Therefore, future studies are expected to contribute further insights.

6.5 Suggestions for Future Research

This study developed a measurement scale for perceived hotel job image and assessed the relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and hospitality students' career intentions in China. Many of its limitations should be addressed in future research.

First and foremost, many job image studies have been conducted in relation to other occupations such as nurse, salesperson and police officer. However, few empirical studies have addressed perceived hotel job image in China. Job image has a significant effect on an individual's job-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction and OCB

(Birnbaum & Somers, 1986; Jasovsky, 2001; Lim, Teo, & See, 2000; Tzeng, 2006). As its primary objective, this study focused on measuring the perceived hotel job image and its relationship with hospitality students' career intentions in China. Future studies may use its findings and empirically assess other possible consequences of perceived hotel job image, such as the OCB among hotel employees, to improve the general understanding of employees' perceptions of hotel jobs and their OCB.

It would be meaningful to explore other determinants of perceived hotel job image. Many publications have proposed determinants based on observation rather than empirical research. For instance, the influence of the mass media may affect the public's perception of the image of a particular occupation. Self-esteem may also affect a job image (Roberts & Vasquez, 2004; Takase et al., 2001; Tzeng, 2006). Moreover, role models may contribute to how a job image is perceived (Gillis, Jackson, & Beiswanger, 2004). Third, as individual modernity is related to personal traits and cultural backgrounds, other factors such as personality type and Chinese values must be explored. Fourth, the findings of the qualitative study suggest that non-job-related factors may influence students' career intentions. Thus, an extension of the current research could be to focus on the effect of other non-job-related factors such as career interest, peer influence and relative influence on hospitality students' career intentions. Future studies should focus on the antecedents of perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions so that firmer conclusions can be drawn.

Another obvious extension of this study would be to explain its results in more detail. For example, in addition to individual modernity and parental influence, studies could explore the other factors influencing perceived hotel job image and students' career

intentions. Follow-up interviews with hospitality students could reveal why perceived hotel job image completely mediates the effect of individual modernity on career intention. Follow-up qualitative research would enable a better understanding of the statistical results found in this study.

Finally, the current study was constrained by its sample representativeness. Because it surveyed only final-year hospitality students, further examinations of other concerned parties are expected. Future studies could continue by conducting empirical tests of diverse sample groups such as vocational school hospitality students and current hotel employees, and could even assess customers and the public's opinions of the hotel job image.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter elaborates on several important issues. First, according to the research objectives, it interprets and discusses all of the findings of the current empirical study, including the results of developing the perceived hotel job image instrument, the effect of perceived hotel job image on students' career intentions and the structural relationships between individual modernity, parental influence, perceived hotel job image and students' career intentions. It reviews the study's theoretical and practical contributions. Based on the empirical results, it presents the implications for hotel educational institutes and hotel management to improve both potential employees' intentions to pursue a career in the hotel industry and help Chinese hotels retain current employees. It acknowledges research limitations, based on which it makes suggestions for future studies.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Questions for Qualitative Interviews with Hotel

Practitioners

Dear Participants:

I am currently studying in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. As a PhD student majoring in hotel human resources management, I am conducting a **study of the perceived hotel job image in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students**.

I would hereby like to invite you to participate in interviews that will address some of the important questions of my research. Your kind understanding and support would be highly valued and appreciated.

I sincerely promise that all respondents will be anonymous and that your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. No data will be released for other purposes.

Please feel free to contact me via e-mail at lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries. Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best!

Yours sincerely,

Lily Sun (PhD student)

December 2011

尊敬的受访者:

本人现就读于香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院，主修酒店业人力资源管理方向。博士论文《酒店职业形象认知与职业选择的关系》，重点研究酒店职业形象对学生职业选择的影响。

在此，本人诚邀您参与本次访谈，您的理解与支持将积极地推动这项学术研究取得贡献性的成果。本人郑重承诺不会泄露您的个人信息，所有的数据将只用于学术研究并给予保密，不会给您带来任何方面的风险与困扰。如有任何疑问，请您及时与本人取得联系。我的电子邮箱地址为：lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk，联络电话为：00852-34002334。诚挚的感谢您的帮助，并祝您万事如意。

此致

敬礼！

调研人：孙宏莉（博士研究生）

2011年12月

Section A: Interview Questions 访谈问题

1. Has your hotel ever recruited hospitality degree graduates?

您的酒店是否曾经聘请过酒店管理专业的本科毕业生？

2. Which positions do graduates typically fill at your hotel?

这些毕业的本科生通常会在哪些职位工作？

3. What do you think about students' perceptions of the hotel job image in China? Positive aspect and negative aspect?

在您看来，学生们是如何认知酒店工作的职业形象的？有哪些正面的看法？哪些负面的看法？

4. Do you think students perceive the hotel job image properly?

关于酒店工作的职业形象，您认为学生们心中形成的印象适当吗？

5. How can hotels improve students' perceived hotel job image?

关于酒店工作的职业形象，酒店应如何改善学生们对酒店工作的印象呢？

6. Which measures has your hotel taken to retain new graduates? Please specify.

您的酒店采取过哪些措施留住这些刚刚毕业的学生呢？请详述之。

7. Do you have any other opinions about perceived hotel job image?

关于酒店行业工作的职业形象，您还有哪些其它想法（意见）？

Section B: Demographic Information 个人信息

1. Gender 性别

- Female 女 Male 男

2. Age group 年龄

- ≤24 years 岁
 > 24-29 years 岁
 > 29-34 years 岁
 > 34-39 years 岁
 > 39-44 years 岁
 > 44-49 years 岁
 > 49-54 years 岁
 > 54-59 years 岁
 > 59 years 岁

3. How many years have you worked in the hotel industry? 您从事酒店行业的工作多少年了?

- ≤ 0-5 years 年
 > 5-10 years 年
 > 10-15 years 年
 > 15-20 years 年
 > 20-25 years 年
 > 26-30 years 年
 >30 years 年

4. Which function department have you ever worked in hotel? How long have you worked there? 您曾在酒店哪些部门工作? 每个部门工作多少年?

- | | | |
|---|-------|---------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 餐饮部 F&B | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 客房部 Room service | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 前厅部 Front office | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 人事部 HR | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 财务部 Finance | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 工程部 Engineering | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 行政管理 Executive | _____ | years 年 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 其它部门 Others | _____ | years 年 |

Appendix 2. Questions for Qualitative Interviews with Hotel and Tourism Faculty

Dear Participants:

I am currently studying in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. As a PhD candidate majoring in hotel human resources management, I am conducting a **study of the perceived hotel job image in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students**.

I would hereby like to invite you to participate in interviews that will address some of the important questions of my research. Your kind understanding and support would be highly valued and appreciated.

I sincerely promise that all respondents will be anonymous and that your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. No data will be released for other purposes.

Please feel free to contact me via e-mail at lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries. Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best!

