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**Gender and career: the nature of women's
career development
in tourism sector in Finland**

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Abstract

Tourism sector is widely female dominated and although, the number of women in middle management has grown, it is men that mainly occupy the top positions. The promotion of gender equality has become widely accepted in Finland, which in working life means that genders are treated equally, without discrimination. The main purpose for the study is to investigate how the career development is gendered in tourism sector in Finland and does women's career development differ from men's career development. The research combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. The data was collected from the middle and upper management in Scandic Hotels in Finland through questionnaires and an interview. The empirical results indicate that there are differences between genders in career development. Men had advanced in their career considerably faster than women. However, most of the respondents were willing to advance, although men estimated their prospects to be better. According to the findings, the reasons for differences in career development are several, the most common barriers being: location, age, family and lack of possibilities, two latter being greater among women. Several women named also gender to be one of the obstacles for advancement.

1 Introduction

1.1 Research problem

When women first started to enter the business world as managers in the late 1960s and early 1970s, very few expected to follow a career path leading to a senior management position. Since, the 1980s women's role has changed and the feminisation of the paid labour force has been one of the most important social changes in the twentieth century. The consciousness and widespread public discourse about gender equity has increased to a large extent but despite the rapid growth of women in managerial jobs, and the significant changes that have occurred remains noticeably gendered. Men still continue to monopolise the top levels of corporate power in almost all regions of the world (Wajcman, 1998; Oakley, 2000; Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2006).

Debate on equality between genders in Finland began in the 1960's and the traditional gender roles were questioned, since they were seen to be based on the division of labour in an agricultural society. It was emphasised that in an urban society both women and men work outside home and they should have equal roles in looking after family, have a right to paid work as well as have an influence in society on an equal basis. It was seen to be Government's responsibility to provide social protection and services. This can be seen as a basis for the gender equality policies and equity has become one of the top issues in organisations sharing the public awareness (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005^a).

In Finland, the law of equality was implemented 20 years ago and when comparing worldwide, Finland is considered to be one of the most equal countries in the world (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005^a). However, it has been said that the glass ceiling exists and women are said to encounter "glass ceiling" over their aspirations which allows them to see where they might go but stops them from getting there (White, 1995; O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005). In fact, in the private sector in Finland only a little over a quarter of all managers are women (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2006).

In 2005 from the Finnish workforce between the aged of 18-60 approximately 49 per cent were female (Statistics Finland, 2007). The large numbers of women entering the labour force and the potential opportunity for women to reach top occupational positions (White, 1995), has boosted an abundance of research into the similarities and differences between female and male managers. These are all important and much researched feature of today's working life but although, the discussion has been relatively intense the change in itself has been slow.

Despite the fact that tourist and travel services employ directly more than seven million jobs (European Parliament, 2005) and more women than men studies tourism in universities in Finland as well as in most European Union member states and have a higher education (Virtala, 2006), none of these gender studies have been carried out within the tourism sector. However, there are more men in top management positions in tourism sector in Finland than women (Statistics Finland, 2004). One major reason for the lack of studies is that there is no universal agreement on how to approach tourism (Page *et al.* 2001). It is argued that tourism cannot be separated from the cultural, political and economic conditions since, the everyday world is increasingly indistinguishable from the touristic world (Franklin, 2003). In other words, it is not always clear which, industries are or should be considered as a part of tourism sector and that is why it is difficult to find comprehensive studies of how many people and especially studies of how many men and women are working within tourism. However, even no official data that covers the whole tourism sector in Finland is available it is widely known that the tourism sector is female-dominated (European parliament, 2005; Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2004) making it rather fascinating sector to research.

The purpose of the study is to explore how the career development in tourism sector in Finland is gendered. The study examines the evolving links between gender and career development focusing on middle and upper management in tourism sector. By middle management the researchers of the thesis refer to the layer of management in an organisation whose main job responsibility is to monitor activities of subordinates and to generate reports for upper management while the upper management (also referred as senior management) refers to the layer at the highest level of organisational management who have daily responsibilities of managing a corporation. Often there are also even higher levels of responsibility, such as board

of directors and shareholders, but since, they focus on managing the upper management instead of the daily activities of the business they are excluded from the definition of upper management used in the study.

Among the already mentioned factors, the relevancy for this study is to increase more awareness, knowledge and discussion since, it is required that in the future the gender distribution in tourism sector should be more equal. It is difficult to change things if people are not aware of the facts behind the problems.

The study will try to answer the following research questions;

1. How does the link between career development and gender emerge in tourism sector?
2. Are there any differences in career development between women in top positions and women in middle positions? If so, which?
3. Does women's career development differ from men's career development?

In the second chapter the theoretical framework of the study is discussed. It investigates the gendered aspects of the career. It discusses about the equity policy and about the many forms of gender biases that are called as a glass ceiling. The literature review examines in a wider analysis of why there are only few women in top management and what kind of differences there are between men and women. The third chapter deals with the methodology and explains how the study has been done. The chapter four explains the study results following by the chapter five that analyses the results. Finally, the chapter six gives the conclusion and limitations of the study.

2 Literature review

2.1 Gender in Finnish labour market

2.1.1 Introduction

Several years after women's employment were firmly stable; the idea of equality between genders at work took root as a value (Kanter, 1977). It was not until 1960s when Finland started to discuss about gender issues in a larger extent (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2006). Already then, poorer salary for women; top management positions for men and career development opportunities for women not as good as for men were one of the main issues that started the discussion. The law of equity became into force 20 years ago in 1 of January 1987 with the purpose to make both women and men equal in labour market and to improve women's position. However, differences between men and women still exist although, women make up almost half of the labour force (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005^a; Haataja, 2006). As the table 1 illustrates in 2005 the genders gap between 15-64 years olds were only 3, 8 per cent comparing in 2000 when the difference was 5, 9 per cent. For the employees aged 55-64 the gender gap in 2005 was only 0, 1 per cent comparing 2, 5 per cent in 2000.

