HOW CAREER VARIETY INFLUENCES CAREER TRAJECTORIES:
A STUDY IN THE US HOTEL INDUSTRY

A Dissertation in
Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Management
by
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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

August 2015
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Employment in the United States is a complex and important area of study. This dissertation examined how employment has changed in contemporary American society in recent decades, by means of testing several hypotheses that were derived from the literature on the topic and that were related to the effect of individuals’ career variety on their future career trajectories. Specifically, the study investigated how a person’s career variety (defined as the accumulation of distinctly different professional experiences) predicted future mobility outcomes, such as the intent to turn over or to change careers, as well as one’s commitment to an organization.

The study gathered data from 111 actively working hotel managers from various professional affiliations and from various management levels and career stages and found that these proposed associations of career variety and career change intentions were moderated by the satisfaction that people had had with their careers. Data were analyzed using a regression-based approach and paradoxically revealed that the same conditions that induced career change intentions also induced feelings of commitment to one’s employing organization. Specifically, as the amount of career variety increased, the more satisfied hotel managers were, and they reported a positive association with both career change intentions and continuance commitment to an organization. On the contrary, when career variety increased and hotel managers were relatively unsatisfied they reported a negative association with both career change intentions and continuance commitment to an organization. The relations were different for men and women, which suggests that men and women engage in professional mobility under different conditions and for different reasons.

Recommendations for industry practitioners include suggestions on how to better hire applicants and how to conduct annual audits to reduce costs associated with hotel managers exiting the hotel industry. Implications for scholars were centered around the role that past
professional behavior plays on a manager’s retention both within an organization and within an industry and their reported commitment levels.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the Penn State Alumni Association for their assistance in helping me collect data. I would also like to especially thank Brian Black for his support and assistance in facilitating the data collection process. I would also like to thank my committee members, who have been a source of support throughout the entirety of my graduate studies, but most especially when working on the dissertation project. Dr. Hambrick’s belief in my abilities as a scholar was a source of confidence throughout this process. Dr. Martinez continually challenged and supported my efforts, giving me a sense of direction and a feeling that the project was always moving forward. I would especially like to thank Dr. Mattila and Dr. Van Hoof, without whom this dissertation would have never been completed. Their unwavering support and encouragement was a key and determining factor in my ability to successfully complete this work, and I would like to thank them for their kindness and generosity of spirit. I would also like to thank my parents for their love and understanding throughout my tenure as a graduate student and most especially when writing my dissertation. They were always a welcome supportive pair and helped make light the, at times, cumbersome tasks encountered in pursuit of my degree. Thank you—thank you all.
Chapter 1

Introduction

A Puritan work ethic is ingrained in the American cultural psyche (Weber, 1998) and hard work and frugality have long been regarded as displays of a person’s devotion and dedication to God. This work ethic has influenced American social values since colonial times, and is reflected in modern American thinking in the words of Colin Powell, who said: “A dream doesn’t become reality through magic; it takes sweat, determination and hard work” (Crum, 1998).

For the purpose of this dissertation, the terms employment and work will be used as synonyms. Careers are defined as the accumulated professional experiences of workers and career orientation will be defined not only as an individual’s understanding of what a career is, but also as the purpose of a career in one’s life (Hall, 1976). Work has benefits for individuals and communities that go beyond mere economics. According to Waldron (2007), employment is linked to relatively healthier lives, healthier home environments, safer neighborhoods, better nutrition, higher quality childcare, and better educational opportunities. Conversely, unemployment and underemployment (inconsistent or unstable work) are linked to negative outcomes such as an increase in blood pressure, unhealthy coping behaviors, and depression. Laid-off Americans have been shown to be 83 percent more likely than their fully-employed counterparts to develop stress-related health conditions (Strully, 2009).

Employment also leads to beneficial psychological outcomes: Graetz (1993), for instance, found that those who are employed reported a 23 percent lower level of psychological distress than those who are unemployed. Re-employment may reverse the negative psychological effects caused by unemployment (Kessler, Turner, & House, 1988). A report commissioned by the
National Institutes of Health suggests that gaining employment, and consequently getting off welfare programs, reduced mothers’ drinking problems and rates of depression (Zabkiewicz & Schmidt, 2009). Damaske (2011) found that employment has positive familial outcomes beyond income as well, such as strengthening familial bonds and the creation of a sense of contributing to the family. Given the importance of employment in modern society, a fact that became a topic of conversation after the “Great Recession” of 2008 and that has been on the front page of the nation’s newspapers since then, it is important to understand how people work and to gain further insight into how careers progress. The digital (technological) revolution that started in the 1980s has made product and service life cycles increasingly brief (Smihula, 2011) and has changed the way people work. As early as the late 1980s, Handy (1989) already observed that people needed to acquire skills and to learn continuously throughout their careers in order to be productive in the workplace. The quick evolution of technology has made the need to learn new skills in the workplace even more acute than Handy observed, as new forms a digital technology need to be learned regularly and adapted to the workplace (Smihula, 2011). Hall (2002) furthermore suggests that learning has become tied more to complete mastery of a topic or technology, rather than to age or the position one holds in an organization’s hierarchy; quick and continued learning is necessary and at times essential for employment and advancement in contemporary American society.

This shift in how people work can be seen by the increase in telecommuting that has occurred and that was made possible by the digital revolution. A total of 3.3 million American workers now consider their homes their primary places of work, and the number of those who telecommute, at least some time, has actually grown since the last recession, while the total number of workers has declined (Lister, 2015). While recent economic and technological events have changed the way in which people work, career advancement strategies have changed as well. Workers have become more self-directed in their careers, are more mobile, evaluate success
subjectively, value freedom and growth, and are concerned with being committed to their professions (Hall, 2004). Given the rise of a more adaptable and versatile career management orientation, workers are hypothesized to have lower levels of commitment to their organizations (Feldman & Ng, 2007), and therefore studying organizational commitment may become a particularly important scholarly inquiry.

Scholars have referred to this change in how careers are regarded and managed as the “protean career” (Hall, 1976; 2004), and the phenomenon will be studied here in the context of the American hotel industry. Unlike the traditional career that was common in the years after the Second World War—in which the organization was the dominant force in learning, succession planning and employee development for instance, workers have increasingly shifted from being committed to organizations to being committed to professions, from allowing the organizations for which they work to direct their careers to being self-directed, and from valuing advancement in one organization to valuing freedom and growth (Hall, 2004). In part the protean career orientation induces certain professional behavior as stated, “The protean career orientation [PCO] motivates states such as agency (through self-direction) and clarity (though being values-driven) to guide job search activities, which are more specific states than having a global sense of confidence in self” (Waters, Briscoe, Hall, & Wang, 2014; p. 411). This change in workers’ career orientations occurred after American companies changed their human resource management strategies after the Arab oil embargo in 1979 (Handy, 1989). The Arab oil embargo helped usher in the modern global economy, because it brought international issues to the forefront of executives’ cognitions; the result was not only to seek out new markets for sales and production, but also to cut costs through the way labor was managed in order to be globally competitive (Hall, 2004). Hall (2004) claimed that not only were staffing levels reduced in American corporations after 1979, but organizational hierarchies became flatter and more fluid as well, as a way to respond to a more globalized world. This has led modern workers to seek to
build skills and experience to help them be more mobile and create greater flexibility, even when fully employed (Forrier, Sels & Stynen 2009).

In the first few days of new employment, a sense-making process occurs between the employer and the employee that forms a type of psychological contract between the two (Tomprou & Nikalau, 2011). These psychological contracts represent implicit and informal expectations and obligations between employer and employee that set the tone for the relationship. Rousseau (1995) identifies two forms of psychological contracts, transactional contracts and relational contracts. Whereas transactional contracts contain an understanding of a series of short-term agreements regarding remuneration, sanctions for non-performance, and pay for performance schemes, relational contracts focus on the emotional and interpersonal relationships between employer and employee. As both workers and employers expect more transactional work arrangements, the labor market may become more fluid due to higher rates of both turnover and career change. While people manage their careers in a more protean way they are hypothesized to be ever more mobile (Hall, 2004), thereby they may seek out professional mobility outcomes driving up organizational costs through their exits.

With work becoming more transactional in nature in the years after the digital technological revolution (Rousseau, 1995), the protean career has gained prominence with the dynamic nature of contemporary employment. While this shift in career orientation and employment has been well documented, it is still possible to work, and be successful, in one or two functional areas with one or two companies for an entire career, the more traditional career approach (Homori, 2010). The causal arrow may point in both directions, between career variety “the array of distinct professional and institutional experiences a [professional] has had” (Crossland, Zyung, Hiller & Hambrick, 2014, p. 652) and the intent to be professionally mobile. People may engage in mobility when not intending to do so, for example after a company layoff or when receiving an unsolicited job offer (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Yet, to further our collective understanding of what
this shift in career management means, this dissertation will investigate how a person’s career
variety influences one’s future career intentions. A second point that will be made is how that
level of career variety (which in part encapsulates professional mobility events like turnover)
determines one’s level of commitment to an organization. The aim of this dissertation is therefore
to answer the following question: How does the level of career variety influence future career
outcomes for American hotel managers?

This chapter introduced the concept of the protean career in light of recent changes in
society. In the next chapter, this study presents an expansive review of the relevant literature
regarding the changing nature of work in our modern-day society and proposes several research
hypotheses that are based on empirical evidence that form the basis of this study into the effect of
career variety on career trajectories in the US hotel industry.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

A Historical Perspective

The labor market has changed since the post-World War II era that many Baby Boomers knew and with it the way in which people managed their careers. In the more traditional career that was established in the 1940s and that lasted through the 1970s, organizations were central to career development, commitment, and defined success. Careers and career perspectives have changed from the organizationally-driven framework that saw the organization as the driving force to where individuals increasingly manage their careers by being adaptive and versatile: careers have become more protean in nature.

The origins of the word “protean” can be traced back to the early Greek sea god, Proteus, who had the uncanny ability to change into whatever shape or form he chose. “Protean” is defined as displaying a great deal of diversity or variability, and it is often associated positively with flexibility and ingenuity. Related to a person’s career, Hall (2004) states that “it describe[s] a career orientation in which the person, not the organization, is in charge, where the person’s core values are driving career decisions, and where the main success criteria are subjective (psychological success)” (p. 1). He goes on to explain that the protean career serves the whole person or the “life-purpose” of the individual. The protean career therefore differs from the more traditional career in five key ways: (1) who is in charge of the career; (2) a person’s core values; (3) the degree to which a person is mobile; (4) the definition of success; and (5) key attitudes (Hall 1976). These differences are outlined in Table 1-1.
Table 1-1.
The Protean Career Contrasted Against the Traditional Career

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Protean Career</th>
<th>Traditional Career</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who is in Charge</td>
<td>Person</td>
<td>Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Values</td>
<td>Freedom and Growth</td>
<td>Advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of Mobility</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criteria of Success</td>
<td>Psychological Success</td>
<td>Position Level and Salary</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Subjective Success)</td>
<td>(Objective Success)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Attitudes</td>
<td>Work Satisfaction and</td>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional Commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from (Hall, 2004)

**A Change in the Way We Work**

Put in a historical context, the nature of work began to change after the oil embargo by the Arab nations in the late 1970s. During and after the embargo, American companies began to rapidly downsize their workforces and restructure their organizational structures to make them flatter in an effort to control costs (Hall, 2004). Simultaneously, another change that had a direct impact on how work was done was also afoot: the introduction of home computers, which brought technology into the mainstream of society. This rapid advancement in technology in the 1980s induced significant changes to the skills needed for success in the labor force. Learning to become competent in new technologies, processes, and skills became a frequent endeavor for workers (Handy, 1989). Due to these rapid technological advancements, workers’ learning became tied to the extent to which they were subject matter experts rather than to their tenure or the stage to which they had progressed in their careers with the organization (Hall, 2002).
Continual learning and skill development have helped to alter the way companies hire, train, and promote, and increasingly workers in the contemporary labor market seek out learning and growth opportunities rather than hierarchical advancement (Clarke, 2009). Learning and growth opportunities often occur outside of the bounds of the focal firm and people who take an adaptable approach to managing their careers and who seek out opportunities in novel environments can have more success in finding employment than those who take a more traditional approach to their careers (Plimmer, 2012; Waters et al., 2014).

Along with these changes in technology and the business environment, the issue of retention with organizations became a central question to scholars. During the 1980s, the most commonly studied career related subject was that of organizational commitment (Chartrand & Camp, 1991) and how commitment related to turnover. By the late 1980s, a new flexible form of work had emerged, as Handy (1989) explained. He described the organization as a “shamrock,” which included three types of labor, each representing a leaf on a shamrock: one leaf for core workers; one for part-time labor; and one for temporary or transient workers. The shamrock organization represented a structural change by which organizations created a more transient workforce, as workers were no longer always considered core full-time workers, and employee flexibility became more important than ever.