Yours sincerely,

Lily Sun (PhD student)

December 2011

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此致

敬礼！

调研人：孙宏莉（博士研究生）

2011年12月

Section A: Interview Questions 访谈问题

1. Which positions do new hotel degree graduates typically fill? Which industries do they work in?

刚毕业的本科生通常会在哪些行业工作，做哪些职位？

2. What do you think about the students' perceptions of hotel job image? Positive aspect and negative aspect?

在您看来，学生们是如何认知酒店工作的职业形象的？有哪些正面的看法？哪些负面的看法？

3. Do you think students perceive the hotel job image properly?

关于酒店工作的职业形象，您认为学生们心中形成的印象适当吗？

4. How can hotel improve students' perceived hotel job image?

关于酒店工作的职业形象，酒店应如何改善学生们对酒店工作的印象呢？

5. Which measures do hotels take to retain new graduates?

酒店采取哪些措施才能留住这些刚刚毕业的学生呢？

6. How would you educate students to perceive the hotel job image properly?

您会如何教导（引导）学生恰当地认知酒店行业的职业形象呢？

7. Do you have any other opinions about the hotel job image?

关于酒店行业工作的职业形象，您还有哪些其它想法（意见）？

Section B: Demographic Information 个人信息

1. Gender 性别

- Female 女 Male 男

2. Age group 年龄

- ≤24 years 岁
 > 24-29 years 岁
 > 29-34 years 岁
 > 34-39 years 岁
 > 39-44 years 岁
 > 44-49 years 岁
 > 49-54 years 岁
 > 54-59 years 岁
 > 59 years 岁

3. How many years have you worked in the hotel and tourism department? 您从事酒店旅游管理专业的教学工作多少年了

- ≤0-5 年 years
 >5-10 年 years
 >10-15 年 years
 >15-20 年 years
 >20-25 年 years
 >25 年 years

4. What is your position and specialisation? 您的职位及教学领域?

5. Have you ever worked in the hotel industry? 您是否曾在酒店工作过?

- 有 (_____ 部门, _____ 个月)
Yes (_____ Department _____ months)
 没有 No

Appendix 3. Questions for Qualitative Interviews with Hospitality

Students

Dear Participants:

I am currently studying in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. As a PhD student majoring in hotel human resources management, I am conducting a **study of the perceived hotel job image in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students**.

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I sincerely promise that all respondents will be anonymous and that your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. No data will be released for other purposes.

Please feel free to contact me via e-mail at lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries. Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best!

Yours sincerely,

Lily Sun (PhD student)

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此致

敬礼！

调研人：孙宏莉（博士研究生）

2011年12月

Section A: Interview Questions 访谈问题

1. What are your perceptions of the hotel job image in China?

您认为在中国酒店行业的工作（职业）形象是什么？

(1) What are your perceptions of the tasks of hotel jobs?

您如何看待酒店工作的职责和任务？

(2) What are your perceptions of the value of hotel jobs?

您如何看待酒店工作的工作价值？

(3) What are your perceptions of the social prestige of hotel jobs in China?

您如何看待酒店工作的社会声望/社会地位？

(4) What are your perceptions of the integrity of hotel staff members?

您如何看待酒店员工的品行操守？

(5) What are your perceptions of the competence of hotel staff members?

您如何看待酒店员工的能力？

(6) What are your perceptions of the non-routine job nature of hotel jobs?

您如何看待酒店工作的不惯常的工作性质？

(7) What are the advantages of working in the hotel industry? Why?

您感觉酒店工作有哪些优点呢？为什么？

(8) What are the disadvantages of working in the hotel industry? Why?

您感觉酒店工作有哪些缺点呢？为什么？

(9) Which difficulties do you experience (if any) while working placement in a hotel?

Please specify.

如果您曾在酒店实习过，您在那里实习工作时候遇到了哪些困难？请详述之。

(10) How would you describe your perceptions of the hotel job image?

您如何描述酒店工作的职业形象？

(11) Are there any other comments you would like to make about perceptions of the hotel job image?

关于酒店工作的职业形象，您还有哪些其他想法（意见）？

2. After graduation 毕业后

(1) What factors will motivate you to join the hotel industry after graduation?

哪些因素会促使你毕业后选择在酒店工作？

(2) What factors will discourage you to join the hotel industry after graduation?

哪些因素会阻碍你毕业后选择在酒店工作？

(3) Other opinions on affecting your decision to join hotel industry after graduation?

还有哪些意见会影响你毕业后选择在酒店工作吗？

Section B: Demographic Information 个人信息

1. Gender 性别

- Female 女 Male 男

2. Age group 年龄

- ≤17 years 岁
 >17-19 years 岁
 >19-21 years 岁
 >21-23 years 岁
 >23-25 years 岁
 >25 years 岁

3. Where is your hometown 您的家乡在哪里?

4. Which stream are you studying now 您就读哪个专业方向?

- Hotel 酒店管理方向
 Tourism 旅游管理方向
 Others (please specify _____)其它: _____

5. Which function department have you worked for placement in hotel? How long have you worked there? 您曾在酒店哪些部门实习? 每个部门实习多少个月?

- | | | |
|---|-------|----------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 餐饮部 F&B | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 客房部 Room service | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 前厅部 Front office | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 人事部 HR | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 财务部 Finance | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 工程部 Engineering | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 行政管理 Executive | _____ | months 月 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 其它部门 Others | _____ | months 月 |

6. Do you have any family members (parents, sisters or brothers) working in the hotel industry? 您有家人(父母, 兄弟姐妹)在酒店工作吗?

- Yes 有 No 没有

Appendix 4. Profiles of Interviewees – Hotel Practitioners

No.	Date	Time	Hotel	Gender	Age	Experience
Hotel Practitioner 1	8 Dec 2011	10:00-10:40	InterContinental Shenzhen International Hotel	Female	29-34 years old	F&B: 3 years HR: 6 years S&M: 1 year
Hotel Practitioner 2	8 Dec 2011	10:50-12:30	InterContinental Shenzhen International Hotel	Male	34-39 years old	HR: 10 years S&M: 5 years Executive Management: 2 years
Hotel Practitioner 3	8 Dec 2011	13:00-13:50	Marco Polo Shenzhen International Hotel	Female	44-49 years old	HR: 22 years Executive Management: 4 years
Hotel Practitioner 4	8 Dec 2011	13:50-2:20	Shenzhen Wenecs Hotels & Resorts Hotel project consultancy	Male	44-49 years old	Room Division: 10 years HR: 3 years Executive Management: 2 years
Hotel Practitioner 5	8 Dec 2011	15:00-15:30	Dongguan 9 Days Hotels Co., Ltd Economic hotel group	Male	39-44 years old	Front Office: 7 years Executive Management: 8 years
Hotel Practitioner 6	8 Dec 2011	16:00-16:40	Hainan Luhuitou State Guesthouse & Resort Co. Ltd	Male	39-44 years old	HR: 5 years Front Office: 8 years Executive management: 7 years

Appendix 5. Profiles of Interviewees – Hotel and Tourism Faculty

No.	Date	Time	Position	University	Gender	Research Area	Teaching Area
Teacher1	18 Dec 2011	21:00-21:40	Associate Professor, Associate Head, Department of Hotel & Club Management	School of Tourism Management, Sun Yat-sen University	Male	Hotel Operations and Management Strategic Management of Tourism Enterprises	Fundamentals of Management, Strategic Management of Tourism Firms in China
Teacher2	19 Dec 2011	16:30-17:30	Associate Professor,	School of Tourism Management, Sun Yat-sen University	Female	Human Resource Management in the Hospitality Industry	Human Resource Management, Marketing Management, Front Office and Housekeeping Management
Teacher3	20 Dec 2011	11:00-11:30	Associate Professor, Vice Director of Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Business School	Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Business School, Sun Yat-sen University	Female	Business Management Strategic Management	Tourism, Strategic Management, Tourism English
Teacher4	20 Dec 2011	12:00-12:30	Professor, Director of Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Business School	Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Business School, Sun Yat-sen University	Female	Tourism Management, Resources and Sustainable Development, Service Business Management, Leadership and Team	Travel Agent Management, Ecotourism Management, MICE Management, Performance Management
Teacher5	20 Dec 2011	16:00-16:30	Lecturer, Programme Leader of Master of Science (MSc) in Hotel and Tourism Management	School of Hotel and Tourism Management, Hong Kong Polytechnic University	Male	Human Resources Management Attraction Management Tourism in Hong Kong and the Pearl River Delta Leadership and Team Building in Hotel and Tourism Industry	Hotel & Catering Quantitative Methods Management of Change in Hong Kong's Hotel and Catering Industry Leadership in Hotel and Tourism Industry International Tourism Issues Tourism Studies