There have nearly always been gender disparities in the labour markets (Sarasúa, 1997) since, men and women dominate the labour market in different sectors of the economy and are unequally represented in different professions. In Sweden for example 51 per cent of the female workforce is employed in the public sector compared with 19 per cent of the male workforce. 14 per cent of all employed women and 13 per cent of all employed men work in occupations with an equal sex distribution (Fransson and Thörnqvist, 2006). In Finland the labour market is divided quite heavily between men and women's sectors and according to Ministry of Social Affairs and Health (2005^a) only 15 per cent of the Finnish people have jobs in sectors with an equal amount of men and women employees. Jobs, professions, sectors and positions are defined in gender terms through historical processes (Kugelberg, 2006).

Employment rates
(aged 15-64)

	2000	2005
<i>Men</i>	70,1	70,3
<i>Women</i>	64,2	66,5
<i>Gender gap</i>	5,9	3,8

Employment rate of older
workers (aged 55-64)

<i>Men</i>	42,9	52,8
<i>Women</i>	40,4	52,7
<i>Gender gap</i>	2,5	0,1

Table 1 Employment rates between men and women in Finland in 2000 and 2005

(Source: Euroopan Yhteisöjen Komissio, 2007)

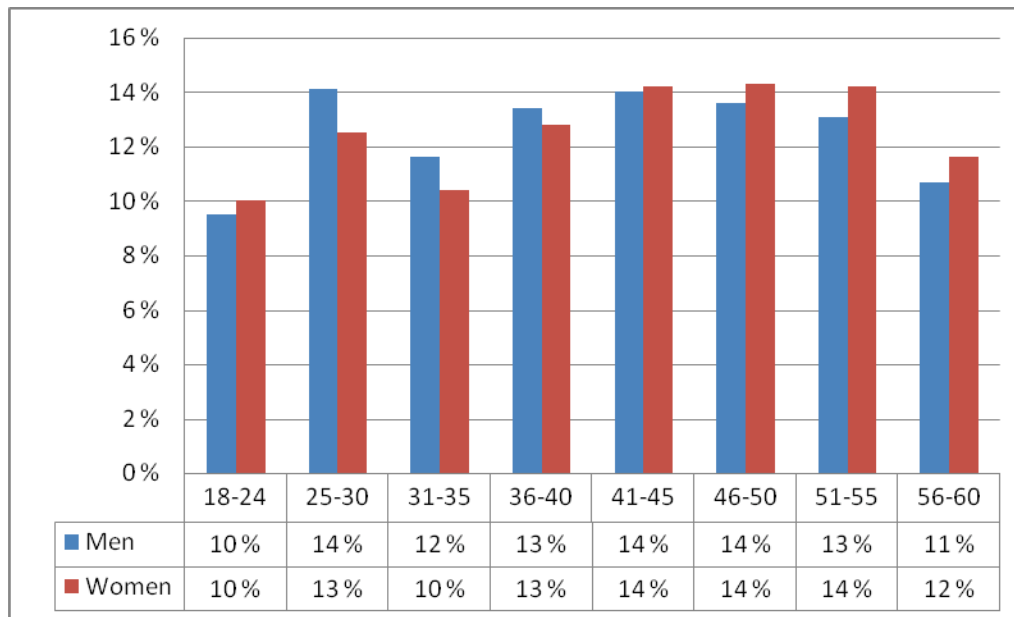


Figure 1 Labour force in Finland based on gender and age in 2005

(Source: Statistics Finland, 2007)

In Finland like in most European Union Member States, more women than men reach a high level of education. In 2003 53, 5 per cent of the Finnish university students were female. In 2006 52, 6 per cent of the females had a higher education comparing with 47, 4 per cent of males (Statistics Finland, 2007). Moreover, study fields continue to be greatly segmented with a low presence of women in engineering or science and technology and a high one in health, education or the humanities. In 2005 there were total of 8627 tourism students in Finland from which 80, 9 per cent were females (Ministry of Education, 2007). Tourism sector employs a large proportion of young people, with a high ratio of women, for many of whom it provides an entry point into the working world. The latest statistics from the tourism sector are from 2004 when Statistics Finland conducted a small-scale tourism statistics showing the distribution by gender (see table 2). There is a lack of statistics within tourism sector and notable is that the table 2 does not cover all the tourism sectors but gives a rather good basis and evidence of how female dominated the sector actually is.

The choice of study fields certainly impacts on the gender segregation of the labour markets evidenced both for occupations and economic sectors. Finland among a few other EU countries faces high segregation in occupations whilst sectoral segregation is the highest in Estonia, Slovakia, Lithuania, Ireland, Finland and Sweden. In consequence of segregated labour markets there is an under-representation of women in sectors crucial for economic development and usually well rewarded (Sterner and Biller, no date).