The Modern Labor Market

The Structure

By the 1990s, workers had been affected by the various changes in the labor market that had occurred, and the rise of the protean career was a way for them to adapt to these new labor conditions. Rousseau (1995) claims that the employment contract changed from a long-term
arrangement that was based on the relationship between the employee and the firm to a short-term arrangement that was based on a series of transactions between the worker and the firm. Workers shifted from working in one or two organizations in one or two functional areas for an entire career, to taking a more adaptive and versatile approach to their careers, where they gained experience in a multitude of functional areas and in several organizations.

The flatter organizational structure, which became popular after 1979 and the structural change from a linear, hierarchically driven, organization to the shamrock organization becoming more popular, created fewer vertical progression opportunities, making horizontal movement more common. Clarke (2009) observed that working professionals have started to pass up promotions to take on more horizontal types of career development opportunities for the sake of greater learning and skill development. Seeing that some professional employees actually prefer to pass on advancement opportunities, and the associated title and increased pay, is consistent with the self-directed nature of having a protean career orientation and of defining career success subjectively (Clarke, 2009). Hall argues, that pay and title are not as important as they were pre-1979; psychological success, employability and skill development are now more central to career management across industries. Within the flatter organizational structure of companies, workers now seek to become more valuable to the demands of the organizations and industries through shrewd career moves that advance their credentials, not necessarily their titles or their positions in the organizational hierarchy (Ballout, 2007). However, this dramatic change in how workers approach their careers, and the increase in horizontal moves has received scant research attention by the scholarly community, as was stated by Sullivan (1999) and reiterated a decade later by Sullivan and Baruch (2009), and what has been studied will be discussed next.

**The Contemporary Professional**

How workers have responded to changes in organizational structure has been a topic that has attracted consistent research attention: Clarke (2009) developed a taxonomy based on a
qualitative analysis of career paths, which described the types of careers people desire and how they negotiate their professional lives. He identified four types of career seekers (1) "Plodders" are those who work hard and do not expect much from their careers other than company loyalty and security; (2) "Pragmatists" are employees who make moves and take training to advance their careers with a singular orientation and can sometimes be seen externally as "institutionalized;" (3) "Visionaries" remain flexible in their careers but are highly planned. They seek to acquire skills and are "boundaryless" and seek to remain "employable." They will turn down jobs if they do not believe they will bring them the future that they desire, and (4) "Opportunists" who are like the visionaries in their mobility and desire to learn, but who do not plan their careers rigidly, and who take advantage of opportunities as they come about.

Forrier et al. (2009) posit that to become employable, people develop human capital (knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience), social capital (expected benefits of cooperation between people), self-awareness (the ability to recognize oneself distinctly from others), and adaptability (both the willingness and the ability to change behaviors, feelings, and thoughts in response to environmental demands) as a way to be attractive employees. The concept of employability – the likelihood that, or the ease with which, an individual can gain external employment – is the most important competency for new managers to possess in order to progress in their careers (Wang & Tsai, 2012). If people seek to build their level of employability while working professionally, Wang and Tsai (2012) argue that they are adhering to a protean, rather than a traditional career orientation, as they are open to opportunities that may not mesh well with traditional career progression, which is more focused on organization-specific criteria and focused on career advancement. Beyond being highly mobile in search of learning and development opportunities, individuals can also take personal responsibility for what opportunities to pursue, as opposed to organizationally sanctioned career progression opportunities.
One of the key aspects of a protean career orientation is that people are in charge of their own career development and progression, rather than deferring to the organization to map out their own individualized succession plans, as one would have done when planning to be employed by a company for an entire career (Homori, 2010). One way that people can take control of their own development and progression is to engage in lateral moves, or job transitions that take place at the same level of the hierarchy within an organization (Kong, Cheung & Song, 2012). Ng, Soresen, Eby and Feldman (2007) argue that horizontal moves can also take place between organizations when an individual remains at the same basic hierarchy level. As Hall (2003) states, the combination of a dynamic contemporary labor market and flatter organizations has changed the typical career progression model to be more unpredictable, to feature more lateral moves, and to present multidirectional development both within and between organizations. The perspectives of Kong et al. (2012) and Ng et al. (2007) suggest that movement has become key to development in the contemporary labor market, and Waters et al. (2014) claim that having a protean career orientation facilitates mobility. In summation, to take advantage of professional development that is favored by working professionals, people now set individualized goals and define success subjectively (Hall, 2004).

Briscoe, Hall, Frautschy, and DeMuth (2006) suggest that people take control of their professional lives and make determinations regarding what they consider to be “success” to achieve their goals or they have a performance orientation that drives them to engage in protean careers. Having this personal control and responsibility to set goals allows those goals to seem more authentic. A person can therefore drive his or her professional life in the direction he or she wishes, rather than focus on accomplishing organizational objectives or directions. Being “authentic” in career progression is consistent with the values-driven framework proposed by Hall (2004) in describing a protean career. Beyond simply being driven to define personal success, working professionals must also have the faculties to be aware and take advantage of
opportunities if they are to self-direct their careers. Although people are self-directed in their career development, they must progress through the environmental system in which they participate. Given the current popularity of the protean career, the next section will describe how scholars have studied employment in contemporary American society and how the scholarly community has researched the protean career orientation in general.

**Rise of Protean Career Research**

Scholars who have investigated the protean career have done so by using individuals as the unit of analysis. With regard to the protean career orientation, studies have sought to determine outcomes for individuals such as turnover (Dalton & Toder, 1993; Tschopp, Grote & Gerber, 2013), career change (Khapova, Arthur, Wilderon & Svensson, 2007), promotion rates (Campion, Cheraskin & Stevens, 1994; Murrell, Frieze & Olson, 1996), salary growth (Lam, Ng & Feldman, 2012), the direction of mobility (i.e., horizontal, vertical, or downward; Ng et al., 2007), professional mobility (Heaton & Ackah, 2007; Forrier et al., 2009; Wolff & Moser, 2010; Zhang, 2010), career success (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Enache, Sallan, Simo & Fernandez, 2011; Wang, 2013; Garavan, O’Brien & O’Hanlon, 2006), career satisfaction (Kong et al., 2012; Dries, Van Acker & Verbruggen, 2012), work-life balance (Direnzo, Greenhaus & Weer, 2015) and adaptability (Karaevli & Hall, 2006; Plimmer, 2012). The outcomes studied all look to determine the end results of having a protean career orientation – how people progress through their careers, how quickly they progress through their careers, and how satisfied they are with their careers. The following paragraphs will discuss several of the topics that have been especially popular topics of empirical research on the protean career orientation.

Hall (1976) posits that a combination of individual trait differences, structural factors, and career experiences will be related to career outcomes for people. Some of the types of experiences that have been studied in relation to the outcomes previously mentioned are: career
variety (Karaevli & Hall, 2006), salary increases (Dries et al., 2012), career counseling (Plimmer, 2012), networking (Garavan et al., 2006; Wolff & Mosser, 2010), and previous job movement between companies (Lam et al., 2012). Karaevli and Hall (2006) found that lateral career movement is more important than vertical career movement in determining career success, especially subjective success, but also future wage growth. They argue that managers gain important and diverse technical skills and learn to become more adaptive through lateral movement. Plimmer (2012) successfully induced protean career behaviors through career counseling sessions with professional workers who had recently been laid off. Through career counseling that helped workers understand how their skills could transfer to new industries and career avenues, Plimmer (2012) observed that people began to expand their job searches into new industries and harbored more protean career orientations than before. Those who were unemployed and harbored a relatively high protean career orientation were also able to find employment easier, and found more career growth when becoming reemployed than those with a lower protean career orientation (Waters et al., 2014).

Consistent with Hall (1976), structural factors of either the organization or the industry have also been investigated as to how they relate to individual career outcomes and some of the topics discussed are organizational transfer policies (Dalton & Todor, 1993), job rotations (Campion et al., 1994), changes in the macro-economy (Hall, 2004), and mentor support (Garavan et al., 2006). The following paragraphs will discuss the topics that relate directly to how the structural changes in employment relate to an individual adopting a protean career orientation and how careers themselves are managed.

Dalton and Todor (1993) suggest that organizations that facilitate internal lateral moves will enjoy longer tenured employees; however, when workers are not able to move laterally, their departure is likely imminent. The study suggests that organizations must not only have well-developed internal movement policies, but must also be able to find positions for their workers to
move between. Campion et al. (1994) found that younger workers who engage in job rotations (temporary internal lateral movements) enjoy greater career success. Job rotations are hypothesized to help with future career success through the knowledge and skill growth that they produced. Campion et al. (1994) echo Dalton and Todor’s (1993) finding that when younger workers did not engage in job rotation opportunities, their job satisfaction and motivation were lower than those who did.

Given the plethora of topics studied by scholars investigating contemporary employment, it is important to note that there are still several topics left unstudied or understudied (Gubler, Arnold & Coombs, 2014). This dissertation joins the scholarly conversation by examining how past protean-like behaviors (or the lack thereof) contribute to organizationally relevant variables—professional mobility and organizational commitment. Using career variety allows careers to be studied in a way that both advances theory and may aid practitioners with their real-work operational concerns, especially as this dissertation proposes hypotheses that suggest when and how the pattern of past behavior predicting future behavior is broken or altered.

Methodological Perspectives

Scholars have employed several different methodologies to study how a protean career orientation affects career outcomes. While no conceptual review of the literature exists investigating the methodological tendencies in the numerous studies on the concept, many of the studies have occurred in the field. Longitudinal field studies have been a popular method (see Wolff & Moser, 2010; Tschopp et al., 2013), as have been cross-sectional field studies (see Campion et al., 1994; Heaton & Ackah, 2007). Each method typically gathers data from an organization, though some have sampled from the general working public (see Zhang, 2010, for example). To the knowledge of this author, no industry-wide studies have been conducted on the effects of the protean career orientation that use either a cross-sectional or a longitudinal design,
therefore this study samples across organizational boundaries within one industrial context. Most studies regarding the protean career sample from within a narrow scope, such as using workers in a medical company (Campion et al., 1994) or human resources professionals (Sammarra, Profili & Innocenti, 2013). Though some studies have used samples of working professionals in nonspecific industries (Plimmer, 2012; Wolff & Moser, 2010; Murrell et al., 1996), they fall well short of being representative of workers in general or offering a representative sample of a given industry. These studies focus on the contextual realism that they can provide.

Papers that have used other methods to make generalizable claims have done so through formal theory proposals. These papers have allowed scholars to generalize across contexts without sampling from any specific context to build theory (see Hall, 2004; Feldman & Ng, 2007). In addition to the correlational field studies and the formal theory papers that have been written, qualitative inquiries have also been conducted. Clarke (2009) and Barron, Maxwell, Broadbridge and Ogden (2007) provide two recent examples of qualitative research. Clarke classified workers based on how they are oriented toward managing their careers, while Barron and his colleagues studied the pre-entry expectations Millennials have for their careers. Finally, research using experimental methodology has been scant. Plimmer (2012) is an exception, as he gave two different counseling sessions to unemployed workers in an effort to measure how adaptable they would be in searching for new employment. To the author's knowledge, no experimental studies have been conducted in a controlled setting, which would enhance the internal validity of the inferences in the scholarly conversation.

**An Understudied Construct**

Although the amount of research that has been conducted on careers is extensive, much remains unknown. For example, the main effects in this dissertation may not be particularly interesting, however, the proposed moderators may provide unique conclusions to aid in the
scholarly pursuit of new knowledge. Careers are a way for people to serve their “life-purpose” (Hall, 2004), and having a protean career orientation has been linked to higher levels of harboring a whole-life perspective when managing a career (Direnzo et al., 2015). This is related to one’s prestige and status, how one views work and life roles, and even a person’s search for meaning in life (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom 2005; Dougherty, Dreher, & Whitely, 1993; Sullivan, 1999). The scholarly understanding of the construct of career variety will be discussed next and how it relates to turnover, career change, and organizational commitment.

Career variety is driven by internal factors associated with individuals and the external structural environment in which they exist (Crossland, et. al., 2014). Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002) suggest that career variety is a distinct non-redundant behavioral construct. Recently, career variety has been conceptualized as the distinct combination of professional and institutional experiences an individual has accumulated, which contributes to the person’s experiential stock and the broadness of the person’s cognitive frame (Crossland, et. al., 2014).