Appendix 6. Profiles of Interviewees – Students

No.	Date	Time	University	Gender	Age	Hometown	Internship Experience (month)	Family in Hotel industry
In-depth Student 1	18 Dec 2011	10:00-10:40	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	20-21	Liaoning, Shenyang	F&B: 1 Housekeeping: 1	No
In-depth Student 2	18 Dec 2011	10:40-11:20	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	18-19	An Hui, Wuhu	Housekeeping: 1 Front Office: 2 Security: 1	No
Group 1.1	18 Dec 2011	15:00-16:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	20-21	Taiwan	Housekeeping: 2 Front Office: 2	No
Group 1.2	18 Dec 2011	15:00-16:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	22-23	Guangdong, Heyuan	Front Office: 1 Security: 1	No
Group 1.3	18 Dec 2011	15:00-16:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	22-23	Guangdong, Shantou	Security: 2	No
Group 2.1	18 Dec 2011	16:00-17:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	22-23	Guangdong, Guangzhou	Front Office: 6	No
Group 2.2	18 Dec 2011	16:00-17:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	20-21	Hunan, Changsha	F&B: 1	No
Group 2.3	18 Dec 2011	16:00-17:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	20-21	Fujian, Quanzhou	Front Office: 1 F&B: 1	No
Group 2.4	18 Dec 2011	16:00-17:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	20-21	An Hui, An Qing	Housekeeping: 2	No
Group 3.1	18 Dec 2011	19:30-20:30	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	22-23	He Nan, Zhoukou	F&B: 1 Housekeeping: 1	Yes
Group 3.2	18 Dec 2011	19:30-20:30	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	22-23	Guangdong, Chaozhou	Housekeeping: 2 Security: 1	No
Group 3.3	18 Dec 2011	19:30-20:30	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	22-23	Jiang Su, Yan Cheng	Housekeeping: 1 Front Office: 1	No
Group 4.1	19 Dec 2011	15:00-16:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	22-23	Guangdong, Maoming	Housekeeping: 1 Front Office: 1	No
Group 4.2	19 Dec 2011	15:00-16:00	Sun Yat-sen University	Male	20-21	Guangdong, Fo Shan	Housekeeping: 1 Security: 1	Yes
Group 5.1	19 Dec 2011	19:30-20:30	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	22-23	Jilin, Jilin	F&B: 1 Housekeeping: 1	No
Group 5.2	19 Dec 2011	19:30-20:30	Sun Yat-sen University	Female	20-21	Guangdong, Shanwei	Housekeeping: 2	No

Appendix 7. Pilot Test I Questionnaire



Dear Participants:

I am currently studying in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. As a PhD student majoring in hotel human resources management, I am conducting a study of the perceived hotel job image in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students.

I would hereby like to invite you to participate in my research. Your kind understanding and support would be highly valued and appreciated.

I sincerely promise that all respondents will be anonymous and that your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. **The data collected will be analysed collectively ONLY and no individual data will be released.**

Please feel free to contact me via email at lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries. Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best!

Yours sincerely,

Lily Sun (PhD student)

March 2012

尊敬的受访者:

本人现就读于香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院，主修酒店业人力资源管理方向。博士论文《酒店职业形象认知与职业选择的关系》，重点研究酒店职业形象对学生职业选择的影响。

在此，本人诚邀您参与本次调研，您的理解与支持将积极地推动这项学术研究取得贡献性的成果。本人郑重承诺不会泄露您的个人信息，**所有的数据将只用于学术研究并给予保密**，不会给您带来任何方面的风险与困扰。如有任何疑问，请您及时与本人取得联系。我的电子邮箱地址为：lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk，联络电话为：00852-34002334。诚挚的感谢您的帮助，并祝您万事如意。

此致

敬礼！

调研人：孙宏莉（博士研究生）

2012年3月

Section A. Perceived Job Image in the Hotel Industry 酒店工作职业形象

The following questions ask your perceptions of hotel job image. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对酒店行业职业形象的认知。请根据您的个人感知或经历在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

2=Disagree 不同意

3=Neutral 中立

4=Agree 同意

5=Strongly agree 非常同意

Statements 问题陈述	非常不同意	不同意	中立	同意	非常同意
1. The function of a hotel job is to serve guests. 酒店工作就是为客人服务。	1	2	3	4	5
2. Hotel jobs are physically repetitive. 酒店工作是做重复的体力劳动。	1	2	3	4	5
3. Hotel jobs are very challenging. 酒店工作很有挑战性。	1	2	3	4	5
4. Hotel jobs are very interesting. 酒店工作很有趣。	1	2	3	4	5
5. Individuals working at hotels gain work value by providing help to guests. 酒店工作就是通过帮助客人解决问题而获得工作价值。	1	2	3	4	5
6. Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. 在中国酒店工作服务于别人，是低下的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
7. Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. 在中国酒店工作的社会地位很低。	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. 酒店员工得不到公众们的尊重。	1	2	3	4	5
9. A hotel is like a mini society. 酒店好似一个社会的缩影。	1	2	3	4	5
10. Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment. 在酒店工作有机会接触多元文化。	1	2	3	4	5
11. Hotel jobs are related to prostitution. 酒店工作与色情行业有关。	1	2	3	4	5
12. Hotel staff members are very polite. 酒店员工非常有礼貌。	1	2	3	4	5
13. Hotel staff members are hardworking. 酒店员工工作非常勤快。	1	2	3	4	5
14. Hotel staff members are very helpful. 酒店员工非常乐于助人。	1	2	3	4	5
15. A hotel staff members member's outside appearance and inner reality sometimes differ, e.g., some staff members smile at guests on some occasions and only to slander or disrespect them on others later 酒店员工表里不一，面对客人微笑，背后诋毁或有不尊重的言行。	1	2	3	4	5
16. Hotel staff members are good at communication. 酒店员工擅长与客人沟通。	1	2	3	4	5
17. It takes decades to become a high quality hotel staff member. 如果要做一个高素质的酒店员工，需要积累几十年的经验。	1	2	3	4	5