<u>Hotel - and Restaurant Managers</u>		
<i>Both Genders</i>	3029	
<i>Men</i>	875	29 %
<i>Women</i>	2154	71 %
<u>Travel Agency clerks / employees</u>		
<i>Both genders</i>	3506	
<i>Men</i>	483	14 %
<i>Women</i>	3023	86 %
<u>Air Hostess / Pursers, etc.</u>		
<i>Both genders</i>	1458	
<i>Men</i>	228	16 %
<i>Women</i>	1230	84%
<u>Guides / Tour Conductors /Guides</u>		
<i>Both genders</i>	529	
<i>Men</i>	224	42 %
<i>Women</i>	305	58 %
<u>Regional Tourist Officers / Tour Operators</u>		
<i>Both genders</i>	625	
<i>Men</i>	106	17 %
<i>Women</i>	519	83 %
<u>Managers of Small Hotel - and Restaurant Businesses</u>		
<i>Both genders</i>	232	
<i>Men</i>	123	53 %
<i>Women</i>	109	47 %

Table 2 Amount of men and women employees in diverse tourism sectors in Finland, 2004

(Source: Statistics Finland, 2004)

Currently, the ideology of gender equality is accepted as the norm (Perälä-Littunen, 2007), which, has been noticed already in European Union level (Euroopan Yhteisöjen Komissio, 2007). Finland can be identified one of the world's most advanced countries in terms of equality between genders. However, according to Kotiranta, Kovalainen and Rouvinen (2007) Finland is equal country, except at the top of the business world. Women populate organisations but they do not usually run those (table 1 and figure 1). Table 3 illustrates how the management positions in Finland (2004) are divided between men and women generally in business sector. The figures

show clearly how men hold majority of the top positions. Table 4 indicates that in 2005 in Finland there were 3, 8 per cent more women top managers than in 2000. Despite the attention to the issue the change has still been rather slow.

In Finland only few women progress to the top management. In 2006 only 17 per cent of the board members among the hundred biggest organisations in Finland were female (Salo and Blåfield 2007). In spite of the new technology and inventions, the time seems to have become scarce, jobs more demanding, intense and less secure than before. Many women struggle with the demands of work at home and for pay (Thistle, 2006).

Director Generals and Managing Directors

<i>Both genders</i>	4737	
<i>Men</i>	4200	89 %
<i>Women</i>	537	11 %

Directors and Senior Officials

<i>Both genders</i>	77 693	
<i>Men</i>	52 760	68 %
<i>Women</i>	24 933	32 %

Directors of organisations and other functional units

<i>Both genders</i>	77 693	
<i>Men</i>	52 760	68 %
<i>Women</i>	24 933	32 %

Table 3 Management positions in Finland

(Source: Statistics Finland, 2004)

Distribution of managers by gender

	2000	2005
<i>Men</i>	74, 1%	70, 3%
<i>Women</i>	25, 9%	29, 7%

Table 4 Distribution of managers by gender, 2000 and 2005

(Source: Euroopan Yhteisöjen Komissio, 2007)

2.1.2 The Equality Policy

Gender equality means that everyone is free to develop his/her personal abilities and to make decisions without being restricted by gender roles. It means also that the different needs of women and men should be taken into consideration, valued and promoted in the same extension (Sterner, Biller, no date). The promotion of equality in working life means that both genders are treated equally and without discrimination in all situations. One of the goals is to attain a situation in which women and men are divided more evenly at different levels of jobs and in different professions according to their abilities and inclinations. The realisation of gender equality increases employees' wellbeing, feeling of justice as well as their work motivation and can this way influence the productivity of the personnel and the competitiveness of the company (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005).

Gender equality has long been a highly valued principle of the EU and it is important topic on the European political agenda. EU has a long tradition of developing strong legal frameworks to support gender equality. In 1997 the Treaty of Amsterdam required all EU Member States to promote equality between women and men in all EU activities. Most of the member states have their own national gender equality policy, with objectives and actions and criteria for monitoring progress (Sterner and Biller, no date; ETC, no date). In Sweden the implementation of equality between men and women concentrates on wages, working conditions, discrimination, sexual harassment, parenthood, etc. In 2001, Swedish authorities imposed a new obligation upon all firms with ten or more employees to undertake annual wage surveys, in which it is possible to prevent wage differentials and other unfair employment terms between men and women. Also, according to a government decision in 2004, all ministries are asked to carry out gender equality analyses in their political areas (Fransson and Thörnqvist, 2006; Sterner and Biller, no date).

In Finland the Government Action Plan for gender equality states that the promotion of gender equality is the task of all ministries and it is widely accepted as a social goal in Finland. Methods of gender impact assessment will be developed and the assessment will be integrated into legislation and preparation of the state budget. Knowledge of gender equality issues will also be increased in the state administration (Sterner and Biller, no date).

Employer's duty is to promote gender equality within working life. Due to the resources available and any other relevant factors the employer has to:

- 1) act in such way that job vacancies attract applications from both genders;
- 2) promote the equitable recruitment of both genders in the different jobs as well as create for them equal opportunities for career advancement;
- 3) promote equality between both genders in the terms of employment – especially in pay;
- 4) develop working conditions to guarantee they are suitable for both genders;
- 5) facilitate the reconciliation of working and family life for both genders by paying attention particularly to working arrangements; and
- 6) act to prevent the discrimination based on gender (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005).

In Finland the Equality Act obligates all employers with a regular workforce of 30 or more to draw up a gender equality plan. The equality plans differ depending on the workplace and the issues needed to be emphasised in particular workplace community. For example Scandic Hotels in Finland emphasise especially the equal pay issues. The plan may also be included into personnel and training plan or an occupational safety and health action plan. The gender equality plan should be prepared with personnel representatives and updated annually but it might also include both short- and long-term objectives. It is advisable to specify the objectives as well as how to achieve them, and ways in which the impact of the measures will be monitored. The plan has to include:

- 1) An assessment of the gender equality situation at the workplace, including details of the employment of women and men in different jobs and a survey of the grade of jobs performed by women and men as well as the pay for those jobs and the possible

differences in pay. Since the demands of workplaces alter, each workplace should consider individually what it finds important to examine in addition to the specification of jobs and pay survey. The purpose of the assessment is to provide background information on how the gender equality situation should be improved.