Some studies have focused on individual characteristics that may contribute to career variety. One stream of literature focuses on the “hobo syndrome.” The hobo syndrome can be defined as; “the periodic itch to move from a job in one place to some other job in some other place” (Ghiselli, 1974 p. 81). Also, studies on the Big Five personality traits assume that individual differences in personality traits correlate to career decisions (e.g., job search and job change), hypothesizing that the relation between personality and career decisions is based on one’s orientation toward change and experimentation. Ng et al. (2007) suggest that the higher a person scores on the neuroticism personality trait, the more likely he or she is to seek professional mobility that is external to his or her current employer and at the same hierarchical level. They posit that extroverts, those who are highly conscientious or highly agreeable, are more likely to be more mobile than their counterparts, in general. Moreover, those who score high on the openness to experience construct are hypothesized to be more mobile when it comes to lateral movements.
only. However, personal differences have only been weakly correlated with career variety (correlations ranging from .07 to .18), which suggests relationships that are far from deterministic (Crossland et al., 2014). These personal differences may not be sufficient to explain career decisions. For example, Lee and Mitchell (1994) suggest that “shocks” to a person’s life, both positive and negative, and both in personal and professional theaters may contribute to an individual leaving an organization. They argue that a person may leave a job due to his or her spouse being relocated for a promotion, or after having to accept elder care responsibilities for an aging parent. These “shocks” have no conceptual link to personality as extroverts as well as introverts may see themselves in the role of a trailing spouse, or as a caregiver for an ailing family member. Career variety may also be accumulated after a layoff and subsequent rehiring in a new organization, which occurred after the recession of 2008 and the following drop in unemployment during the economic recovery (Lister, 2015).

Career variety provides an individual with a broad experiential frame of reference that one may call upon in the workplace to help solve problems (Dragoni, Oh, Vankatwyk, & Tesluk, 2011; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Career variety may be reflective of certain personal characteristics, such as openness to experience, risk propensity, neuroticism, need for autonomy, locus of control, broad professional networks, and broad professional experience. However, it is not a sum of these parts, but rather a unique and distinctive construct, which explains variance that these related factors do not (Crossland et al., 2014). Career variety will increase the cognitive scope of a professional due to the number of diverse situations the individual has been a part of, regardless of why the person obtained the degree of career variety in the first place. Therefore, if a person is predisposed to professional mobility or if, as Lee and Mitchel (1994) suggest, shocks (such as a company layoff or an unexpected pregnancy) to one’s personal or professional life are a reason for increased professional mobility the effect of that career variety, should be the same.
Increased career variety will expose workers to higher levels of functional, organizational, and industrial circumstances that allows them a greater variety of experiences from which to recall (Dragoni et al., 2011; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Studies that used executive managers as samples have shown that career variety shaped or contributed to cognitive breadth (Hitt & Tyler, 1991). Executives with more diverse experience in terms of the organizations they worked for have shown less commitment to the strategic status quo in their current organizational affiliation (Hambrick, Geletkanycz, & Fredrickson, 1993). Dragoni et al. (2011) recently found that those with more varied types of managerial experiences take more multifaceted approaches when engaging in problem solving. Finally, Crossland et al. (2014) related CEO career variety with novel actions, such as forming top management teams that are more diverse and carving out new strategic directions for the focal firm.

Career variety may also play a role in determining one’s professional network. Those with more diverse functional backgrounds had larger and more varied networks than those with fewer (Campion et al., 1994). Yao (2008) found that working for multiple firms was related to the frequency and willingness to participate in informal networks. Career theory also suggests that large and diverse professional networks are important for career success (Arthur et al., 2005). In fact, Lam et al. (2012) posit that professional networks are responsible for influencing social capital in the workplace, which would aid in career success (Ballout, 2007). Wolff and Moser (2010) found that networks external to the organization were associated with more mobility, and activating professional networks is associated with proximal job mobility, results that were echoed by Garavan et al. (2006), who also found that activation of a professional network increased the likelihood of professional advancement. The discussed research indicates that career variety begets more career variety through increased mobility outcomes for professionals. As people have more varied careers, they have both more cognitive breadth and more helpful professional networks. Career variety, therefore, might be a particularly salient factor in
determining whether someone will engage in turnover or career change. However, the structure of organizations and careers may help in determining when career variety induces simply more variety or exits from organizations (turnover, and potential career change).

Some of the forces that contribute to obtaining of career variety might be due to the fact that some individuals seek out variety between organizations. Tournament theory, however, would suggest otherwise. Tournament theory posits that managers compete for pay based on their ranks and that they work hard to advance for the prize of a higher salary, more status, and accumulated power (Lazear & Rosen, 1981). In the tournament framework, pay dispersion between managerial ranks is what affects turnover within an organization, because it sets up managers to be in direct competition for high stakes prizes (Lambert, Larker & Weigelt, 1993; Lazear, 1995). Tournament theory may be especially salient in a hotel management context, because managers frequently work when their supervising managers do not due to the 24-hour operations of hotels, and “when uncertainty and managerial discretion are high, monitoring managers becomes difficult and organizations may have to rely on relative performance evaluation and dispersed pay distributions” (Bloom & Michel, 2002 p. 40).

Essentially, when managers make downward comparisons (comparing themselves to subordinates), they are more likely to remain in organizations than their counterparts who make upward comparisons (comparing themselves to superiors; Eddleston, 2009). When pay dispersion increases, status also increases and it accelerates as a person climbs up the pay structure (organizational hierarchy). Managers work to outperform each other to obtain the prize (Gomez-Mejia, 1994; Lazear, 1995). Tournament theory is based on the logic that winners stay within organizations to compete for higher prizes while losers are eliminated from further competition and are expected to engage in turnover (Lambert et al., 1993). The high stakes tournament within organizations has the potential to promote antagonistic social relationships and can reduce employee commitment (Pfeffer, 1998). Promotions under the tournament framework are tied to
performance as well (Cichello, Fee, Hadlock, & Sonti, 2009) suggesting that organizations attempt to retain and reward their best performers. Ultimately rewarding an organization’s best performers with promotions does not necessarily induce more career variety for the “winning” managers, as they may be promoted within a functional area, and will, by definition, remain within the organizational structure. Those who are not promoted, however, and who leave the organization will accumulate more career variety, even if they remain in the same functional area, because they will work within a new organizational context.

Given that people who lose tournaments in the workplace are more likely to leave their organizations, they (as a group) may have accumulated more career variety over the course of their careers, and may begin to seek out mobility outcomes thus becoming more self-directed in their careers or as they are unable to move vertically in organizations easily, the following hypothesis is proposed:

\[\text{Hypothesis 1: Career variety of hotel managers will be positively associated with the intention to turnover}\]

Career variety may also be an effective explanatory variable for career change intentions. The Integrated Career Change Model (ICCM; Rhodes & Doering, 1983) describes the behavior of people who change their careers. In particular, the ICCM highlights the role of career progression, or the extent to which one has progressed in one's career, which is another way of thinking about career variety. Specifically, the ICCM suggests that employees who have advanced to a high degree and thereby enjoy more status in their professions will be less likely to change careers. The cost of changing professions becomes higher with each instantiation of advancement within an industry, similar to the arguments of tournament theory. Alternatively, those who have not advanced as much will have invested less time into their occupations and may see more potential for advancing in other professions (since they have not advanced as much in
their current careers as of yet), and will be more likely to change careers, and, may exit their organizations through turnover.

Feldman and Ng (2007) suggest that workers today are receptive to, and even seek out, various career progression outcomes (taking on new opportunities for professional growth and development) such as between- and within-organization vertical and horizontal moves. Vertical career progression is characterized as an individual moving up an organizational hierarchy (a within-organization move that suggests retention within an organization as tournament theory would posit), whereas horizontal progression would entail an individual changing jobs but staying at the same hierarchical level, which could be both a move between or within a given organization (Kong et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2007).

Career variety could lead to positive outcomes for learning, earnings, skills development, personal goal attainment, or even increased personal status. Dalton and Todor (1993) posit that increasing career variety allows employees to avoid negative outcomes, such as poor supervisory relationships, and to capitalize on positive outcomes. The benefits of vertical progression would also carry with them the additional benefits of providing the individual with higher compensation and more power within the organization, but also suggest that the individual, by “winning” in the tournament, will stay loyal to the organization, and thereby have less career variety because they are staying within their organization and will not accumulate any variety by moving between organizational systems.

An early study on career progression events (any career progression vertical or horizontal) found that they had an overall positive effect on the frequencies of promotions (Murrell et al., 1996). Lam et al. (2012) found that highly mobile workers, overall, had higher salaries than their counterparts who were not as mobile. Furthermore, vertical career progression, by definition, is positively related to increased compensation, and is considered important for managerial growth and career success (Karaevli & Hall, 2006). Finally, vertical career
progression opportunities were found to be key driving factors of managers who ultimately made the decision to change careers (McGinley, O’Neill, Damaske, & Mattila, 2014). Despite the potential impact of career progression on turnover and career change, there have been relatively few studies that have investigated these relations (cf., Shropshire & Kadlec, 2012). The strong support for vertical career progression suggests that there is a clear effect of vertical progression on success in the workplace.

Literature regarding lateral movement is not as clear as is research concerning the overall benefits of vertical career progression. The young immobile workers also had lower satisfaction and motivation rates than their older plateaued counterparts, which may contribute to the search for alternative industries to work in (Campion et al., 1994). Those who are able to move vertically within an organization acquire more pay, status, and power by advancing up the organization’s hierarchy, and those who move laterally within an organization are exposed to more learning, and skill development, and they build up movement capital to be used for future career advances, which may make them more mobile (Forrier et al., 2009).

Working professionals who have engaged in career mobility may therefore see lower barriers to change careers, have broader professional networks, have a more expansive experiential stock, and have received both perceived and realized benefits from being mobile. McGinley et al. (2014) observed that hotel managers often engaged in within-industry turnover before changing careers, and therefore the following hypothesis is brought forward:

*Hypothesis 2: Career variety of hotel managers will be positively associated with the intention to change careers.*

Another area of interest for career scholars is organizational commitment. Organizational commitment has been divided into three parts: affective, which refers to a person’s emotional connection to an organization, normative, which refers to a person’s sense of obligation to an organization, and continuance, which refers to a person’s perceived assessment of the costs
associated with leaving an organization (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Commitment has also been measured as a unidimensional construct by Blau (1988), where it is referred to as one’s feelings about an organization on a global level. Organizational commitment is thus like job satisfaction, which can be thought of as a global construct or as divided into various facets. Unlike job satisfaction, organizational commitment is considered to be substantially more stable and less malleable over time (Angle & Perry, 1983). In addition, both scholars and practitioners are interested in commitment (Jex & Britt, 2008) because it is theoretically important to understand human behavior, and of value to organizations (especially regarding turnover as they attempt to control their costs).

Commitment to an organization has long been thought of as a variable that could predict turnover in organizations (Mobley et al., 1978; Hom & Kinicki, 2001). Commitment was even posited to be a key driving force in the ICCM, leading to career change (Rhodes & Doering, 1983). Commitment predicting turnover has received strong empirical support (see Blau, 1988; 1989; Aryee & Tan, 1992 for examples) and is one of the more well-understood relations in the field of organizational psychology (Jex & Britt, 2008). Given the dynamic nature of employment in contemporary America, and the high turnover rates in the hotel industry in particular, it should also be of value to scholars, and practitioners, to better understand the potential iterative nature between the association of turnover and organizational commitment. Insight into, when previous behavior in the form of turnover and career change influence a person’s commitment levels should be investigated. Hall (2004) suggests that having a protean career orientation would reduce commitment levels to an organization. As individuals engage in more professional mobility through turnover and career change, those experiences may actually begin to shape how committed they become to their new organizations. This dissertation, in turn, seeks to understand how having varied or stable career histories helps explain people’s commitment to their organizations.
A more nuanced approach to understanding the relations between commitment and career variety may be merited in the literature. Baruch (2014) suggests that one’s career orientation should dictate specific outcomes, such as commitment. The hypothesis that career orientation determines commitment has not been empirically supported. Many of the results linking the protean career orientation to organizational commitment are inconsistent (Gubler et al., 2014). Ultimately, positive and negative relations have been observed in the field between an individual’s protean career orientation and organizational commitment, and still other studies have shown no significant relations (Baruch, Wordsworth, Wright & Mills 2012; Grimland Vigoda-Gadot & Baruch 2011; Cakmak-Otlugoglu, 2012; Briscoe & Finkelstein, 2009; Fernandez & Enach, 2008).