Statements 问题陈述	非常不同意	不同意	中立	同意	非常同意
18. Hotel jobs require experience rather than a high level of education. 酒店工作需要经验，而不是高学历。	1	2	3	4	5
19. Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly made up and well groomed. 酒店员工有好的形象，例如，较好的仪容仪表。	1	2	3	4	5
20. Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts. 酒店员工的工作时间不规律，如轮班、夜班。	1	2	3	4	5
21. Hotel staff members have to work on weekends and public holiday. 酒店员工不得不在周末及节假日工作。	1	2	3	4	5
22. Hotel staff members can save money because hotels provide them with food and lodging. 酒店工作包食宿，所以员工可以存些钱。	1	2	3	4	5
23. Hotel jobs provide professional uniforms. 酒店工作提供专业的制服。	1	2	3	4	5
24. Hotel jobs are very stable. 酒店工作很稳定。	1	2	3	4	5
25. Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities. 酒店员工有很好的个人内在素养。	1	2	3	4	5
26. Hotel staff members can gain experience by communicating with guests. 酒店员工通过与客人交流丰富个人经历。	1	2	3	4	5
27. Hotel staff members are amiable. 酒店员工和蔼可亲。	1	2	3	4	5
28. Frontline staff members have low level of education. 酒店里一线员工的学历较低。	1	2	3	4	5
29. It is hard to make friends with hotel colleagues who share common interests. 很难在酒店同事间结交志同道合的朋友。	1	2	3	4	5
30. Hotel jobs have lower stress levels compared with jobs in other industries. 相比较于其他行业的工作，酒店工作压力较小。	1	2	3	4	5
31. Hotel jobs are my last option when looking for jobs. 找工作的时候，酒店工作是我的最后一个选择。	1	2	3	4	5
32. Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development. 在大都市里，做酒店工作有好的发展前途。	1	2	3	4	5
33. The working environment in a hotel is very glamorous. 酒店工作的环境很华丽。	1	2	3	4	5
34. Back offices are sometimes unattractive, poor and dirty. 员工工作区黯淡无光，破旧甚至脏乱。	1	2	3	4	5
35. Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon. 在酒店工作，拥有本科学历的员工可以很快得到升迁。	1	2	3	4	5
36. Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry. 在酒店行业，管理培训生的职位能够保障我的职业发展。	1	2	3	4	5
37. Hotel staff members are flexible in terms of choosing a city to work in. 酒店员工可以灵活地选择工作的城市。	1	2	3	4	5

Statements 问题陈述	非常不同意	不同意	中立	同意	非常同意
38. It is currently very easy to find a job in the hotel industry. 很容易在酒店找到一份工作。	1	2	3	4	5
39. Hotel staff members can experience the international management philosophy. 从事酒店工作，可以接触到国际酒店管理理念。	1	2	3	4	5
40. Hotel staff members must begin working in entry-level positions. 从事酒店职业，必须要从基层做起。	1	2	3	4	5
41. Hotel staff members are not sure about their career development if they take on hotel jobs as frontline employees. 从事酒店工作，如果从基层的服务员做起，员工对未来职业发展很不确定。	1	2	3	4	5
42. It is hard to get family support to work in hotels 在酒店工作，很难得到家人的支持。	1	2	3	4	5
43. Hotel job salaries are lower compared with those of other industries. 与其它行业相比较，酒店工作的薪酬比较低。	1	2	3	4	5
44. Managers and rank-and-file workers are treated differently. 在酒店业，管理层与普通员工有很大的区别。	1	2	3	4	5
45. The hotel industry is very promising. 酒店行业很有发展前途。	1	2	3	4	5

Your Intention to join the Hotel Industry after graduate 毕业后，您对于去酒店工作的意向

Statements 问题陈述	非常不同意	不同意	中立	同意	非常同意
1. I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation. 毕业后，我想在酒店行业工作。	1	2	3	4	5
2. I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry. 我相信我能在酒店业发展我的职业/事业。	1	2	3	4	5
3. I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives. 我会向亲戚朋友推荐酒店工作。	1	2	3	4	5
4. It would be a wrong decision to choose hotel as a career path. 选择酒店职业将是一个错误的决定。	1	2	3	4	5

Section B. Demographic Information 个人信息

Please provide the following personal information. 请填写您的个人信息:

1. **Gender 性别:** Female 女 Male 男
2. **Age group 年龄:** ≤17 years 岁 >18-19 years 岁 >20-21 years 岁
 >22-23 years 岁 >24-25 years 岁 >25 years 岁

3. **Where is your hometown? 您的家乡在哪里?**

Province 省	City 市	County 县	Village 乡/村

4. **Which stream are you studying now 您就读哪个专业方向?**

- Hotel 酒店管理方向
- Tourism 旅游管理方向
- Others (please specify) _____ 其它: (请注明) _____

5. **Which function department have you worked for placement in a hotel? How long have you worked there? 您曾在酒店哪些部门实习? 每个部门实习多少个月?**

<input type="checkbox"/> 我没有参加过酒店实习。		
<input type="checkbox"/> 我参加过酒店实习, 在	<input type="checkbox"/> 餐饮部 F&B <input type="checkbox"/> 客房部 Room Dept. <input type="checkbox"/> 前厅部 Front Off. <input type="checkbox"/> 人事部 HR Dept. <input type="checkbox"/> 财务部 Finance Dept. <input type="checkbox"/> 工程部 Engineering <input type="checkbox"/> 行政管理 Executive Off. <input type="checkbox"/> 其它部门 Others	_____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month _____ 个月 Month

6. **Do you have any family members (parents, sisters or brothers) working in the hotel industry? 您有家人(父母, 兄弟姐妹)在酒店工作吗?** Yes 有 No 没有

~ End of Questionnaire. Thank You Very Much! 问卷完, 谢谢! ~

Appendix 8. Pilot Test II Questionnaire



Dear Participants:

I am currently studying in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. As a PhD student majoring in hotel human resources management, I am conducting a study of the perceived hotel job image of the hotel industry in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students.

I would hereby like to invite you to participate in my research. Your kind understanding and support would be highly valued and appreciated.

I sincerely promise that all respondents will be anonymous and that your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. **The data collected will be analysed collectively ONLY and no individual data will be released.**

Please feel free to contact me via e-mail at lily.sun@ or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries. Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best!

Yours sincerely,

Lily Sun (PhD student)

June 2012

尊敬的受访者:

本人现就读于香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院，主修酒店业人力资源管理方向。博士论文《酒店职业形象认知与职业选择的关系》，重点研究酒店职业形象对学生职业选择的影响。

在此，本人诚邀您参与本次调研，您的理解与支持将积极地推动这项学术研究取得贡献性的成果。本人郑重承诺不会泄露您的个人信息，**所有的数据将只用于学术研究并给予保密**，不会给您带来任何方面的风险与困扰。如有任何疑问，请您及时与本人取得联系。我的电子邮箱地址为：lily.sun@，联络电话为：00852-34002334。诚挚的感谢您的帮助，并祝您万事如意。

此致

敬礼！

调研人：孙宏莉（博士研究生）

2012年6月

Section A. Individual Modernity 个人现代性

Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number.
请在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不大同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	I think fortune and fate are the key factors contributing to success. 我认为 运气和命运 是决定事业成功的重要因素。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I think family network/connection is the key factor contributing to personal success. 我认为 家庭关系网络 是决定个人事业成功的重要因素。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Although I have already had a better life, I still need to earn money to provide a much better life for my family and myself. 即使已有较好的生活，为了自己和家人过更好的生活，我应该努力赚钱。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have. 我认为 受教育越多，生活越好 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I think family background is the key factor for gaining the respect of others 我认为一个人赢得他人尊重的主要因素是他的 家庭背景 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others. 我认为一个人赢得他人尊重的主要因素是他的 个人成就 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends. 在社交场合，我愿意 认识新朋友 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there 即使已经有很好的生活，但是 如果有双倍的收入吸引我 ，我仍然 愿意搬到一个陌生的地方工作 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	I would better understand foreigners' ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country. 如果在国外生活，我能够 更好的理解外国人的思考方式 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	I think our society has changed a lot . 我认为当今的 社会变化很大 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	I think the changes made to our society have been positive. 我认为 社会的变化是积极的 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	I think poor people's opportunities to change their economic status have increased. 我认为 贫困的人改善经济条件的机会增加了 。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section B. Perceived Job Image in Hotel Industry 酒店工作职业形象