- 2) The assessment has to include a specific pay survey on the pay of women and men in all grades and groups of jobs. It is important to compare women's and men's salaries and wages and to seek reasons for possible differences in them. Different wages and salaries within a same group do not automatically mean pay discrimination, but may be due to such things as personal job performance, hours of work, factors associated with working conditions, other factors on which pay increases are based or be caused by differences in the demands of the jobs.
- 3) A review of how the measures included in the previous equality plan have been implemented and of the results achieved, since the assessments and surveys that have been made must always be analysed and in case of the drawbacks, a plan to correct them have to be put forward (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005).

2.3 Under-representation of women in top management positions

2.3.1 Gender-neutral or "technical" equality

The number of women in middle management has grown in western countries over the last two decades but men have continued to dominate top management positions and the number of top female leaders remains extremely low (Dawley, Hoffman, and Smith, 2004; Oakley, 2000; Lämsä and Sintonen, 2001; Rutherford, 2001; Rubin, 1997; Goodman, Fields and Blum, 2003). In Finland the equality policy aims that different levels and types of jobs need to be divided more evenly between genders avoiding the idea of female or male dominated jobs (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2005). Although, the amount of female managers in Finland have increased (see table 2.5) from 25, 9 per cent (2000) to 29, 7 per cent (2005), majority of the managers are still male despite the policy targets. It is argued that in the future it shall be seeing increases in

the number of women leaders although, women's access to senior managerial positions seems to be limited in many countries (Lämsä and Sintonen, 2001).

Since the 1970s when gender started to influence organisational and management research there has been a constant discussion whether women manage differently from men and more simply whether women and men are different and suited to different types of work and whether this may actually be a reason for women's lack of progress to the top level of organisations (Rutherford, 2001; Wajcman 1998; Rubin, 1997; O'Neil, 2004). Even if men and women have been found to be equally effective as leaders (Anderson, Lievens, van Dam and Born, 2006), despite the fact that cultural stereotype of leaders is male and even the earliest definitions of management emphasised exactness, objectivity, rationality and control; qualities that have long associated with masculinity (Rutherford, 2001). There are still a variety of perspectives discussing why so few women make career which will be introduced in this section.

Organisational culture appears to be major barrier to women's progress into senior management (Still, 1994). According to the research done by Ely (1995) gender roles are more stereotypical and more problematic in firms with relatively low proportions of senior women (Ely, 1995). It has been assumed that the difference between men and women as individuals has been holding women back. This is a typical explanation for the individual model of work behaviour with the argument that the factors producing inequities at work are somehow carried inside the individual person. Individual model thinking leads women to believe that the problem lies in their own psychology and it gives organisations a set of excuses for the slow pace of change. However, the large number of educated women entering the labour force has produced pressures for change in organisations and the equal employment opportunity was established to guarantee women more places in the organisations (Kanter, 1977).

Policies and guidelines to ensure equal treatment of women and men were expected to challenge effectively restrictive gender stereotypes and help to alleviate gender divisions in organisations. As inequalities in access to the senior positions persist, research has begun to re-examine the problems of and possibilities for equal opportunities theory and practice. The research has shown that women's disadvantage becomes a problem when individual selectors ask women sex-

specific questions or base their assessments of female candidates on their own gender-stereotyped assumptions. The equality legislation of the seventies was developed on the basis that, in reality, women were no different from men and had to be treated the same. There was a certain amount of pressure to prove women were similar to men to earn them credibility as managers (Rutherford, 2001; Rubin, 1997).

According to Oakley (2000), stereotypes about leadership need to be challenged before corporate training programs designed to promote more women to the top management can be successful. Women's absence in the senior management positions is a sign that the whole process of selection, recruitment, and promotion is in a need of a major renovation. However, even if these policies and practices are reformed, the processes of leadership and acceptance of diversity in organisation cultures needs to be confronted and changed to destroy the roots of gender bias. The avoidance from the corporate world exhibited by many female high achievers can only speak to their feelings of negativity toward male-dominated corporate cultures that are not open to incorporating more female-oriented norms (Oakley, 2000). Of all the explanations available to explain the lack of women in top management positions, gender based analyses of organisational power arrangements best explain the huge percentage gap between women in middle and top management and between women and men in top management because gender continues to be one of the central organising principles of economic life (Larson and Freeman, 1997 in Oakley, 2000).

Oakley suggests (2000) that gender-based explanations of power distributions in organisations generally fall into two categories; the liberal feminist approach and the radical feminist critique. The two approaches have marked different implications for how women concerned with increasing their power and influences in corporations should proceed (Oakley, 2000). The liberal feminist critique of organisational power has focused on how to increase women's power and influence by working within the current policies and structures, and hoping to promote change from within. Corporate practices as a barrier from preventing women to the top positions has an underlying assumption that reforming and changing the practices within the existing structures and policies of the corporation will eventually result in a greater equity in gender representation at the top. The liberal feminist approach focuses on issues such as sexsegregation

in the workforce, percentages of women found at different levels of the corporation, tokenism, barriers to job entry, and other issues of equal opportunity. Power relationships between the genders within the corporation can be made more equitable through processes of reform (Oakley, 2000).

2.3.2 The glass ceiling

The barriers that prevent women from climbing to senior management positions have often been described by the metaphor “the glass ceiling”, a transparent barrier, which prevents women from moving up the corporate ladder past a certain point (Morrison et al., 1987 in Oakley, 2000; Wajcman, 2001). Auster (1993) points out in article by Oakley, 2000, that the glass ceiling is not one ceiling or wall in one spot, but rather many varied forms of gender bias that occur frequently in both obvious and hidden ways. The glass ceiling is also visible to those whose careers have been affected by it. The glass ceiling is seen most dramatically in the statistics on the percentage of women in senior management positions in large corporations (Oakley, 2000).