Previous research using a scale developed by Briscoe et al. (2006) has not shown consistent results (Baruch, 2014). The predictive ability of one’s career orientation or career variety could be a small effect, which is difficult to detect in empirical studies, or as Baruch suggests the measurement item could be flawed. Gubler et al. (2014) has highlighted the concern that a lack of solid and well-developed measurement items have hamstrung much of the work regarding the protean career concept. In addition, Gubler et al. (2014) suggested that more work needs to be done to develop measurement instruments and further define the protean career concept. This dissertation, therefore, does not use the scale developed by Briscoe et al. (2006) but rather looks at the association by collecting information regarding hotel managers’ career variety. Hall (2004) has called for more research using commitment as a dependent variable, however, until 2006 no measurement item for a protean career orientation existed and still little work has been conducted. Using career variety as an independent variable, this dissertation is able to see how past protean career paths help to determine future career related outcomes.

Another reason that consistent results have not been found is that only certain facets of career commitment may be predicted by variables like career variety. For instance, any individual
could develop an emotional connection to an organization (affective commitment). A high degree of career variety may simply reduce the levels of continuance and normative commitment, which would be in opposition to the protean embracement of freedom, growth, mobility, and self-direction. As a person has a lower protean career orientation, the individual would value mobility and self-direction less and would be committed more to an organization (Hall, 2004).

Competition in the tournament for promotions and increases in pay and hierarchy breeds more competition and can create antagonistic relationships between peers, which lowers commitment levels (Pfeffer, 1998). Career variety may, in turn, have a direct link to organizational commitment, however, possibly to only certain facets of the commitment construct. Increasing one’s career variety inherently suggests mobility, either moving across an organization hierarchy, or moving between organizations themselves. However, from an affective commitment standpoint there is nothing within the mobility of an individual that would prevent a person from becoming emotionally invested in the organization. As the facet of affective commitment has been conceptualized by Allen and Meyer (1990), there is no temporal element, which contributes to forming an affective connection with an organization. Additionally, a working professional may become enamored with an organization during orientation, or become highly affectively committed to an organization after having spent many years within the organizational system. Likewise a poor orientation experience could reduce affective commitment levels, and a working professional could become disenfranchised with an organization after many years of service. Affective commitment, which focuses on the personal attachment to an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990), may not be influenced by one’s career variety, therefore no formal hypothesis will be stated regarding a link between affective commitment and career variety (so as to not hypothesize the null).

The opposite may hold for the other facets of commitment: as one is highly mobile, and consequently increases one’s career variety, one may harbor lower continuance commitment (the
perceived loss of accumulated benefits from exiting an organization) levels. Even if career variety is built up within an organization by moving between functional areas or brands, much of the inertial force tethering one to an organization may be weakened. Forrier et al. (2009) suggest that increases in career variety build up movement capital for professionals, thereby making it easier for them to transition to alternative organizations or work environments. The longer one is within an organizational system the more one should report higher levels of continuance commitment through accumulated tangible benefits like accrued vacation time and intangible benefits like the increase in social status by acquiring a 10-year service mark, for example. Career variety should therefore increase the perceptions that alternatives to the organization can be found, as Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest. Additionally, normative commitment levels may also have a negative relation to career variety. As one becomes more mobile, as Hall (2004) suggests, one becomes more self-directed and increasingly values freedom and growth, which should reduce feelings of obligation toward an organization. In fact, those who had careers high in variety are posited to decline within-organizational promotions for movement to new organizations for learning and skills growth (Clarke, 2009), essentially behaving as if there is no norm tethering them to an organization. As people obtain more career variety, their cognitive breadth increases (Crossland et al., 2014) and they may take a more protean orientation to managing a career, which includes not being committed to specific organizations (Hall, 2004). It is therefore expected that increases in career variety in any form will reduce the continuance and normative commitment levels of professional workers, yet not the affective commitment levels, as discussed earlier. This then leads to the following two hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 3: Career variety is negatively associated with continuance organizational commitment.*

*Hypothesis 4: Career variety is negatively associated with normative organizational commitment.*
A Moderated Condition

A person’s level of career variety may relate to organizational level outcomes, such as turnover and commitment. Yet, even though career variety could relate to those outcomes, this may not always be the case, as other factors may moderate the relations. The study of career variety’s direct association to the outcome variables of interest to this dissertation may not be a particularly novel contribution, with the idea being that past behavior predicts future behavioral intentions—a well understood phenomenon. This dissertation also has suggested hypotheses that proposed that past behavior does not always predict future behavioral intentions, in fact some of the hypotheses suggest the exact opposite and the study therefore, has aimed to discover when patterns of behavior are broken or changed. Additionally, the understanding of career variety as a concept (past behavior predicting the future) is well-understood, however, the measurement of the variable for career variety was only developed in 2014 and has received little empirical testing to date. A moderated condition of career satisfaction is, thus proposed, in which career satisfaction is the global level of satisfaction with the entirety of an individual’s career (Greenhaus, Parauraman & Wormley, 1990). Baruch (2014) suggests that a protean career orientation is malleable yet stable within a person; therefore, a person probably has managed his or her career according to his or her career orientation as expressed through the person’s level of career variety. It would therefore stand to reason that the level of a person’s career satisfaction would play a role in professional mobility, such that when people are satisfied with their careers they will continue to manage them in a consistent way, and their past behavior will dictate future behavior. In a longitudinal study conducted in Switzerland with professional workers, who were not specific to any industry, the related construct of job satisfaction moderated the association between professional orientation and turnover intentions (Tschopp et al., 2013). The study found that when job satisfaction remained high over the course of a year, there was a direct relationship between a
person’s professional orientation (protean or loyal) and turnover. However, when job satisfaction was lower at the second time interval, those with loyalty orientations rather than protean orientations were less likely to still have low turnover intentions. Career satisfaction – a related yet independent construct from job satisfaction – may also affect some of the same relations and is probably more salient as it relates to career-level variables, since both career satisfaction and career variety are career-level, not job-level, variables.

Following the train of thought posited by Tschopp et al. (2013), if a person had low career variety and was unsatisfied with his or her career, then the individual would be more likely to seek out more career variety. However, those with high career variety would be likely to want to remain in one’s position for the long-term as an alternative strategy. Workers who were more mobile within their organizations were more satisfied in their employment, and therefore, harbored lower turnover intentions and higher commitment levels than those who wished to gain knowledge and skill growth through mobility outcomes, but could not (Campion et al., 1994). Those who were less mobile and did not have the opportunity to be professionally mobile were less satisfied, harbored higher turnover intentions, and were less committed to the organization than their more mobile counterparts. The findings of Campion et al. (1994) and Tschopp et al. (2013) indicate that satisfaction with a job moderates organizational outcomes when a person’s professional orientation is considered. The definition of career satisfaction, according to Greenhaus et al. (1990), takes a longer time horizon into consideration than job satisfaction and therefore, it may be a stronger, more salient factor when determining how it moderates the relations between career variety and outcomes such as commitment, turnover intentions, and career change intentions.

In short, the lower career variety is, the less likely an individual is to be mobile, but as satisfaction decreases, the relations may change so that when those who are increasingly immobile and unsatisfied seek out professional mobility as a way to rectify their situations. When
people increase their level of career variety they are hypothesized to be more mobile; however as they become increasingly dissatisfied with their careers they may become less interested in becoming professionally mobile. The reverse relations may be true for commitment, as the same conditions that increase or decrease mobility intentions should have the reverse association with commitment levels (the more one intends to be mobile the less committed the person is to the organization). Several hypotheses are thus proposed with career satisfaction acting as a moderating condition between the relations of the level of career variety obtained and organizational outcomes:

**Hypothesis 5:** Career satisfaction will moderate the impact of career variety on turnover intent. Specifically, when career satisfaction increases, career variety will have an increasingly positive association with turnover intent. Conversely, at lower levels of career satisfaction, career variety will have a negative association with turnover intent.

**Hypothesis 6:** Career satisfaction will moderate the impact of career variety on career change intent. Specifically, when career satisfaction increases, career variety will have an increasingly positive association with career change intent. Conversely, at lower levels of career satisfaction, career variety will have a negative association with career change intent.

**Hypothesis 7:** Career satisfaction will moderate the impact of career variety on continuance commitment. Specifically, when career satisfaction increases, career variety will have an increasingly negative association with continuance
commitment. Conversely, at lower levels of career satisfaction, career variety will have a positive association with continuance commitment.

*Hypothesis 8:* Career satisfaction will moderate the impact of career variety on normative commitment. Specifically, when career satisfaction increases, career variety will have an increasingly negative association with normative commitment. Conversely, at lower levels of career satisfaction, career variety will have a positive association with normative commitment.

**The Industrial Context**

The proposed study will take place within one industrial context, the U.S. hotel industry, and will focus on the experience of property-level managers. Hotel managers work within a specific macro-culture due to being members of the hotel industry (O’Neill et al., 2004). The hotel industry macro-culture has several unique characteristics such as partying (spending time socializing with workplace peers after working hours), face time (spending time at work while not having any work to do), and a “pay your dues” mentality in which managers are expected to make personal sacrifices for their careers (Mulvaney, O’Neill, Cleveland & Crouter, 2007).

The culture surrounding partying varies between hotels in regards to the hotel’s company affiliation, size, and location (O’Neill, 2012b), and has been linked to potential negative health outcomes for individual managers. As with partying, face time among hotel managers has been linked to adverse outcomes like burnout (O’Neill & Xiao, 2010). O’Neill (2012a) also, found that the expectations regarding face time vary between hotel organizations, yet they persist at some level across all industry members. In addition, McGinley et al. (2014) found evidence for both the cultural norms of partying and for a “pay your dues” mentality among hotel managers. The “pay
your dues” mentality was found to be a significant stressor for hotel managers and a concern for new entrants to the industry (Cleveland, O’Neill, Himelright, Harrison, Crouter & Drago, 2007).

In addition to the hotel macro-culture, there are structural concerns (how the industry is organized especially regarding the workplace) in the hotel industry as well. Where the macro-culture may be more or less intense across company lines, these structural factors are assumed to be stable across organizational boundaries. Hotel management work is considered fast-paced (Chuang & Dellmann-Jenkins 2010), low-paid (O’Leary & Deegan, 2005), team-based, and may require a broad set of managerial skills (Testa & Sipe, 2012). In addition, hotels are open 24 hours per day, seven days per week, without closing for holidays, and they require a managerial presence at all times (Cleveland et al., 2007). Managers in hotels often work long shifts during non-traditional working hours, and they do not have much flexibility in scheduling time off for personal reasons (McGinley et al., 2014).

Within the hotel industry there is also a “turnover culture” that provides a high base rate of turnover (Deery & Shaw, 1997, p. 377), and structural concerns that may act as a catalyst for turnover. One common issue for service organizations and hotel companies in particular, is the turnover rate among managers (Deery & Shaw, 1997; Cleveland et al., 2007). The high turnover rates in the hotel industry contribute to the career progression context that managers must negotiate, as managers are frequently creating job vacancies within the hotel industry through turnover that provides opportunities for other industrial members to increase their career variety.

**Double Moderation**

Given this U.S. hotel industrial context with its macro-culture of partying, face time, a “pay your dues” mentality, a “turnover culture,” and a structure requiring work during non-traditional times, there may be conditional effects based on gender and these will be discussed throughout this section. The industrial context of the U.S. hotel industry has developed a pattern of men making more career moves and advancing to higher paying managerial positions than
women (Blayney & Blotnicky, 2010), while in the general American labor market women have lessened the gender pay gap in recent decades (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012). In fact, in the last 30 years (for people with bachelor’s degrees) women’s salaries have increased by 30.8 percent while the same salary growth for men has only been by 16.3 percent (U.S. Department of Labor, 2012), and women may not have made up as much ground in hospitality as in the general workforce (Blayney & Blotnicky, 2010). In addition to having less of an opportunity to progress their careers than men, female hotel managers are also more sensitive to perceived gender-based career barriers, such as limited career choices, sexual harassment, and not being taken seriously in the workplace as compared to their male counterparts (Chuang, 2010). Their male counterparts conversely have other concerns that are more important in the workplace, which will be discussed next.