The following questions are asked to determine your perceptions of the hotel job image. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对酒店行业职业形象的认知。请根据您的感知（或看法或意见）在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	Hotel staff members are very helpful. 酒店员工非常乐于助人。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Hotel staff members are hardworking. 酒店员工工作非常勤快。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Hotel staff members are very polite. 酒店员工非常有礼貌。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Hotel staff members are amiable. 酒店工作的员工和蔼可亲。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities. 酒店员工有很好的个人内在素养。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Hotel staff members have to work at the weekends and public holidays. 酒店员工不得不在周末及节假日工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly make-up and well groomed. 酒店员工有好的形象，例如，较好的仪容仪表。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts. 酒店员工的工作时间不规律，如轮班，夜班。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. 在中国酒店工作服务于别人，是低下的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. 在中国酒店工作的社会地位很低。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. 酒店员工得不到公众们的尊重。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development. 在大都市里，做酒店工作有好的发展前途。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	The hotel industry is very promising. 酒店行业很有发展前途。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	Hotel jobs are very challenging. 酒店工作很有挑战性。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	Hotel jobs are very interesting. 酒店工作很有趣。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment. 在酒店工作有机会接触多元文化。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon. 在酒店工作，拥有本科学历的员工可以很快得到升迁。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry. 在酒店行业，管理培训生的职位能够保障我的职业发展。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section C. Parental Influence on Your Career Intentions 父母影响与职业意向

The following questions are asked to determine your perceptions of parental influence on your career intentions. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对父母影响您职业意向的看法。请在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold. 我觉得无论是从事管理或基层岗位, 父母都支持我在酒店行业工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry. 我觉得父母对酒店行业的工作抱着积极的看法。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I think my parents believe that I can be successful to work in the hotel industry. 我觉得父母相信我能在酒店行业的工作中取得成功。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning. 我觉得父母赞同我选择与现在所学相关的领域工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me. 我父母经常和我讨论酒店行业的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers. 我觉得父母对酒店行业的工作有准确的认识。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I think my parents can refer me to work in the hotel industry. 我觉得父母能帮我介绍进入酒店行业工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training. 父母鼓励我参加一些职业教育培训活动。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career. 我父母会为我创造条件, 尽量努力协助我找到喜欢的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	My parents would prefer that I select a job with a group of highly qualified colleagues. 我父母喜欢我选择在同事素质较高的环境中工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	My parents encourage me to work for a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills. 我父母鼓励我选择在能提供专业培训的公司工作, 有助于提升工作技能。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in. 我父母赞同我选择自己感兴趣的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	I think my parents will let me choose my own career. 我父母会让我自己选择职业。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities. 我父母鼓励我做可以发挥我自己特长的的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	I will never take a job with a heavy workload that causes my parents to worry about me. 我不会选择一份工作强度很大的工作, 让父母为我担心。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	I will never take a shift duty job that causes my parents to worry about me. 我不会选择一份要轮流值班的工作, 让父母为我担心。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	I will consider location when selecting a job because my parents do not want me to stay far away from them. 因为父母不希望我远离他们, 所以选择工作时, 我会考虑公司离家远近的因素。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
18	I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older. 我喜欢选择能够使我有能力保障父母晚年生活的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends. 我喜欢选择让父母在亲朋好友面前值得为我骄傲的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career. 我父母鼓励我选择稳定的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	I consider my parents' opinions when selecting my career choice. 我会参考父母在职业选择方面的意见。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	I think my parents' work values will influence mine. 我觉得父母的工作价值观会影响我的工作价值观。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section D. Your Career Intentions after Graduation 酒店工作意向

The following questions are asked to determine your intention to work in the hotel industry. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对毕业后到酒店行业工作的意向。请根据您的感知（或看法或意见）在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
 3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation. 毕业后，我想在酒店行业工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry. 我相信我能在酒店业发展我的职业/事业。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives. 我会向亲戚朋友推荐酒店工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	It would be a wrong decision to choose hotel as a career path. 选择酒店职业将是一个错误的决定。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix 9. Instructions Used in Fieldworks

1 Project Introduction 研究项目介绍

This research project is examining the perceived job image of the hotel industry in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students. The researcher would hereby like to invite you to participate in the research project. Your kind understanding and support would be highly valued and appreciated. Please feel free to contact the researcher via e-mail at lily.sun@_____ or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries.

本次研究项目重点研究酒店职业形象与学生职业选择的关系。在此，研究者诚邀您的参与。您的理解与支持将积极地推动这项学术研究。如有任何疑问，请您及时与研究者取得联系。电子邮箱地址为：lily.sun@_____，联络电话为：00852-34002334。诚挚的感谢您的帮助，并祝您万事如意。

1.1 Project Schedule and Coverage 研究项目计划及研究对象

- The data-collection process for this project comprises into two parts: a pilot study and a main survey. The pilot study is planned for completion in June, July and August 2012. All of the final-year students (i.e., students who entered university in 2008 and graduated in 2012) enrolled in the tourism school (including the hotel management, tourism management, MICE streams) at your universities are targeted as respondents. The research project aims to understand hospitality students' perceptions of the hotel job image. As such, students who have received hotel-management-related education, knowledge and skills or who are considered potential hotel employees are qualified potential respondents.

本调研计划于两次完成。第一次为实验性调研，计划于2012年6月-8月完成。在中国的大学里旅游管理学院/学系（包括酒店管理方向，旅游管理方向，会展管理方向），所有大四年级的同学（于2008年入学，2012年毕业）为实验性调查研究的对象。本研究意在了解接待业学生对酒店职业形象的认知，因此凡是接受过酒店管理相关知识技能教育培训的学生，凡是有可能到酒店行业就业的准毕业生都可以参加本次调研。

- The main survey will be conducted in September-November 2012. All of the final-year students (i.e., students who entered university in 2009 and graduated in 2013) enrolled in the tourism school (including the hotel management, tourism management, and MICE streams) at your universities are targeted as respondents. The research project aims to understand hospitality students' perceptions of the hotel job image. As such, students who have received hotel-management-related education, knowledge and skills or who are considered potential hotel employees are qualified potential respondents.

第二次调研为大规模的调研，计划于2012年9月-11月完成。在中国的大学里旅游管理学院/学系（包括酒店管理方向，旅游管理方向，会展管理方向），所有大四年级的同学（于2009年入学，2013年毕业）为大规模调查研究的对象。本研究意在了解接待业学生对酒店职业形象的认知，因此凡是接受过酒店管理相关知识技能教育培训的学生，凡是有可能到酒店行业就业的准毕业生都可以参加本次调研。

1.2 Scope of the study 调研内容

The survey data will be collected via a questionnaire. The questionnaire will cover a wide range of topics related to students' perceptions of the hotel job image, individual modernity, perceptions of parental influence and career intentions.

本次调研以发放问卷的形式展开。此调研问卷内容包括5个研究部分：学生对酒店职业的认知，学生个人现代性调查，学生对父母影响的认知，学生未来职业选择意向，以及被访者的个人信息。

2 The Interviewer's Fieldwork Guidelines 调查者指南

- Select qualified respondents.
挑选合格的研究对象。
- Gather the respondents at an appropriate timeslot and location such as before a lecture, during a break or after class in a classroom; lunchtime in the canteen; or in the campus or student hall to ensure that each respondent has the appropriate time and place to complete the survey voluntarily.
组织调研对象，在适宜的时间及地点展开调研。如上课前，课间休息，午餐休息，晚间休息时间，在教室内，校园里，餐厅内，或学生寝室内邀请自愿的学生参加访问。
- Explain the objectives and background of the research project to the respondents.
向被访者介绍此次调研的目的及研究背景。
- Distribute the questionnaire to the respondents, and provide pens/pencils to the respondents to make sure they can complete the survey smoothly.
给学生发放调研问卷，并提供笔以辅助被访者顺利答写问卷。
- Introduce the coverage and scope of the study.
向被访者介绍此次问卷研究的对象及范围。
- Read the instructions for each section loudly to the respondents.
依照问卷的指示，大声地宣读每一个部分的答卷指示。
- Explain to the respondents how to respond to the survey instrument.
向被访者解释如何回答问题。
- Answer any survey-related queries from the respondents.
回答被访者提出的问题
- Collect the answered questionnaires and make sure each returned questionnaire has been entirely completed.
回收问卷，检查答卷的情况，并确保答卷真实有效。

3. The Structure of the Questionnaire and Interviewers' Instructions 调研问卷的结构及答卷指南

The questionnaire is composed of sections for individual modernity, parental influence, the perceived hotel job image, career intentions and demographic information. The instructions for each section are described as follows.