As it was already mentioned, corporate policies and practices in career development, promotion, and compensation are often identified as major components of the glass ceiling that prevent women from making it to the top. The experience that women need in areas such as operations, manufacturing, or marketing is often not offered to young women managers and in fact this kind of experience is often believed to be an essential requirement for the senior management positions. Often these policy difficulties are not addressed in the lower ranks of management, and afterwards, when women rise to positions closer to the top later in their career, they often find themselves excluded from the upper ranks of management due to improper tracking earlier in their career (Oakley, 2000).

According to human capital theory, investments in education, training and other forms of qualifying experiences are seen as the key factor behind careers. Women’s disadvantage position is attributed to a lower or less relevant kind of education, and the lack of qualified work experiences associated with working in different places, including working abroad. It is generally evaluated that women have invested less managerially relevant qualifications (Alvesson and

Billing, 1997; Wajcman, 2001). Wage differences between men and women, on this view, are due to deficiencies in their stock of human capital, and, in the end, their lower productivity (Wajcman, 2001). However, several studies have shown that human capital cannot sufficiently explain differences in pay and authority between men and women. Although women's and men's tertiary education, occupational aspirations and attachment to the labour force have become much more similar, the gender gap persists (Wajcman, 2001).

Probert (2005) has carried out two large-scale surveys to capture information about levels of human capital, family responsibilities, career preferences, workloads and objective experiences of appointment and promotion. The research showed that discrimination or bias in appointments; promotions and workloads were not significant in explaining men's domination of the senior levels. The groups were constituted of women located just under the glass ceiling. The study points out an explanation for the failure of women to progress to higher positions, which involved other more general demographic changes such as high rates of separation or divorce, etc. (Probert, 2005). Moreover, there is some evidence that women need to have higher levels of human capital than men in order to be promoted (Wajcman, 2001).

Women have few problems in being accepted in middle management levels because they have functional technical skills. In fact, many younger managerial women doubt the existence of a "glass ceiling" because they have not yet faced any discrimination or barriers to their career progress. However, it has also been established that women do face considerable odds in attempting to enter senior management because of the preferred management "style" and "ways of doing things" (Still, 1994). Removing the glass ceiling may make good business sense. First, the glass ceiling may lead to higher turnover among talented women, who may have acquired valuable firm-specific knowledge and whose abilities could be leveraged by the organisation. Second, perpetuating the glass ceiling may influence the views of both men and women about how an organisation treats its employees overall, leading talented people to question their future opportunities (Goodman, Fields and Blum, 2003).

2.4 Gender and career development

2.4.1 Individual vs. organisational characteristics in career development

A career is traditionally defined as a lifelong process of work-related activities and a work experiences over time that includes both objective and subjective aspects. Career development is defined as an on-going series of stages characterised by unique concerns, themes and tasks (Hall, 2002 in O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2000 in O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005; Arthur, Hall and Lawrence, 1989; White, 1995).

During the 1980s the underrepresentation and rather marginal status of women in senior management became a subject of debate (Alvesson and Billing, 1997; Wajcman, 2001) and the perception that women's careers differ from men's careers has received varying levels of support in the literature (e.g. Gallos, 1989; Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996 in O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005). It is generally agreed that the concept of a managerial career is gendered (Wajcman, 2001) and according to White (1995) in the article by O'Neil and Bilimoria (2006), women have not had career paths in a same sense as men because firstly, they have followed their husbands' career paths, family and domestic responsibilities have impacted careers in different way and finally, they have been subjected to male managers' discrimination. White (1995) argues that women have forced to adapt to limited opportunities by becoming job, rather than career-oriented, focusing on the intrinsic rewards of the task rather than the long-term benefit (White, 1995; O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005; Kanter, 1977).

2.4.2 Balancing work and family

Reconciliation of work and family is one of the core issues of gender equality. In Finland, the Government aims to improve the reconciliation of this combination among women and men and to strengthen women's status in the labour market. The Government guarantees family leaves for both parents while the parent's allowance compensates for the loss of income during this period of time. The legislation also grants a person in permanent employment the right to return to the same job after the leave while the municipalities have responsibility to provide reasonably priced and publicly funded daycare (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2006).

Probert, (2005) and Morehead, (2003) indicates that when there is a need to understand more about the difference between men and women's experience of paid work, it is important to recognise how much it is depending on what happens in the households. Questions of the impact of work and family life cannot be avoided (Kanter, 1977) and there has been an increasing recognition by researchers to point out how the work-family connection is disadvantaging women (White, 1995; Schwartz, 1996; Still and Timms, 1998; Evetts, 1998; O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005; Kanter, 1977; Smith, 2000).

Women are often less mobile, as family priorities make them unwilling to take a position meaning longer work days, more travel or moving to a new site of employment. Sometimes the conflict between home and family obligations and managerial jobs where the job holders are expected to be able to spend most of their time and energy on the job is seen as the major problem preventing women from advancing. In this regard, recent studies have investigated work-life balance and women's ability to succeed in organisations while continuing to maintain their family responsibilities, and the influence of women's family structure on their career advancement and success (O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005).

To be able to attract the best employees and guarantee that the best available talent may be recruited, it would be important to companies to set a goal that having a family is no disadvantage (Bailyn, 2003). In Finland, most women and men work full time and only few mothers and fathers choose to work part-time in order to reconcile work and family (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2006).