Men tend to focus on job content, and thus the clarity of the job description was found to be the most significant predictor of turnover for men (Blomme, Van Rheede, & Tromp 2010). Well-written job descriptions and an understanding of the role, may actually allow men in hotel management to better manage a career despite the macro-cultural and structural elements that may induce high levels of turnover, because men focus on the work itself and less on the balance that can be achieved between work and life than their female counterparts. Conversely, the same study (Blomme et al., 2010) found that women’s motivations for engaging in turnover included affective commitment, work-family balance, and promotion opportunities, all of which may be burdens for women in hotel management considering their perceptions of limited career choices in hospitality (Chuang, 2010), and their greater risk of having their careers interrupted than their male counterparts (Damaske, 2011). Given the industrial context of the U.S. hotel industry, the differing career trajectories of men and women within the industry, and the differentiation between men and women in their reasons for engaging in turnover, gender may be another moderating variable in the association between career variety and career outcomes.
More specifically, within the workplace women are more likely than their male counterparts to have their careers interrupted due to non-work concerns, such as balancing work with family life (Damaske, 2011). Within the macro-culture of the hotel industry, one way to balance work and family concerns is to move into departments with more stable schedules such as human resources or accounting, as compared to operating departments like front office or restaurant operations. Within the hotel industry rooms operating departments are considered “routes to the top” and are particularly valuable in progressing one’s career (Cleveland et al., 2007). Women, because of some of the choices they are expected to make on behalf of their families, or have to make, therefore tend to become placed in mid-level management positions where career progression opportunities become stunted, thereby limiting their general professional mobility (Kleiman, 2006; Glasscock, 2009; Murray, 2008), essentially they have to combat a “glass wall” in hotel management where they cannot transition laterally in order to move vertically through the organization. Men who do not have their careers interrupted as frequently as women, (Damaske, 2011) tend to stay in positions that are more traditionally considered routes to the top (Cleveland et al., 2007), and avoid the career progression slowdowns their female counterparts may encounter within an industry like hotel management that has specific departments that afford more promotion opportunities than others.

Gender may also play a role in how hotel managers intend to continue to manage their careers. Women who have accumulated increasingly high levels of career variety may be more prone to turnover intentions and career change intentions than their male counterparts as they, on average, may find increasingly greater interruptions to their career trajectories. Conversely, women who have increasingly low levels of career variety, may have struck a favorable balance between their home and professional lives, making them less likely to intend to engage in turnover and career change than their male
counterparts. The protean career orientation is even considered a particularly salient concept for understanding the career trajectories of women to a greater degree than their male counterparts (Gubler et al., 2014). The moderating effect of gender may be a particularly strong force in the hotel industry, therefore the following double-moderated nomological network is proposed and outlined in Figure 1, and specific hypotheses on the effect of gender are presented:

*Hypothesis 9:* Gender will moderate the impact of career variety on turnover intent. Such that the positive effect of career variety on turnover intent will be stronger for women than for men.

*Hypothesis 10:* Gender will moderate the impact of career variety on career change intent. Such that the positive effect of career variety on career change intent will be stronger for women than for men.

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![Figure 1. Visual Representation of the Proposed Nomological Network](image)
Chapter 2 reviewed the literature surrounding employment in contemporary American society, described the changing nature of the workplace and summarized the scholarly literature surrounding the constructs of interest to the dissertation. In addition, the chapter described the industrial context of the study, introduced career satisfaction and gender as moderating effects and presented ten falsifiable hypotheses to be tested. The next chapter will discuss the design of the study, data collection procedures and will describe how the presented hypotheses were tested.
Chapter 3

Methodology

Sampling and Data Collection

The results reported here are from data collected from active hotel managers within the United States by means of an electronic survey that was administered in the third quarter of 2014. With the proliferation of Internet use, electronic surveys have gained in popularity (Tierney, 2000). Some of the reasons for this growth lie in the advantages of collecting data online, the most prominent being the speed at which responses are received, which far outpaces traditional mailing or other paper methods (Dillman, 2007). Additionally, the cost of an emailed survey is only a small portion of the cost of a printed survey (Sheehan & Hoy, 1999). Surveys conducted over the Internet have also elicited more open-ended responses (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998) and more responses regarding sensitive issues (Link & Mokdad, 2005) than telephone or paper surveys.

Surveys administered online may have trouble obtaining a representative sample because not all people may have access to reliable Internet service (Horrigan, 2008) and overall response rates can be lower than other methods (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Tse, 1998). However, this survey solicited active hotel managers who could all be expected to have Internet access through work. An email containing a link to the survey was sent to participants, and following Pan’s (2010) suggestion, the initial solicitation email was followed by one thank you message and one reminder message, based on the access that was granted.

Respondents were considered qualified if they were working as a hotel manager in any capacity, in any brand, at any level at the time of the study, or had previously been hotel managers. The sampling technique was a purposive sampling technique in which “the investigator relies on his or her expert judgment to select units that are ‘representative’ or
'typical' of a population” (Singleton & Straits, 2010, p.173). The strength of a purposive sampling technique is that the researcher can take advantage of important sources of variation in the population when no sampling frame exists, thus providing stronger, less tenuous inferences than convenience samples. However, a drawback to the method is that making an informed selection of cases does not substitute for the effects of randomization, and it thus provides weaker inferences of generalizability (Singleton & Straits, 2010). A minimum target of 100 completed and usable survey responses was required for the study when a regression approach is used for data analysis, as suggested by Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson’s (2010) suggestion for survey research. A sample size of 100 respondents maintains a 20:1 ratio of respondents to variables within the model. With a total of one variable being used as a predictor variable and one construct as a dependent variable, the estimated power was .99 at an $\alpha = .05$.

A total of 111 hotel managers completed the survey. Study participants were solicited through various professional organizations (Fairmont Hotel Alumni, the American Hotel and Lodging Association [AH&LA], Tourism Cares, Hilton Hotel Alumni, Luxury Hoteliers Worldwide, and Hotel Managers International). These professional organizations and networks were approached with a request for participation and consented to have a brief message and a link to the survey posted on the LinkedIn group page of the organization. Two weeks after the initial posting, thank you and reminder follow-up messages were posted to the groups’ pages. In addition to these professional organizations, alumni from two schools of hospitality management, one in the Northeastern U.S. and one in the Southeastern U.S. that were selected to be somewhat representative of the broader population of hospitality programs in the U.S., were also solicited for participation in the survey. An email message with a link to the survey was sent to the alumni databases, and two weeks later thank you and reminder follow-up messages were sent.

A small majority ($n = 57, 51.4\%$) of the respondents in the sample were women. A large majority of the respondents had obtained a bachelor’s degree as the highest level of completed
education (n = 86, 77.5%), with the next highest level of completed education being an associate degree (n = 8, 7.2%). A total of 90 participants (81.1%) had received at least one of their degrees in hospitality management. The sample was largely Caucasian (n = 84, 75.7%) most participants were in a long-term committed relationship, with 54 (48.6%) reporting being married and 12 (10.8%) engaged or cohabitating. Of those in committed relationships 57 (72.2%) had a partner who worked full-time. A majority of the participants were parents (n = 60, 54.1%), and 62 of them (55.9%) had dependents living with them in the house.

**Measurements**

The independent variable of career variety was measured using Crossland et al. (2014) as a guiding framework. This study summed the distinct number of functional areas, organizations, and industries that executives worked in and divided that number by the total years spent in a professional management capacity, as a measure of career variety. The number of distinct organizations, functional areas, and industries (as defined by the three-digit NAICS codes) for which participants had worked were counted and summed and then divided by the number of years of their professional employment experience. Years of professional employment were counted as the number of years working full-time after completion of the highest level of education, as outlined by Crossland et al. (2014). In order to do this, the surveys also collected the work histories of the hotel managers; participants were given the option of uploading their resumes as an attachment to the survey or manually filling in their professional work experiences at the end of the surveys. Professional experience was coded for distinct organizational affiliation: if a respondent had worked for Marriott twice in their careers, Marriott would only be counted once, for example. Their experience was also coded for distinct functional area affiliation and the study verified that each functional area was counted only once. As the career variety score came closer to zero, an individual would have less career variety; alternatively, a higher score would equate to a higher degree of career variety.
A panel of experts (seven professors of hospitality management at various universities and three human resource managers in hotels) was asked to confirm the functional areas as typically defined in the unique industrial context of the hotel industry and to determine if any additional weighting should be given to those who had moved between organizations versus those who had moved within organizations. Panelists were of the opinion that functional areas were deemed to be distinct as they were broken down into separate operating departments in the hotel operational system: front office was coded as separate from housekeeping and accounting, for instance. The panel of experts also suggested that distinct brand affiliations should be coded separately, in addition to distinct organizational affiliations, because certain elements of organizational processes and culture would remain across brands within an organization, but movement between organizations would increase the experiential stock of managers. Finally, the panel of experts suggested that international experience needed to be considered as contributing towards career variety, so that each distinct nation-state that a manager had worked in was coded separately as well.

In summation, career variety was determined by summing the total number of distinct functional areas worked in, the number of distinct organizations worked for, the distinct brands worked for, the distinct nation-states worked in, and the distinct industries worked in. This total was then divided by the total number of years spent in professional managerial work.

Turnover intentions and career change intentions were both measured by three-item scales as developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982). Both scales were found to be reliable with the “turnover intention” scale having a Cronbach $\alpha = .92$ and the “career change intention” scale having a Cronbach $\alpha = .93$.

Organizational commitment was divided into the three separate and distinct constructs of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment using the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Their multi-item organizational commitment scale is
broken down into the three distinct parts and the total scale contains 24 items, with each sub-scale containing 8 items. Each career commitment subscale (affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment) was found to be reliable, with Cronbach $\alpha$ scores of .87, .80, and .74 respectively.

Finally, career satisfaction was measured using a multi-item scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). The scale for career satisfaction had five total items and no sub-scales and had a Cronbach $\alpha = .92$. The measurement items for all scales can be found in the Appendix.

Beyond the variables of interest, there were potential confounding factors that could influence the results of the study. Control variables primarily included demographic variables such as age, income, education level, relationship status, and partner and employment status. An individual’s protean career orientation was also measured and controlled using Baruch’s (2014) seven-item scale ($\alpha = .69$). The participants were asked to what degree they felt like a “trailing spouse” in a relationship or if they would move geographically if their partner needed to change locations for his or her career. Additionally, tenure with a manager’s current organization was also determined from the work history information provided. Only the factors of age, affective commitment, education level, and relationship status were used as control variables, since all other factors were non-significant within non-significant models.

**Data Analysis**

A regression-based approach was used for data analysis, and therefore, the assumption checks for regression were run with the data. No issues of multi-collinearity were found in the data with the highest variance inflation factor (VIF) scoring below 2.5, well under the threshold suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Additionally, the data were checked to ensure that they were normally distributed. All variables, with the exception of career satisfaction, had a skewedness factor that was less than the absolute value of one, and a kurtosis factor that was less than the absolute value of two, suggesting that all variables, with the exception of career satisfaction, were
normally distributed. The career satisfaction variable was transformed using the squared term, and the transformed variable had a skewedness factor of -0.83 and a kurtosis factor of 0.93. All results below using career satisfaction are reported using the transformed variable that meets the normality assumption for regression-based approaches.

Hayes’ (2013) conditional process analysis served as the data analysis guide for hypothesis testing. The study used Process Model One to test all moderated hypotheses. Process Model One is a moderated conditional process model that uses a regression-based approach. Process Model Two was used to test for double moderation. Career variety served as the independent variable, and turnover intentions, career change intentions, and organizational commitment (continuance and normative) were the dependent variables. Career satisfaction and gender served as moderating variables. The means and standard deviations of the variables and their bivariate correlations are listed in Table 2-1, as a final description of the data.

Table 2-1.
Means Standard Deviations and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Career Variety</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>.28*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Career Change Intentions</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.40*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Continuous Commitment</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>- .03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Normative Commitment</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>- .17</td>
<td>- .13</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Career Satisfaction</td>
<td>32.25</td>
<td>10.31</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.47**</td>
<td>-.37**</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Gender</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>- .06</td>
<td>- .02</td>
<td>- .13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Affective Commitment</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>-.21*</td>
<td>-.62**</td>
<td>-.37**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Age</td>
<td>35.68</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>-.65**</td>
<td>-.35**</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.31**</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Education Level</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>- .01</td>
<td>- .06</td>
<td>- .01</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>- .16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

This chapter described the study’s design, the data collection procedures, and the measurement of variables of interest. Chapter 4 will discuss the hypothesis tests that were conducted and the results of those tests. It will then present an interpretation of the results of those tests and make determinations as to which hypotheses were supported by the information obtained.
Discussion of Results

The first hypothesis posited a positive association between the level of career variety of a hotel manager and turnover intentions. Hypothesis 1 was supported in the data with a positive correlation of $r = .28$, which was significant at the $p < .01$ level. The other three main hypotheses that posited a positive association between career variety and career change intentions (H2), and negative associations between career variety and both continuance and normative commitment levels (H3 and H4) were not supported by the data collected.