此份问卷共分为 5 个部分：第一部分:个人现代性，第二部分:父母影响认知，第三部分: 酒店职业形象，第四部分:学生职业意向，第五部分:被访者个人信息。以下表格为问卷答题指南：

Section No. 编号	Section Name 研究内容名称	Descriptions of Areas Covered 研究内容描述	No. of Items 问题数量	Instructions for Respondents 答卷指南
1	Individual modernity 个人现代性	To understand how modern the respondent is 了解被访者个人现代性方面的态度	12 (8)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the respondents about the extent to which they agree with each statement. 了解被访者对每条题目的同意程度。 • 7-point Likert rating scale. 量表测量题 • Ask the respondents to tick an appropriate number based on their perceptions. 请被访者根据自己的同意程度，在适合的数字上打勾，例如： <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If the respondents „strongly agree“ with the statement, then „7“ should be ticked. 如果“非常同意”，请在数字“7”打勾。 - If the respondents just „agree“ with the statement, then „6“ should be ticked. 如果“同意”，请在数字“6”打勾。 - If the respondents have neutral attitudes towards the statement, then „4“ should be ticked. 如果“中立”，请在数字“4”打勾。 - If the respondents „disagree“ with the statement, then „2“ should be ticked. 如果“不同意”，请在数字“2”打勾。 - If the respondents „strongly disagree“ with the statement, then „1“ should be ticked. 如果“非常不同意”，请在数字“1”打勾。
2	Parental influence 父母的影响认知	To understand how parental influence affects students 了解被访者对父母影响的认知	22 (17)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the respondents about the extent to which they agree with each statement. 了解被访者对每条题目的同意程度。 • 7-point Likert rating scale. 量表测量题 • Ask the respondents to tick an appropriate number based on their perceptions. 请被访者根据自己的同意程度，在适合的数字上打勾，例如： <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If the respondents „strongly agree“ with the statement, then „7“ should be ticked. 如果“非常同意”，请在数字“7”打勾。 - If the respondents just „agree“ with the statement, then „6“ should be ticked. 如果“同意”，请在数字“6”打勾。 - If the respondents have neutral attitudes towards the statement, then „4“ should be ticked. 如果“中立”，请在数字“4”打勾。 - If the respondents „disagree“ with the statement, then „2“ should be ticked. 如果“不同意”，请在数字“2”打勾。 - If the respondents „strongly disagree“ with the statement, then „1“ should be ticked. 如果“非常不同意”，请在数字“1”打勾。
3	Perceived hotel job image 酒店职业形象认知	To understand how the respondents perceive the hotel job image 了解被访者如何认知酒店职业形象，或对酒店职业形象的态度	18	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the respondents about the extent to which they agree with each statement. 了解被访者对每条题目的同意程度。 • 7-point Likert rating scale. 量表测量题 • Ask the respondents to tick an appropriate number based on their perceptions. 请被访者根据自己的同意程度，在适合的数字上打勾，例如： <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If the respondents „strongly agree“ with the statement, then „7“ should be ticked. 如果“非常同意”，请在数字“7”打勾。 - If the respondents just „agree“ with the statement, then „6“ should be ticked. 如果“同意”，请在数字“6”打勾。 - If the respondents have neutral attitudes towards the statement, then „4“ should be ticked. 如果“中立”，请在数字“4”打勾。 - If the respondents „disagree“ with the statement, then „2“ should be ticked. 如果“不同意”，请在数字“2”打勾。 - If the respondents „strongly disagree“ with the statement, then „1“ should be ticked. 如果“非常不同意”，请在数字“1”打勾。

Section No. 编号	Section Name 研究内容名称	Descriptions of Areas Covered 研究内容描述	No. of Items 问题数量	Instructions for Respondents 答卷指南
4	Career intention 职业意向	To understand respondent's career intentions 了解被访者毕业后职业意向	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the respondents about the extent to which they agree with each statement. 了解被访者对每条题目的同意程度。 • 7-point Likert rating scale. 量表测量题 • Ask the respondents to tick an appropriate number based on their perceptions. 请被访者根据自己的同意程度，在适合的数字上打勾，例如： <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If the respondents „strongly agree“ with the statement, then „7“ should be ticked. 如果“非常同意”，请在数字“7”打勾。 - If the respondents just „agree“ with the statement, then „6“ should be ticked. 如果“同意”，请在数字“6”打勾。 - If the respondents have neutral attitudes towards the statement, then „4“ should be ticked. 如果“中立”，请在数字“4”打勾。 - If the respondents „disagree“ with the statement, then „2“ should be ticked. 如果“不同意”，请在数字“2”打勾。 - If the respondents „strongly disagree“ with the statement, then „1“ should be ticked. 如果“非常不同意”，请在数字“1”打勾。
5	Demographic profile 个人信息	To collect respondents' demographic information such as their gender and age 收集被访者个人信息，如年龄，性别，专业方向等。	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask the respondents to indicate their demographic information. 请被访者选填自己的个人信息 • Question 1-3: nominal, single answer. Ask the respondents to tick ONE answer based on their own information 第一至第三题：单选题，请被访者根据自己的情况，选择一个答案。 • Question 4: nominal, single answer. Ask the respondents to tick ONE answer from „hotel stream“, „tourism stream“ or „other“. If „other“ is ticked, the stream should be specified. 第四题：单选题，请被访者根据自己的情况，选择一个答案，如“酒店管理方向”，“旅游管理方向”，或“其它”。如果选择“其它”，请注明。 • Question 5: nominal, single answer. Ask the respondents to tick ONE answer based on their own information. 第五题：单选题，请被访者根据自己的情况，选择一个答案。 • Question 6: nominal, ratio. 第六题：单选题，多选题，问答题 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - If the respondents tick „I have never had an internship at a hotel“, then go to question 7 directly. 如果被访者“从来没有在酒店实习的工作经历”，请勾选后，直接回答第七题。 - If the respondents tick „I have had an internship at a hotel“, then select the department in which they had the internship, such as „F&B“, „Room division“ or „Other department“. If „Other department“ is selected, the department should be specified. 如果被访者“曾经在酒店实习过”，请勾选曾经工作的部门，如“餐饮部”，“客房部”，或在“其它”部门工作，请注明。 - If the respondents specify a department, they should also specify the number of months they worked in that department. 当勾选了曾经工作过的部门后，请注明工作了几个月。 - The respondents may provide multiple answers when specifying internship departments. 选择曾经实习的部门的时候，允许多选。 • Question 7: nominal, single answer. Ask the respondents to tick ONE answer based on their own information. 第七题：单选题，请被访者根据自己的情况，选择一个答案。

Appendix 10. Main Survey Questionnaire



Dear Participants:

I am currently studying in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. As a PhD student majoring in hotel human resources management, I am conducting a study of the perceived hotel job image in China and its relationship with the career intentions of hospitality degree students.