To a great extent, there has not been theory development regarding women's career paths as much as of men. However, according to the theory proposed by Larwood and Gutek (1987) which, is cited in literature more than others, women's careers are always unique and cannot be mirrored the career paths of men firstly, because of the career preparation. Men and women receive different kinds of information on which jobs are appropriate for them which again influences the jobs they will prepare themselves as well as they end up choosing. Secondly, because of marriage since, many times women are more willing to adapt or move after husband's

careers then vice versa. This may also be the most economical decision for the family considering that men are paid more, given more opportunity and more promotions than women. Thirdly, because of parental responsibilities since, the role of mother requires more involvement, time and effort than the role of a father. Finally, becomes the societal opportunities. Women face more discrimination and detrimental stereotypes than men in workplace, which holds back and slows down their career advancement (Smith, 2000).

Several women have adopted an alternative strategy for their careers; linear organisational or practitioner/occupational career. The linear organisational career involves promotion to positions of managerial responsibility. Practitioner/occupational careers involve doing the job but might include taking breaks and part-time employment. It has offered a way of combining family and career however, activities other than paid work do not contribute positively to their promotion prospects. Indeed, they damage them (Wajcman, 2001).

Personal and family responsibilities enter linear career structures only as a way of explaining the lack of promotion achievement of some career builders. As a result equal opportunity policies have been largely preoccupied with enabling women to combine family responsibilities with a career because this dual responsibility is seen as the main block to their career advancement. A study by Wajcman (2001) asked from the case study company how many senior people take advantage of their excellent equality policies, answer was that actually no one did. After further questioning, it was admitted that to do so would adversely affect how the company viewed them. They would be seen as less committed to their jobs and therefore less suitable management material. Equality policies have by no means displaced the male model of management (Wajcman, 2001).

All the explanations need to be understood in relation to other issues since, they never stand on their own. For example, family matters are not to be taken for granted. According to Alvesson and Billing (1997) the explanation for the low number of women in managerial jobs lies in the interplay between cultural traditions, relations of power and the work orientations and values of men and women. Studies of women's development suggest that "for women, the primary experience of self is relational, that is, the self is organised and developed in the context of

important relationships” (Surrey, 1991, in O’Neil and Bilimoria, 2005). Recent studies on a relational approach to career development have also suggested that instead of separation and individuation, self-development is “understanding oneself as increasingly connected to others in more complex and sophisticated ways”. This approach requires an examination of the contexts and relationships that distinctively impact women’s career choices and career patterns, and a recognition that the boundary between women’s personal and professional lives is highly permeable (Fletcher, 1996; Kram, 1996; Fletcher and Bailyn, 1996; Powell and Maniero, 1992 in article by O’Neil and Bilimoria, 2005).

In addition, several studies on childlessness women managers have been carried out around the world (Brett and Stroh, 1999, Still, 1993; Wajcman, 1999 in Wood and Newton, 2006) and large surveys of women and men in management have proofed gendered patterns of marital status and childlessness. It is rather common that female managers are single and childless (Virtala, 2006). Several studies have reported that childlessness among women in management is double compared to their male counterparts. In Finland 22, 5 per cent of the female managers working in private sector do not have children comparing with five to nine per cent of male managers (Virtala, 2006).

The study by Brett and Stroh (1999) in the article by Wood and Newton (2006) showed that 45 per cent of female managers were married, compared with 86 per cent of males, with 62 per cent of men having children at home, while only 20 per cent of the women did so. In addition, the studies carried out in Britain have observed similar trends. A study by Wajcman (1999) illustrated that 27 per cent of the women, compared with seven per cent of the men were single, divorced or separated and two third of the women managers did not have children. Still (1993) in the article by Wood and Newton (2006) found out that 55 per cent were either single or divorced.

	Without children	With children	Difference
<i>Men</i>	78,8	91,8	13
<i>Women</i>	79,4	70	-9,4

Table 5 Employment rates (aged 25-49) of women and men in Finland, depending on whether they have children (under 12), 2005

(Source: Euroopan Yhteisöjen Komissio, 2007)

The career stage when the workload and commitment necessary to succeed are most intensive coincides with peak childbearing years. Career development that fits the life course of men is directly at odds with the family life-cycle. Marriage and fatherhood have not presented serious career dilemmas for men seeking promotion in professional and managerial occupations. Women's careers, which are generally broken or interrupted in order to have or to care for children, are thereby rendered not just different but deficient (Wajcman, 2001).

According to a article by Wood and Newton (2006) there is a need of more critical and nuanced understanding of the context and subjective experiences of women managers who choose to be childless. It states that "choice" to be childless often generates in a social field in which discourses are refracted through material dimensions relating the corporate world of often failed family-friendly work practices and policies (Wood and Newton, 2006).

The increase of childlessness may also be a result of the acceptance of diversity and diminishing of normative ideals for marriage and motherhood for women generally. Many times there is recognition that the culture of long working hours does not support proper parenting. Furthermore, in spite of the discussion of equality and equal marriage ideals, notions of women's primary duties on the domestic and childrearing fronts, as a part of the materialist discourse persist (Wood and Newton, 2006).

The main focus on a research study by Huang, Qinghai (2006) is on two different aspects: life career and occupational career. Results show that career patterns of the examined were highly diverse. Occupational and life careers were significantly related to each other (occupational career being embedded in the overall life structure) and individual agency factors predicted life career. Paid work career was related to life career more than family context. Occupational career also did matter in work wellbeing. In terms of stress, health, and wellbeing at midlife, there was only little difference among life career patterns, but more significant ones among occupational career patterns (Huang, 2006).