Hypothesis 5 stated that the relation between career variety and turnover intentions was moderated by the effect of career satisfaction: the more satisfied a person is with his or her career, the more career variety would have a positive relation with turnover intentions and conversely, the less satisfied one is with one’s career, the relation between career variety and turnover intentions would be negative. Affective commitment was selected as a control variable for this model because it has a strong relationship with professional mobility outcomes (Jex & Britt, 2008). The results of the Process Model One regression model with turnover intentions as the dependent variable are shown in Table 3-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$b$</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>$t$-value</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>8.06</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>9.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-1.86</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction X Career Variety</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>-0.74</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-5.98</td>
<td>-0.99</td>
<td>-0.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interaction terms of career variety and career satisfaction did not have a significant association with turnover intentions, nor were there any significant conditional effects of career variety on turnover intentions at different values of career satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 was therefore summarily rejected.
Hypothesis 6 claimed that the association between career variety and career change intentions might be moderated by career satisfaction, in that the more satisfied a person is with his or her career, career variety would have a positive relation with career change intentions. Alternatively, the less satisfied one is with a career, the relation between career variety and career change intentions would be negative. Affective commitment was used as a control variable for this model because of its strong relation with professional mobility outcomes (Jex & Britt, 2008). The results from the Process Model One regression model with career change intentions as the dependent variable are shown in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. Process Model One Results for Career Change Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>b</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>7.51</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>11.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-4.36</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
<td>-1.49</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>-2.86</td>
<td>-2.52</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction X</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
<td>-0.42</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-2.71</td>
<td>-0.72</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As outlined in Table 4-1 there was a significant interaction effect between career variety and career satisfaction in this model with career change intentions as the dependent variable. A follow-up floodlight analysis, the Johnson-Neyman technique (Johnson & Fay, 1950) was run to determine at what levels the interaction became significant at the \( p = .05 \) level, as outlined by Ferraro, Kirmani, and Matherly (2013). This technique is a powerful tool when testing at what point a continuous moderating variable begins to have a significant effect within a model and it allows the researcher to test at what point moderated relations become significant and provides a range in which the associations are statistically significant (Johnson & Fay, 1950). The Johnson-Neyman technique is particularly effective when there are no theoretically important values (focal values) specified \textit{a priori} for the moderating variable (Spiller, Fitzsimons, Lynch & McClelland, 2013). Spiller et al. (2013) state that when the moderating variable is continuous and is measured
arbitrarily (without focal values), floodlight analysis is the optimal way to test for moderated interactions.

At the career satisfaction level of 4.43 (represented as 18.61 in Table 5-1) or lower there was a negative association between career variety and career change intentions; when career satisfaction levels were at 6.00 (represented as 35.64 in Table 5-1) or higher there was a positive association between career variety and career change intentions. These relations were as hypothesized and therefore Hypothesis 6 was supported in the data. Table 5-1 outlines the results of the floodlight analysis.

Table 5-1.
Conditional Effects of Career Variety on Career Change Intentions at Levels of Career Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Satisfaction</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>-2.44</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>-2.06</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.60</td>
<td>-0.94</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>-1.68</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.40</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>-1.31</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.61*</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.60</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.40</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.20</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.64**</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.40</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.20</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*12.04% of the sample is below the Career Satisfaction Value of 18.61
**47.22% of the sample is above the Career Satisfaction Value of 35.64

Finally, to further probe the interaction effect, the interaction was plotted using the quantile function in PROCESS. The follow-up analysis was run for graphing purposes and is represented as Figure 2.
Hypothesis 7 claimed that the relationship between career variety and continuance commitment might be moderated by the effect of career satisfaction, in that the more satisfied a person is with his or her career, career variety would have a negative relation with continuance commitment; alternatively, the less satisfied one is with a career, the relation between career variety and continuance commitment would be positive. A person’s relationship status and education level were used as control variables. These were selected as control variables, because, as someone is in a relationship he or she may become more stable in his or her views of organizations, following Hall’s (2004) contention that people incorporate non-work concerns into their professional aspirations. Education level was included because learning is tied more to professional development and educated professionals may have more learning skills than their less educated counterparts. The results from the Process Model One regression model with continuance commitment as the dependent variable are shown in Table 6-1.
As outlined in Table 6-1 there was a significant interaction between career variety and career satisfaction in a model with career change intentions as the dependent variable. A follow-up floodlight analysis (Johnson-Neyman technique) was run to determine at what levels the interaction became significant at the \( p = .05 \) level, as the data fulfilled the criteria established by Spiller et al. (2013) for floodlight analysis.

At career satisfaction level of 6.30 (represented as 39.71 in Table 7-1) or higher there was a positive association between career variety and continuance commitment. These relations were the opposite interaction than that was hypothesized and therefore Hypothesis 7 was rejected based on the data obtained. Table 7-1 outlines the results of the floodlight analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6-1.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process Model One Results for Continuance Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction X Career Variety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7-1.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conditional Effects of Career Variety on Continuance Commitment at Levels of Career Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.71*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*19.81% of the sample is above the Career Satisfaction Value of 39.71
Finally, to further probe the interaction effect, the interaction was plotted using the quantile function in PROCESS. The follow-up analysis was run for graphing purposes and is represented as Figure 3.

![Graph showing moderated relations between career variety and continuance commitment](image)

**Figure 3. Moderated Relations Between Career Variety and Continuance Commitment**

Hypothesis 8 claimed that the relation between career variety and normative commitment might be moderated by the effect of career satisfaction, in that the more satisfied a person is with his or her career, career variety would have a negative relation with normative commitment, and the less satisfied one is with a career the relation between career variety and normative commitment would be positive. A person’s relationship status and education level were used as control variables. They were selected as control variables because as someone is in a relationship he or she may become more stable in his or her views of organizations as Hall (2004) stated. Education level was included because, learning is tied more to professional development, and educated professionals may have more learning skills than their less-educated counterparts.
Following are the results from the Process Model One regression model with normative commitment as the dependent variable, and are shown in Table 8-1.

### Table 8-1. Process Model One Results for Normative Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>b</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>t-value</th>
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<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>7.31</td>
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<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.91</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>-2.37</td>
<td>-1.55</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction X</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship Status</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-1.97</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As outlined in Table 8-1 there was a significant interaction between career variety and career satisfaction in a model with normative commitment as the dependent variable. A follow-up floodlight analysis (Johnson-Neyman technique) was run to determine at what levels the interaction became significant at the $p = .05$ level, as the data fulfilled the criteria established by Spiller et al. (2013) for floodlight analysis.

At the career satisfaction level of 5.41 (represented as 29.33 in Table 9-1) or lower there was a negative association between career variety and normative commitment, and when career satisfaction levels were at higher levels there was no significant association between career variety and career change intentions. These relations were the opposite interaction than was hypothesized and therefore, Hypothesis 8 was rejected based on the data. Table 9-1 outlines the floodlight analysis.
Table 9-1. Conditional Effects of Career Variety on Normative Commitment at Levels of Career Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Satisfaction</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-1.45</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>-1.26</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.85</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-1.08</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.49</td>
<td>-0.50</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>-0.40</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.78</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.33*</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.75</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.39</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.03</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*33.02% of the sample is below the Career Satisfaction Value of 29.33

Finally, to further probe the interaction effect, the interaction was plotted using the quantile function in PROCESS. The follow-up analysis was run for graphing purposes and is represented as Figure 4.

Figure 4. Moderated Relations Between Career Variety and Normative Commitment
Hypothesis 9 claimed that the association between career variety and turnover intentions might be subjected to a moderated effect of gender, such that the association between career variety and turnover intentions would be stronger for women. Both age and affective commitment were included as control variables in the model. Affective commitment was included based on the reasons previously discussed. Age was included because it was hypothesized to be related to professional mobility outcomes (Zhang, 2010), and this might be especially so for women whose careers are interrupted by family concerns at times (Damaske, 2011), an issue that could become more salient as they grow older. Table 10-1 presents the results from the Process Model Two regression model with turnover intentions as the dependent variable.

**Table 10-1.**
Process Model Two Results for Turnover Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>b</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>9.01</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>12.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction 1</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction 2</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-1.08</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-3.34</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>-0.65</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-5.26</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interaction 1 = Career Variety X Career Satisfaction
Interaction 2 = Career Variety X Gender

Given that the observed interaction effects within the model were not significant, no significant conditional effects were observed, thus Hypothesis 9 was rejected.

Hypothesis 10 claimed that the association between career variety and career change intentions might be subjected to a moderated effect of gender, such that the association between career variety and career change intentions would be stronger for women. Both age and affective commitment were included as control variables in the model. Affective commitment was included, once again, based on the reasons discussed earlier, and age was excluded because it was hypothesized to be related to professional mobility outcomes (Zhang, 2010) and that this might especially hold true for women whose careers were interrupted by family concerns (Damaske,
which could become more salient as they grow older. The results from the Process Model Two regression model with career change intentions as the dependent variable are presented in Table 11-1.

**Table 11-1.**

Process Model Two Results for Career Change Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>b</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>8.84</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>13.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-3.59</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Variety</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>-0.40</td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction 1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>-3.54</td>
<td>2.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction 2</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>-1.72</td>
<td>-1.37</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>-2.72</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-1.18</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interaction 1 = Career Variety X Career Satisfaction  
Interaction 2 = Career Variety X Gender

A follow-up floodlight analysis could not be run because one of the moderating variables was categorical (Johnson & Fay, 1950; Spiller, et al., 2013). Given the nature of the variables, a spotlight analysis was run to further probe the hypothesized interaction effect. Table 12-1 outlines the conditional effects of career variety as moderated by career satisfaction on turnover intentions for both genders.

**Table 12-1.**

Conditional Effects of Career Variety on Career Change Intentions at Levels of Career Satisfaction by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Career Satisfaction</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>se</th>
<th>LLCI</th>
<th>ULCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23.58</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33.18</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42.77</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23.58</td>
<td>-0.65</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33.18</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-0.75</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42.77</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A separate plot (Figure 5) represents Interaction 2 in Table 11-1; the conditional effects of gender on career change intentions.
Figure 5. Gender as a Moderator between the Association between Career Variety and Career Change Intentions

Separate interaction plots are provided in Figures 6 and 7, which represent the effects of gender within a model containing career satisfaction.

Figure 6. Moderated Relations Between Career Variety and Career Change Intentions (WOMEN)
Figure 7. Moderated Relations Between Career Variety and Career Change Intentions (MEN)

As a result of the spotlight analysis, as represented in Figures 5 through 7, different effects for men and women were observed. Men who reported high levels of career satisfaction saw a positive correlation between career variety and career change intentions. Women who reported low levels of career satisfaction saw a negative correlation between career variety and career change intentions. The effect sizes were also stronger for men than for women. However, men who reported low levels of career satisfaction and women who reported high levels of career satisfaction did not report any significant correlations between career variety and the intent to change careers. Hypothesis 10 was therefore partially supported, in that the directions of the relations were as hypothesized for women and men, however they were only significant for women at low levels of career satisfaction and only significant for men at high levels of career satisfaction.
Professional Mobility

The results of this study indicate that there is a role that career variety plays in professional mobility outcomes. A main effect of career variety being positively related to turnover intentions was observed. This main effect echoes tournament theory’s assertion that managers are in competition with each other. As tournament theory suggests, as managers compete for promotions, those who lose out on the opportunity to advance will exit their organizations. Career variety, to a large extent, measures how mobile professionals have been, and therefore those who continuously lose the competition will make between-organizational moves. Alternatively, those who win the tournaments have lower career variety scores, as they are able to make more within-organization moves, and, in turn, harbor lower intentions to turnover.

The Effect of Career Satisfaction

The level of a person’s career satisfaction moderated the association between career variety and career change intentions. Past behavior, in the form of career variety, plays a role in how people plan to continue to progress their careers. When the hotel managers in this study were increasingly satisfied they were just as likely to change careers as their increasingly unsatisfied counterparts when they had a similarly high degree of variety. Hotel managers who were relatively unsatisfied and had increasingly low variety harbored higher career change intentions, possibly because of how they viewed rectifying their current state and what they perceived their future to be as a hotel manager. McGinley et al. (2014) found that hotel managers who changed careers did so due to unfavorable circumstances in their present jobs, and because of an unfavorable perception of their futures as hotel managers. Additionally, Campion et al. (1994) found that satisfaction increased with professional mobility. Therefore, hotel managers who have not been able to have a large degree of career variety and who are unsatisfied may not look to other organizations in the same industry, but rather to novel industries altogether as a way to improve their circumstances, now and in the future. Those who were relatively satisfied and who
also had lower levels of variety harbored lower intentions to change careers, indicating some level of favorability with their circumstances and a perception that staying the course in the hotel industry would be favorable in the future as well. Hotel managers with a high degree of variety will be discussed in greater detail next.

Hotel managers who had obtained a relatively high degree of career variety, regardless of how satisfied they were, harbored relatively moderate levels of career change intentions. Those who were increasingly satisfied and had a higher level of variety were more likely than their counterparts with lower variety to intend to change industries. As one becomes more professionally mobile, one may become more protean in how one’s career management strategy.