I would hereby like to invite you to participate in my research. Your kind understanding and support would be highly valued and appreciated.

I sincerely promise that all respondents will be anonymous and that your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. **The data collected will be analysed collectively ONLY and no individual data will be released.**

Please feel free to contact me via e-mail at [lily.sun@_____](mailto:lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk) or phone at 00852-34002334 if you have any questions or inquiries. Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best!

Yours sincerely,

Lily Sun (PhD student)

September 2012

尊敬的受访者：

本人现就读于香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院，主修酒店业人力资源管理方向。博士论文《酒店职业形象认知与职业选择的关系》，重点研究酒店职业形象对学生职业选择的影响。

在此，本人诚邀您参与本次调研，您的帮助与支持将积极地推动这项学术研究取得贡献性的成果。本人郑重承诺不会泄露您的个人信息，**所有的数据将只用于学术研究并给予保密**，不会给您带来任何方面的风险与困扰。如有任何疑问，请您及时与本人取得联系。我的电子邮箱地址为：[lily.sun@_____](mailto:lily.sun@polyu.edu.hk)，联络电话为：00852-34002334。诚挚的感谢您的帮助，并祝您万事如意。

此致

敬礼！

调研人：孙宏莉（博士研究生）

2012年9月

Section A. Individual Modernity 个人现代性

Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 请在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
 3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	I think that the more education I have, the better life I could have. 我认为 受教育越多，生活越好。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I think self-achievement is the key factor for gaining the respect of others. 我认为一个人赢得他人尊重的主要因素是他的 个人成就。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I would like to meet and interact socially with new friends. 在社交场合，我愿意 认识新朋友。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I would move to another place far away from here if I could earn twice as much there. 即使已经有很好的生活，但是 如果有双倍的收入吸引我，我仍然愿 即使已经有很好的生活，但是 如果有双倍的收入吸引我，我仍然愿意搬到一个陌生的地方工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I would better understand foreigners' ways of thinking if I lived in a foreign country. 如果在国外生活，我能够更好的理解外国人的思考方式。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I think our society has changed a lot. 我认为当今的 社会变化很大。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I think the changes made to our society have been positive. 我认为 社会的变化是积极的。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I think poor people's opportunities to change their economic status have increased. 我认为 贫困的人改善经济条件的机会增加了。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section B. Perceived Job Image in the Hotel Industry 酒店工作职业形象

The following questions ask your perceptions of the hotel job image. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对酒店行业职业形象的认知。请根据您的个人感知（或看法或意见）或经历在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	Hotel staff members are very helpful. 酒店员工非常乐于助人。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Hotel staff members are hardworking. 酒店员工工作非常勤快。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Hotel staff members are very polite. 酒店员工非常有礼貌。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Hotel staff members are amiable. 酒店工作的员工和蔼可亲。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Hotel staff members have good personal inner qualities. 酒店员工有很好的个人内在素养。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Hotel staff members have to work at the weekends and public holidays. 酒店员工不得不在周末及节假日工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Hotel staff members have a good body image. For example, they have a good appearance and are properly make-up and well groomed. 酒店员工有好的形象，例如，较好的仪容仪表。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Hotel staff members have to work irregular hours, such as shift work and night shifts. 酒店员工的工作时间不规律，如轮班，夜班。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Serving others at a hotel is demeaning in China. 在中国酒店工作服务于别人，是低下的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	Hotel jobs in China have a low social status. 在中国酒店工作的社会地位很低。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	Hotel staff members are not well respected by the public. 酒店员工得不到公众们的尊重。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	Working at a hotel in large cities offers good career development. 在大都市里，做酒店工作有好的发展前途。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	The hotel industry is very promising. 酒店行业很有发展前途。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	Hotel jobs are very challenging. 酒店工作很有挑战性。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	Hotel jobs are very interesting. 酒店工作很有趣。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	Working at a hotel offers the opportunity to experience a multicultural environment. 在酒店工作有机会接触多元文化。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	Staff members with a bachelor's degree can be promoted soon. 在酒店工作，拥有本科学历的员工可以很快得到升迁。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	Management trainee positions at hotels ensure my career path in the hotel industry. 在酒店行业，管理培训生的职位能够保障我的职业发展。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section C. Parental Influence on Your Career Intentions 父母影响与职业意向

The following questions are asked to determine your perceptions of parental influence on your career intentions. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对父母影响您职业意向的看法。请在适当的选项上打勾选出您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	I think my parents support me in choosing a career in the hotel industry, no matter what position I hold. 我觉得无论是从事管理或基层岗位，父母都支持我在酒店行业工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I think my parents have a positive attitude towards the hotel industry. 我觉得父母对酒店行业的工作抱着积极的看法。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I think my parents believe that I can be successful to work in the hotel industry. 我觉得父母相信我能在酒店行业的工作中取得成功。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I think my parents believe it is good for me to find a job that is related to what I am learning. 我觉得父母赞同我选择与现在所学相关的领域工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	My parents often discuss hotel industry careers with me. 我父母经常和我讨论酒店行业的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I think my parents are accurately informed about hotel industry careers. 我觉得父母对酒店行业的工作有准确的认识。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	My parents encourage me to participate in some career-related education or training. 父母鼓励我参加一些职业教育培训活动。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	My parents try their best to help me pursue my chosen career. 我父母会为我创造条件，尽量努力协助我找到喜欢的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	My parents encourage me to work for a company where I can receive specialised training and develop working skills. 我父母鼓励我选择在能提供专业培训的公司工作，有助于提升工作技能。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	My parents encourage me to choose a job that I am interested in. 我父母赞同我选择自己感兴趣的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	I think my parents will let me choose my own career. 我父母会让我自己选择职业。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	My parents encourage me to do a job to the best of my capabilities. 我父母鼓励我做可以发挥我自己特长的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	I would prefer to choose a job that will ensure my parents a good quality of life as they grow older. 我喜欢选择能够使我有能力保障父母晚年生活的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	I would prefer to select a job that will make my parents feel proud in front of other relatives and friends. 我喜欢选择让父母在亲朋好友面前值得为我骄傲的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	My parents encourage me to pursue a stable career. 我父母鼓励我选择稳定的工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	I consider my parents' opinions when selecting my career choice. 我会参考父母在职业选择方面的意见。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	I think my parents' work values will influence mine. 我觉得父母的工作价值观会影响我的工作价值观。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