2.4.3 Differences between men and women in career development

Women manage gender in male-dominated areas in order to fit into existing organisational structures and cultures. In seeking to improve women's life changes and access to organisational resources, it is sufficient to argue for recognition of differences between women's and men's reproductive and social roles. It is important to acknowledge differences between women: some women do not bear children, or if they do, they do not take primary responsibility for their care; as workers, many women do not wish to be perceived as mainly "feminine" in their characteristics and skills. For such women the provision of "alternative" career paths and flexible work structures to facilitate the combination of work and domestic roles would not represent a desirable organisational path. Instead, a deeper searching of gender and its significance in organisations is necessary, beyond asking whether women are the same as men, and therefore should be treated the same, or different from men, in which case they must not expect the same opportunities (Ruben, 1997).

In moving beyond this it is important to question the essentialised oppositional gender categories, which persist. Structurally, an important step in this attempt is to acknowledge that men as well as women have children and have an interest in their being raised and cared for, and to recognise that men may wish to and should take part in these responsibilities. Further, characteristics and skills which have tended to be perceived either masculine or feminine are actually shared by women and men. Women can be competent and persuasive as full-time, continuous career managers, and as organisations experience intense competition and profound structural changes, there is a growing indication that those characteristics which have tended to be perceived as specific to women employees, such as caring, interpersonal skills, flexibility and an interest in part-time work, are increasingly the model workers to which men will have to adapt (Ruben, 1997).

Management is not an occupation for which skills and criteria can be clearly specified. Nor are gender categories unchanging. Instead, a perception of what management is, and stereotypes of women and men change over time. It is important to reassess the gendered nature of how

management has been constructed, what managers do and the skills they require, as it is to overcome reductive perceptions of “men” and “women” as separate, different groups about whom generalisations may be made concerning characteristics, skills and goals (Ruben, 1997).

The gendered nature of organisational advancement affects the relational interactions between men and women, and among women at different levels of the hierarchy (Ely, 1995), suggesting gendered implications for women’s career development. Thus, women in organisations may find that their careers develop in directions, advancement patterns, and forms that are distinctively different from those of men, even in the same firms (O’Neil and Bilimoria, 2005).

Variables that help predict men’s career decisions differ from those of women. Barnett (1971) identified three groups of women; the internalisers, who set their own career goals, the identifiers who set goals based on the influence significant others and the compliers who had no career goals and who selected options at the last minute (Barnett 1971). In addition, women career paths are more troublesome than those of men’s. Women face more obstacles inside the workplace at every stage of their career development. Some of these obstacles may be overcome by networking or developing mentoring relationships with powerful individuals (Smith, 2000).

According to Emmerik and Schouten (2006), networking is seen as an increased contact to other people within the organisation, which for instance may enhance understanding of organisational practices, may provide valuable job search information, etc. Networking is the building and nurturing of personal and professional relationships to create a system of information, contact, and support and altogether this is thought to be crucial for career and personal success (Emmerik and Schouten, 2006).

Characteristics of social networks are important to both men’s and women’s career advancement to higher hierarchical levels. However, specific elements of social networks may relate differentially to career success of men and women. For instance, greater success of men in gaining promotions has been attributed to their more effective use of networks (Emmerik and Schouten, 2006). Men generally network only with other men but women with both genders. However, it is noticed that people like to network with people similar to themselves. Meaning

that women with other women and men with other men, because of the same gender. It can be said that gender has a strong influence on the development of career-enhancing networks. In general, the most beneficial networks consist of powerful people -of those who hold powerful organisational positions. These powerful positions are mostly occupied by men and therefore when women build their networks, it is more unlikely for them to include upper-level, high-status or influential people in them (Smith, 2000).

Women who have been chosen for rapid advancement within the organisation, also called as “fast-track” women, are able to include more men in their networks while men tend to participate in networks dominated by men in spite of whether they are identified as “fast-track” men or not. These “fast-track” women tend to rely on men for career support more than they do on other women and they typically work in departments that employ only a few women. Many times women also have less time available to develop and maintain work networks, since they have more family responsibilities. By increasing their status and legitimacy in the organisation, women can receive greater benefits from their work networks. One way to do it is to develop a mentoring relationship, since mentoring provides men and women equal opportunities. Mentoring relationships provide legitimacy on women, which again helps them achieve benefits from their networks and organisations (Smith, 2000).

Mentoring has generated a large interest in both the academic and practitioner communities and by using the term “mentor” as a keyword, results huge amounts of Internet pages on google.com site. Mentoring holds a great potential for enhancing career success. When mentoring relationships are good, they can produce beneficial career outcomes to mentors as well as to the organisation(s) in which they take place. Mentoring relationship is strong bond between people. Mentors are normally people with a lot of experience, occupy high-level organisational positions and provide support to junior-level people to develop their careers (Smith, 2000). However, mentoring is no longer viewed as necessarily long-term, as the changing nature of careers and organisations has caused many relationships to be of a more temporary nature (Baugh and Sullivan, 2005).

2.5 Summary of the literature review

Tourism sector is female dominated and provides a good entry point for young women into the working world. Although, majority of the tourism students are also female it does not guarantee top management positions for women. However, according to Ely (1995) gender roles are more stereotypical and more problematic in firms with low proportions of senior women. In fact, the lack of women in the senior management positions is only a sign that the whole process of selection, recruitment, and promotion needs changes. In addition, it would be important to reform the processes of leadership and acceptance of diversity in organisation cultures in order to destroy the roots of gender bias.

Generally, the number of women in middle management has grown in western countries over the last two decades but in the top management positions the number of top female leaders remains still extremely low. The literature has shown that organisational culture is one of the main reasons preventing women's progress into senior management positions and the metaphor "the glass ceiling" is mentioned several times in the literature. By the glass ceiling is meant by an invisible ceiling or a wall, which prevents women from moving up the corporate ladder past a certain point.