Hall (2004) suggests that people become self-directed and driven by the values of freedom and growth, and therefore satisfied people who have a great deal of mobility may see that part of their personal self-direction and freedom is what created the satisfaction in the first place. When mobility begets satisfaction, or is, at the very least, correlated to it, managers may see fewer barriers, and those barriers may be viewed as surmountable, to make moves in the future, such as changing industries.

Conversely, those who were increasingly unsatisfied and had lower level of variety were less likely than their unsatisfied counterparts with high variety scores to change industries. Those who were increasingly unsatisfied with the state of their careers and who had been mobile, might have linked mobility to a lack of satisfaction, and therefore, professional mobility outcomes like changing careers may have had less appeal. When career variety begets or becomes mentally associated with lower levels of satisfaction with a career, the desire to engage in major shifts in one’s professional life such as changing careers may seem less favorable, and therefore, highly mobile unsatisfied professionals may not intend to do so.
Organizational Commitment

The study did not find any main effects between the levels of career variety obtained and reported levels of commitment to an organization. Specifically, the correlations between career variety and both continuance and normative commitment were not found to be significant with hotel managers. However, some moderated relations were observed.

The Moderating Effect of Career Satisfaction

As hotel managers reported higher career satisfaction they also reported a positive association between career variety and continuance commitment and a flat, or insignificant, relation with normative commitment. Unexpectedly, as hotel managers reported higher levels of satisfaction and accumulated more career variety, they actually reported being more committed to their organizations. Highly satisfied people with increasingly lower career variety scores reported the lowest continuance commitment levels among all hotel managers. Interestingly, the same positive relation for highly satisfied hotel managers existed with career change intentions as well. What is notable is that no significant relations existed for highly satisfied managers who had low or high levels of career variety and turnover intentions. Taken together, these results suggest that managers who have experienced a great deal of professional variety and who are relatively satisfied become more committed to their organizations, but when they do decide to leave, they seek out opportunities in new industries altogether. These managers may become committed to their organizations due to a high level of satisfaction with their careers and because they enjoy the status quo to some extent. However, due to their past mobility and ability to acquire career variety they may be more prone to change careers and join new industries than their counterparts who managed less protean careers.

The high levels of continuance commitment may also be reported due to people with higher variety seeing the value of their current place of employment, when their career satisfaction levels are also increasingly high. As people accumulate more variety they may see the
benefits of their current employment circumstances, and understand what is lost when leaving an organization through their own personal experience, which ultimately leads to continuance commitment levels being reported as high. People with low career variety, on the other hand, reported less continuance commitment when they were satisfied with their careers, possibly due to the perceptions that in the dynamic nature of employment there are few costs associated with turnover in general, because they have gained relatively little career variety themselves and have little experience of the losses associated with leaving an organization. Hotel managers who reported increasingly less satisfaction with their careers will be discussed next and how that increasingly dissatisfied feeling influenced reported commitment levels.

Hotel managers who experienced lower levels of satisfaction with their careers became less committed to their organizations (reporting on both continuance and normative commitment levels) as they had higher career variety scores. Hotel managers who were unsatisfied with their careers and had relatively low career variety scores were the most committed of all hotel managers. Managers who had little career variety and were unsatisfied may be committed to their organizations due to a sense of obligation and fear of branching out on their own, acting and feeling the opposite of one who had managed a more protean career. Their more mobile and increasingly unsatisfied counterparts were less committed to their organizations, and these same managers also reported a lower level of career change intentions. It is possible that they are seeking opportunities within the hotel industry to find a more satisfactory career path, additionally considering the main effect of high career variety being positively linked to turnover intentions. Relatively unsatisfied managers who have a higher degree of career variety may be less committed to their organizations because not only have they been mobile in the past, but they might also be unsatisfied with where that mobility has gotten them. They may see committing themselves to an organization ambivalently when they have had opportunities to be mobile, but
are relatively unsatisfied with the results of that mobility. Therefore, the benefits and drawbacks of committing to an organization may be particularly salient for this group of managers.

One particularly unexpected finding was that both continuance commitment and career change intentions were positively related to career variety when conditions of satisfaction were increasingly high and negatively related when satisfaction with a career was increasingly low. These relations were hypothesized to be in the opposite direction, or that, the same conditions that increase commitment should decrease career change intentions and vice versa. However, that was not the case in this study.

The results indicate that career variety may be associated with both career change intentions and some aspects of organizational commitment, and the relations may be the same when moderated by the level of satisfaction a person has with his or her career. The ability of commitment to predict mobility outcomes is therefore questioned with the results of this study when the factor of career variety is considered. In fact, Table 2-1 highlighted that there were no significant correlations between continuance and normative commitment with either turnover or career change intentions.

In addition to the stated analyses, an ad hoc analysis was run with affective commitment as a dependent variable. The results showed that affective commitment was a significant covariate, however, in models with affective commitment as the dependent variable no significant results were observed. Though affective commitment was not hypothesized as a dependent variable (as to not hypothesize the null) it does not appear to be predicted by career variety, nor were moderated relations observed with career satisfaction or gender as moderating variables. Baruch (2014) stated that many studies regarding the protean career and organizational commitment have reported conflicting results, and that may be due to the measurement of organizational commitment, as an overall (global) measure or as broken down into facets as was done in this study.
Gender Outlooks

The observed relations between career variety and professional mobility outcomes were different for men and women. Men reported a positive association between career variety and career change intentions when they also reported increasingly high levels of career satisfaction. Conversely, women reported a flat association between career variety and career change intentions when they were increasingly satisfied with their careers. Inverse relations between men and women also occur between those who are relatively dissatisfied: when men reported lower levels of career satisfaction a positive association with career variety and career change intentions were observed, but the relations were flat for women. Additionally, women reported a negative correlation between career variety and career change intentions when they were relatively unsatisfied, yet for men the association was flat.

Men and women are making decisions to leave the hotel industry in different ways. Men focus more on the job content when making the decision to exit (Bloome et al., 2010), and focusing on the job content may explain the difference why men intend to engage in professional mobility or not. When men have a high degree of career variety they harbor higher career change intentions than men with lower career variety, and their exposure to different organizations, brands, and functional areas may provide them with more experiential stock in the industry (Crossland et al., 2014). When men have lower levels of career variety (lower experiential stock from which to recall information) and are highly satisfied they harbor lower career change intentions. The next paragraphs will discuss the study’s results for women.

Women focus more on the relational aspects of work and their careers such as managing work-life conflict (Damaske, 2011) and being taken seriously in the workplace (Chuang, 2010). Women who are increasingly unsatisfied and have not been as mobile in their careers, may intend to change careers, as they are more sensitive to a gender bias preventing their professional advancement (Chuang, 2010). In fact, as opposed to their male counterparts, the more career
variety women were able to accumulate, the less they wished to change careers, which could be explained in part by the fact that they had overcome the lingering bias that Chuang (2010) discussed regarding their sensitivity to hospitality having a lack of advancement opportunities for women. Men and women, therefore intend to leave the ranks of hotel management for different reasons and under different conditions.

Chapter 4 described the statistical tests that were employed to test the stated hypotheses for the study and discussed the results of those tests. It highlighted which of the hypotheses received empirical support and which hypotheses were not supported in the study. Finally, this dissertation will conclude with Chapter 5, which will include a discussion of its contributions to theory and its implications for hotel organizations, and organizations that support hotel companies. In addition, Chapter 5 will present the limitations of the study and describe future studies that can further the results of this dissertation based on the inferences made. The paper will conclude with a final summary of the results and implications.
Chapter 5

Conclusion

Theoretical Contributions

Baruch (2014) and Gubler et al. (2014) suggest that the results that provide direct evidence of a correlation between a protean career orientation and career outcomes have been mixed and muddled; whereas some studies provide support to the association, other studies fail to do so. Due to this lukewarm support of the direct relationships, Baruch (2014) suggests that the field may be hamstrung by a poor measurement scale (developed by Briscoe et al. 2006) or that the relations between a protean career orientation and outcome variables is moderated.

This study reported on hotel managers’ levels of career variety as an observation of past protean career management, which helps to research what Gubler et al. (2014) called a protean career path – an under researched area of contemporary careers. Career variety may measure, by proxy, the amount of self-direction a person has while managing his or her career, since movement between organizations would have occurred not through promotions and labor market issues, but through internal characteristics. Career variety also measures how mobile a professional has been, and it may even be a result of how much a working professional values freedom and growth, both of which Hall (2004) has attributed to having a protean career orientation.

Additionally, this study proposed moderators to the relations between career variety and outcomes like the future mobility of a hotel manager and the individual’s level of organizational commitment. While career variety seemed to be a particularly strong predictor of professional mobility intentions, the relations were rather weak regarding organizational commitment. Career variety may be a particularly salient factor determining behavioral intentions, but proved to be a poor way of predicting factors describing one’s thoughts, feelings, or even dispositions, such as
commitment. The study examined Hall’s (2004) suggestion that structural factors in the industrial context affect professional mobility, and it added to the academic conversation by conducting a study with a sample from one industrial context, across organizational boundaries, rather than with professionals from one specific organization, or from the general workforce.

Studying the relations as they occur for hotel managers provides evidence of how the theoretical mechanisms adapt to the structural concerns of the industry and provide a contextually rich picture of what is occurring with contemporary employment in this particular industry. Each industry has different norms for tenure in a position. For example, college faculty members typically work for long periods of time at universities in their bids for tenure and later as they strive for full professorships. The hospitality industry, however, is very different, and has been described as having a “turnover culture” (Deery & Shaw, 1997). Understanding how these relations play out in various industrial contexts should help develop theory regarding industries with specific macro-cultures that are similar in nature to the hotel industry, or that have similar structural concerns: as hotel managers, hospital staff for instance also work 365 days of the year, 24 hours a day.

McGinley et al. (2014) found that young entry-level hotel managers engaged in turnover an average of 2.4 times before ultimately changing careers. The current study advances the scholarly conversation regarding why managers leave the hotel industry through consideration of their previous professional mobility. This study did not focus exclusively on young-entry level managers, or only on their turnover behaviors and intentions, thereby expanding upon earlier findings by McGinley et al. (2014) of why hotel managers change industries. Understanding under what conditions hotel managers intend to change careers helps our theoretical understanding of professional mobility in the industrial context of hotel management.

Furthermore, the study distinguished the two related constructs of turnover and career change. One of the first studies to do so was by Rhodes and Doering (1983) yet many constructs
that are associated with career change are also linked to turnover. This study shows how the interaction effect of career variety and career satisfaction is not significantly related to turnover, but that it is significantly related to career change. Though there are bound to be common elements in the nomological networks of career change and turnover, understanding how the relations change directions and their strength is a key contribution of this study. In fact, the results of this study go further in suggesting a predictor set that may help predict career change and not turnover, helping future scholars distinguish the constructs to a greater extent.

Finally, the study noted different behavioral intention patterns between men and women. While there is a diminishing gender gap in pay in the United States, the experiences of men and women in the professional world continue to be different in several areas that were discussed in depth throughout this dissertation. The results of the study suggest that not only are the experiences different between men and women, but also they way in, which men and women intend to manage their careers is different as well. The study suggests that the conditions in which women and men remain in, or seek to change out of, the hotel industry are different. The gendered outlook that was supported by this study helps to further our understanding of the persistent differences between men and women in the American workplace, in particular as it pertains to hotel management.

**Practical Applications**

Organizations, meanwhile, could use the results of this study to improve their employment practices and thereby advance their strategic goals. Organizations may use the information gleaned from resumes and pre-screening test batteries to make better hiring decisions. Resumes will provide organizations with a picture of an individual’s career variety; many companies already ask a battery of personality questions prior to interviews; a person’s level of career satisfaction could be incorporated into those pre-screening tests. For example, Fairmont, a company that is known for the pace with which it develops new products, services,
and properties may wish to hire more adaptive, self-directed managers (or, in other words, managers with a high degree of career variety). A company like Rosewood, which is stable in its products, services, and properties, may wish to hire a more stable, organizationally committed management team (with members who exhibit a low degree of career variety). When combining information regarding a manager’s career variety with satisfaction levels with a prospective manager’s overall career, these two companies should be able to better estimate how likely the applicant will be searching for a new job shortly after hiring.

Second, organizations that are expanding rapidly and hire those with a high degree of career variety may benefit from being able to tap into their new hires’ professional networks. Those with a high degree of career variety have been hypothesized to have larger and more robust professional networks, which may prove to be fertile recruiting grounds for organizations that are seeking to expand and have an acute need for qualified managers.

Organizations may also be able to conduct annual audits of their brands and properties to understand where turnover occurrences are most likely to be concentrated (noting that career change is one instantiation of turnover). Firms typically conduct employee satisfaction surveys, which could be paired with the actual career variety that their management teams have accumulated over the years (resumes from the time of application combined with company work histories). These two pieces of information and the gender of the managers could help in better predicting who is more likely to leave the hotel industry.