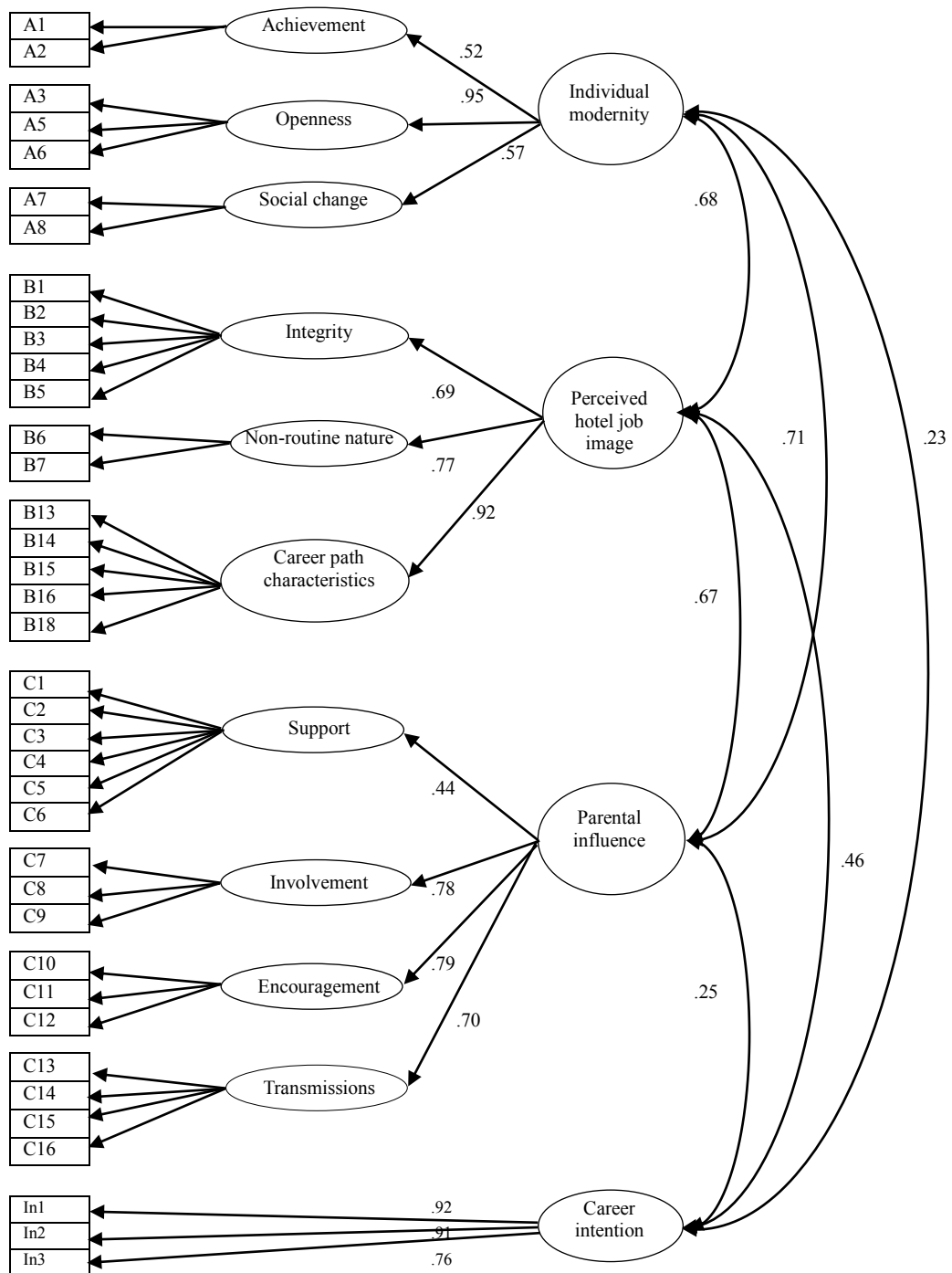
Section D. Career Intentions after Graduation 酒店工作意向

The following questions ask your intention of working in hotel. Please identify the degree to which you agree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number. 以下问题意在了解您对毕业后到酒店行业工作的意向。请根据您的感知（或看法或意见）或经历在适当的选项上打勾选您对下列陈述的同意程度，谢谢！

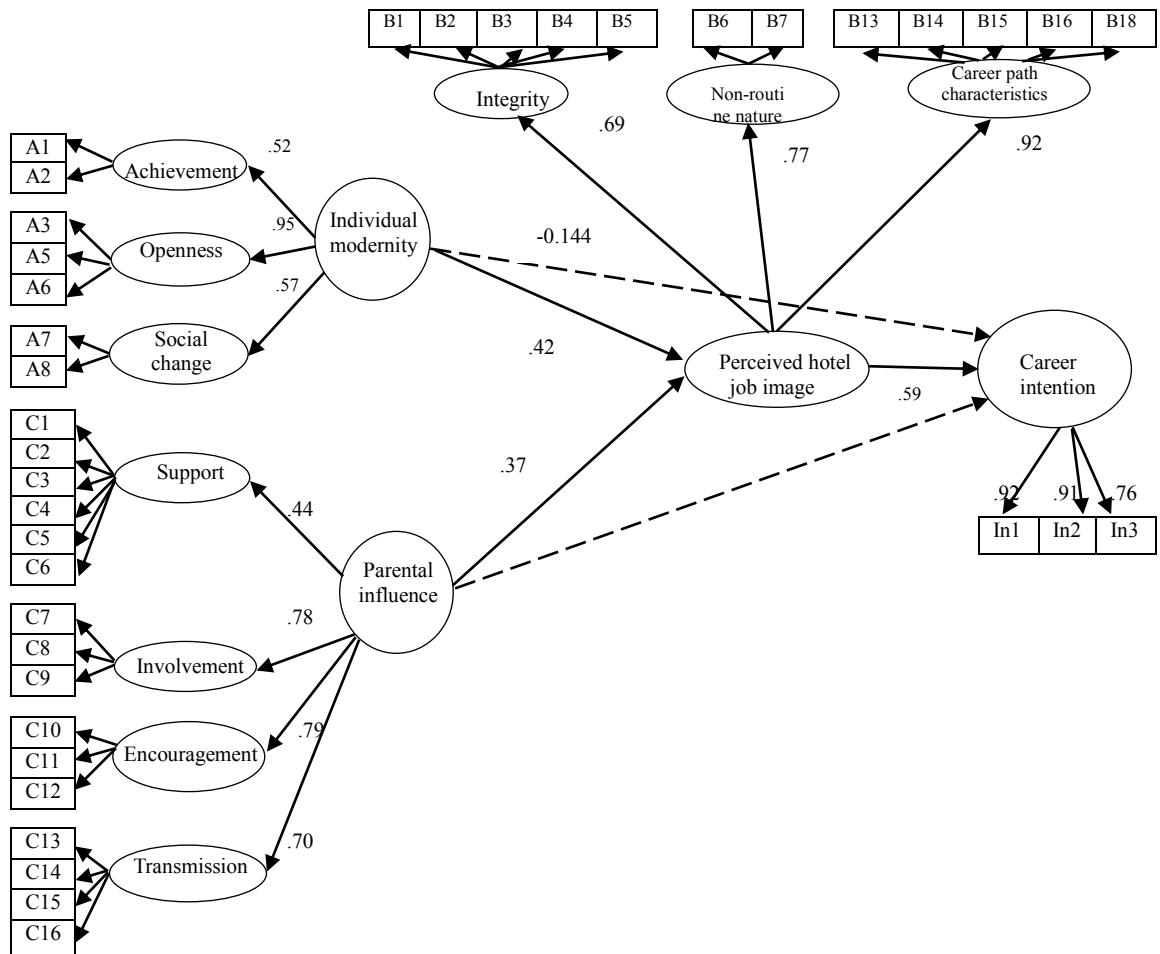
7=Strongly agree 非常同意 6=Agree 同意 5=Slightly agree 比较同意 4=Neutral 中立
 3=Slightly disagree 比较不同意 2=Disagree 不同意 1=Strongly disagree 非常不同意

	Statements 问题陈述	非常同意	同意	比较同意	中立态度	不太同意	不同意	非常不同意
1	I would like to work in the hotel industry after graduation. 毕业后，我想在酒店行业工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I believe I can advance my career in the hotel industry. 我相信我能在酒店业发展我的职业/事业。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I would recommend hotel jobs to my friends and relatives. 我会向亲戚朋友推荐酒店工作。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	It would be a wrong decision to choose hotel as a career path. 选择酒店职业将是一个错误的决定。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix 11. Overall Measurement Model



Appendix 12. Structural Equation Model



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