Organizations may also be able to see where there are high concentrations of people who are most likely to leave so that they can take preventative steps in those brands, or properties, to aid in their retention efforts. Companies may be able to begin the recruitment process early in hotels that have been shown to be vulnerable to high turnover to ensure more seamless transitions between exiting and newly hired managers.
Finally, brands that have high concentrations of at risk managers could be targeted for succession planning efforts company wide, so that when turnover does occur, managers from sister-brands within the organizations are prepped to take over the newly vacated roles. Thoughtful and efficient succession planning should spread the cost of turnover throughout the organization rather than having it concentrated in a single business unit.

Moving beyond hotel companies, hospitality management programs at degree granting institutions may benefit from this research as well. Understanding how hotel managers have the most success in their careers should help hotel administration programs in better preparing and positioning their students for long and fruitful careers in the industry. By better understanding, which factors may lead to career change, hospitality programs might be able to help students avoid career pitfalls so that more of their alumni have full careers in the industry they were prepared for. Hospitality programs that are best able to prepare students for full-time work in the hotel industry so that their graduates can continue to progress their careers, and best understand the industry in order to be satisfied with their careers should benefit the most. Such programs should then also benefit by having a larger and more dedicated alumni network to draw upon for development purposes, networking, recruitment, and for various other supportive functions that alumni may engage in on behalf of their alma maters.

Finally, the entire hotel industry may benefit from the study’s results as well. Not only will individual organizations gain an understanding of how to hire and manage their human resources, the industry as a whole will benefit if all of its members can reduce career change—keeping talented managers in the industry. If one focal firm has a turnover rate of 40 percent among its management staff, it will neither suffer any ill consequences nor receive any benefits from exiting employees remaining in the industry. However, if all firms in the industry have a 40 percent turnover rate and half of those managers exit the industry altogether, replacing those lost managers becomes a challenge for all industry members, driving up collective recruitment efforts,
salaries, and management training costs. If all industry organizations, without changing their turnover rate, would be able to reduce the number of managers who exit the industry, recruitment and training costs should be lowered industry-wide.

This study teases apart the conditions under which managers exit not only hotel companies, but also the hotel industry altogether. If companies across the hotel industry were to take steps to reduce career change, even if their individual turnover rates remained unchanged, their costs for recruiting new managers should go down, as more qualified management candidates would be present in the market. In addition to lowered recruitment costs, training costs should decrease for all industry members as well, as job applicants would be coming in with knowledge, skills, and abilities that were gathered in the hotel industry and would be well-suited and applicable in their new positions.

**Limitations**

The study reported here was a field study. All field studies have evinced within them certain qualities that lead to strong inferences and some qualities that threaten the validity of those inferences (McGrath, 1982). Using McGrath’s (1982) three-horned dilemma as a framework, field studies such as this one suffer from the lack of an ability to make causal and generalizable inferences yet they can make contextually rich inferences regarding the population of interest. In order for generalizability to be established, a study would need to transcend context and randomly sample from a sampling frame (Singleton & Straits, 2010), which does not exist for hotel managers.

To establish a causal inference the following three conditions would need to be met (1) the observation of a correlation between variables, (2) the establishment of temporal distance between the independent and dependent variables, and (3) the ability to rule out all alternative explanations for the relations to exist (Singleton & Straits, 2010). Field studies collect data in a natural system, which McGrath (1982) suggests makes ruling out alternative explanations...
impossible, and therefore reverse causality cannot be ruled out in this study, even though a correlation can be observed and temporal distance can be established (career variety occurred in the history of one’s professional life and well before the measurements of the dependent variables took place). While reverse causality cannot be ruled out completely, it is doubtful that it would completely invalidate the study’s results because the aim of this study was to determine if career variety influences the future career intentions of workers. While iterative relations may exist between career variety and intentions of career mobility, iterative relations are beyond the scope of the study, but may be investigated further in future studies. Furthermore, the intent of field studies is, as McGrath (1982) suggests, to provide contextual realism and to explain the strength of relations as they are actually occurring in the field. The study was able to make the contextually rich inferences that are most commonly associated with both field studies (McGrath 1982) and survey research in general (Singleton & Straits, 2010).

This study measured the intentions for an individual to engage in turnover or career change, rather than observing one’s actual behavior. While making inferences based on behavioral intentions is a valid way to study relations in the field, studying intentions of behavior may result in more tenuous inferences than observing actual behavior. Future studies could use longitudinal designs so that the actual instantiation of turnover could be observed; they could even collect data as individuals leave organizations.

The study collected data regarding the work histories of managers yet these were self-reported. Information provided could have been incomplete or altered in some way to fulfill some self-serving bias. Care was taken to eliminate data that were inconsistent: for example, if a participant wrote that he or she had been a hotel manager for 15 years but only listed 10 years of work histories, the responses were not used in the study. Only data that did not appear to be flawed in any way was used for analysis. Yet again, the participants did have the ability to report what and how they wanted to report their own work histories.
Finally, this study’s scope may be limited in some ways: hotel managers can move horizontally, vertically, within organizations, and between organizations in their careers. The scope of this study was on between- and within-organizational mobility of professionals. Another relevant and salient topic of discussion could be the changes in hierarchical rank associated with vertical promotions and the associated increase in power, status, and income. While focusing on within and between organizational movements allowed the study to make strong inferences based on career variety, the study was unable to make inferences regarding outcomes associated with vertical and horizontal career progression events.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

Future studies could pursue many potential and interesting avenues of inquiry. This dissertation looked at career variety in the US hotel industry, in part, as a proxy for one’s protean career orientation. Longitudinal studies could be conducted that measure specifically for career orientation and then measure actual behavior as opposed to future intended behavior. Essentially, the study would be done in reverse: where this completed study looked at previous behavior and measured intentions, a future study could look at one’s orientation and then observe actual behavior. Baruch (2014) has also called for this and pleads for more research using the protean career orientation scales and linking their use to career outcomes such as turnover and commitment. Another potential inquiry would be to conduct studies using other personal traits and characteristics to determine if there are any potential personality factors that act as antecedents to career variety decisions. Potentially studying individual traits like personality or career orientation first and observing career decisions later, would investigate relations in the nomological network that were beyond the scope of this study, and would provide evidence for what type of people naturally acquire more career variety.

New studies could examine the effects of horizontal versus vertical moves through an organization on outcomes such as commitment and mobility. This study looked at between- and
within-organizational moves as a measure of career variety, yet Sullivan (1999) and Sullivan and Baruch (2009) have specifically noted paucity in research regarding horizontal career progression. Noting the specific patterns of career variety and progression and their unique outcomes on professional mobility and commitment should provide an even more nuanced examination of the phenomena that this study investigated. Future studies could code the patterns in career progression, noting a difference between horizontal and vertical progression, in order to understand how people become hotel general managers for example.

The study was conducted within the cultural context of the United States, where work is highly valued by individuals who tend to have a high work ethic (Weber, 1998). In other national contexts, work may not be as prominent in the collective psyche of society. It would be of value for both scholars and hotel organizations to understand how the relations studied in this dissertation would hold in other parts of the world where cultural values about work have been shown to be different. A potential way to measure the structural concerns of how work and family life is valued would be to create an international index of support for work-life balance issues across nations which determines in what societies or labor markets there is support for work-life balance, or if the predominant value is “work above all else.” In fact, it may be true that the importance of the value of work in a society may be more important than other elements of national culture such as uncertainty avoidance or individualism. Additionally, Hall (2004) suggested that a large component professional mobility might be tied to structural concerns about the labor market. It may therefore also be of interest to scholars and hotel organizations to study professional mobility in cultures that are similar to that of the United States but that have differently structured labor markets. A comparison of professional mobility in European nations that are culturally similar to the United States but that have different labor markets may be a particularly interesting and fruitful avenue of future research.
Future research could also involve organizations to conduct quasi-experiments that use different treatment conditions. Various realistic job previews could be given to new hires in organizations, where career variety is collected upon entering an organization, and the different realistic job previews could be given to newly hired managers as experimental conditions. The effects of career variety, the manager’s gender, and the different conditions of the realistic job previews could be used to determine one’s level of commitment to their new organization and managers’ behavior could be tracked for within-company job mobility and also for turnover rates. The results may suggest how organizations can tailor their realistic job previews to incoming managers to aid in retention efforts and to help induce a more highly committed management team.

Finally, more individual traits may need to be studied in the future. This study controlled for one’s affective commitment levels, but future studies could look at variables that were beyond the scope of this study. Specifically, future studies could use one’s need for status, need for control, locus of control, regulatory focus, and protean career orientation as specific independent variables or mediating effects on the outcomes that were reported in this paper. A person’s career variety could be used in a similar way to this study, and at the same time individual traits could be collected as mediating variables. At a second time interval, the dependent variables could be collected or, if access was granted to a large enough organization, a research team could track future career movements using actual behavior as the dependent variable.

**Closing Remarks**

Work, as evidenced by the Puritan work ethic, is a valued commodity in American culture (Weber, 1998) and the Italian philosopher Umberto Eco described the value of work in the United States as follows: “In the United States, there’s a Puritan ethic and a mythology of success. He who is successful is good. In Latin countries, in Catholic countries, a successful person is a sinner” (1988). The topic of this dissertation was work in the American hotel industry, and the
conversation surrounding work in the United States is culturally relevant, of academic interest to scholars, and important for firms who conduct business here. The study investigated career variety as a key independent variable in predicting mobility outcomes for hotel managers and even commitment levels to their organizations. The study gathered data from the field with current hotel managers who provided their work histories in an effort to understand how employment, in the unique labor market of the hotel industry, functions in the contemporary world.

The paper explains how employment has become more flexible since the late 1970s after the Arab oil embargo, and has continued that trend due to the digital, technological revolution. With the increasing flexible employment arrangements in the United States workers became more adaptable and versatile in how they managed their own careers, and the amount of career variety accumulated throughout a career is higher today than it was in past generations due to this rise of the protean career orientation (Hall, 2004). With the changes that have occurred in the labor market, this study of career variety is of particular importance to understand its meanings for employment in the United States.

The study reported here examined the effects of career variety on professional mobility and organizational commitment as moderated by career satisfaction in the US hotel industry and it considered the role that gender plays in the previously discussed associations. The study found evidence that men and women progress their careers in different ways given different conditions (their levels of satisfaction with their career and the amount of career variety accumulated): men were found more likely to leave the hotel industry when they had more accumulated career variety, and only when their satisfaction was relatively high did they harbor lower career change intentions. Alternatively, women were more likely to stay the hotel industry when they had more accumulated career variety, and only when they were relatively unsatisfied and had lower career variety scores did they harbor high career change intentions.
The study found that career variety as moderated by career satisfaction was a strong predictor of mobility but a poor predictor of organizational commitment. In fact, conditions that increased career change intentions paradoxically increased continuance commitment levels to organizations, suggesting that the well-established link between mobility and commitment (Jex & Britt, 2008) may not be present when previous behavior, like career variety, is considered.

The study observed relations that indicate hotel managers are mobile in how they plan to manage their careers, and that much of that intended mobility could be predicted by their accumulated career variety. The study observed correlations in the field, and measured intentions of future behavior rather than actual professional mobility instances and it provided contributions to our theoretical understanding of modern employment, and suggestions for hotel organizations to improve their human resources management practices. The study serves as a platform for future studies, which should provide for a richer understanding of the nature of work for managers in the American hotel industry, and possibly even beyond the borders of the United States.
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Appendix

Measurement Items

Protean Career Orientation Scale (Baruch, 2014)

1. For me, career success is how I am doing against my goals and values.
2. I navigate my own career, mostly according to my plans.
3. If I have to find a new job, it would be easy.
4. I am in charge of my own career.
5. I take responsibility for my own development.
6. Freedom and autonomy are driving forces in my career.
7. For me, career success means having flexibility in my job.

Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley 1990)

1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.

Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
5. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organization. (R)
6. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization. (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)
**Continuance Commitment**

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another job. (R)
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. It would be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (R)
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

**Normative Commitment**

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (R)
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (R)
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and I, therefore, feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.
8. I do not think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company woman” is sensible anymore. (R)

**Turnover Intentions (Mowday, Steers & Porter 1982)**

1. You think a lot about leaving the company.
2. You are actively searching for an alternative to this company.
3. As soon as it is possible, you will leave this company.

**Career Change Intentions (Mowday, Steers & Porter 1982)**

1. You think a lot about leaving the hotel industry.
2. You are actively searching for an alternative to the hotel industry.
3. As soon as it is possible, you will leave the hotel industry.
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