For trying to improve women's access to top positions, it is enough to argue for recognition of differences between women's and men's roles. First of all, it is important to recognise differences between women since, not all the women want the same things. Instead of asking whether women are the same as men, and therefore should be treated the same, or different from men, in which case they must not expect the same opportunities.

In the literature there is a lot of discussion about how to connect family with work and several researchers argue that women have not had career development in a same sense as men because they have followed their husbands' career paths and family and domestic responsibilities have impacted careers in different way. Important is to notice that men as well as women have children and have an interest in their being raised for, and to recognise that men may wish to and should take part in these responsibilities. Further, characteristics and skills which have tended to be perceived either masculine or feminine are in fact shared by women and men. Women can be

competent and persuasive as full-time, continuous career managers, and as organisations experience intense competition and profound structural changes, there is a growing indication that those characteristics which have tended to be perceived as specific to women employees, such as caring, interpersonal skills, flexibility and an interest in part-time work, are increasingly the model workers to which men will have to adapt.

It is therefore important to reassess the gendered nature of how management has been constructed what managers do and the skills they require, as it is to overcome reductive perceptions of “men” and “women” as separate, different groups about whom generalisations may be made concerning characteristics, skills and goals.

3 Methodology

Given all the differences between men and women in management as well as in career development this study has concentrated on these gender differences by exploring specific issues drawn from the literature and by using hotels of one of the biggest hotel chains in Finland as a research object. This study will concentrate on gender differences in career development only in Finland and the study cannot therefore be applied in any other country. The reason to choose only Finland is because it is usually considered to be one of the most equal countries in the world. The research problem began to appear when the willingness of Scandic to speak aloud about gender equality was noticed. Hotel Scandic's intension is to be an equal and a pleasant place to work where the top management encourages and guides for the employees to develop even more in what they do. Employees are encouraged to learn from the others success and mistakes and when ever it is needed there is a good opportunity to get more challenging job. Despite of a gender or age Scandic tries to give for everyone an equal chance to develop in their career (Scandic, 2007).

In the study both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were used. These approaches were chosen since; the research questions were specific and well defined. There was a need to define relationship between two different factors; gender and career development. To be able to do this, the researchers wanted to have a covering representativeness, in other words a large sample size. The qualitative method was included in order to get a better understanding and more detail information of the researched subject.

3.1 Data collection

The primary data was collected during one week and a half in November 2007 through questionnaires and interview from Scandic Hotels in Finland. In Finland there are 20 Scandic hotels in all together locating in Helsinki, Vantaa, Espoo, Oulu, Tampere, Pori, Jyväskylä, Kuopio, Kajaani, Rovaniemi, Luosto, Lappeenranta and Turku which were all part of the study.

Scandic hotels are one of the leading hotel chains in the whole Northern Europe having over 140 hotels in 9 different countries.

Questionnaires were targeted to both men and women working in the middle and upper management of the Scandic Hotels in Finland while the interview was done in the human resource department. The aim for the questionnaires was to investigate how gender affects on career development by asking specific background, work and career questions. The questionnaire is attached as an appendix and the exact questions are described in more detail when reporting the results.

Altogether 81 questionnaires were sent. The questionnaires were sent to each respondent via e-mail by using a Webropol programme, providing the respondents a possibility to fill in the questionnaire electronically and send it back anonymously only by pressing a submit button. Participants had the opportunity to choose whether to complete the questionnaire in Finnish or in English, which was, suppose to decrease the respondent rate. In addition, one face-to-face interview was carried out in order to get a comprehensive picture of the equity policy in Scandic Hotels and how the Scndic Hotels actually take into consideration all the equity factors and do they encourage career development in the organisation. All the 20 Scandic hotels in Finland have a one common Human Resource Department located in Espoo and one HR-manager whit whom the interview was conducted.

The interview questions were combined with the literature. During the interview questions about equality plan in general was discussed and how Scandic is making sure that the payment and recruitment are equal between genders. Is it easy to connect work and family, and have Scandic noticed any differences between men and women in terms of their willingness to advance in the career or in willingness to educate themselves more. Also the career development possibilities in Scandic hotels were discussed.

The questionnaire included 11 structured, - and 4 unstructured questions. Structured questions were close-ended questions with predetermined set of responses or scale points. Generally the good thing with this question format is that it reduces the amount of thinking and effort required

by respondents. Unstructured questions instead are open-ended questions without a preliminary list of responses available to aid or limit the respondents' answers. They allow respondents to reply in their own words, which again can ensure validity and uncover deeper aspects (Hair, Bush and Ortinau, 2006). The scale between structured questions differed depending on the question. The unstructured questions were included in order to obtain additional information and personal opinions of the respondents.

3.2 Sampling

Both genders were selected for the study since, as Duncan (1998); O'Reilly (1999) and Pfau-Effinger (1998) points out in the article by Tienari, Quack and Theobald (2002), cross-societal comparative study of gender is considered to be a fruitful and productive approach towards understanding the multiplicity of gendered phenomenon in organisational settings.

As a sampling method, the systematic random sampling (SYMRS) was used to collect the data. The defined target population was ordered from the Human Resource Manager of the Scandic Hotels in the form of an employer list containing the title, name and e-mail address of every employer working in upper or middle management. The method made possible for researchers to contact the participants successfully (Hair et al., 2006). Part of the sample was hotel managers, reception managers, revenue managers, controllers, restaurant managers and area managers. This particular method was chosen since, the technique allowed collecting the data relatively quickly.

3.3 Evaluation of the methodology

3.3.1 Validity and reliability

Like Järviluoma, Moisala and Vilkkö (2003) points out in the book *Gender and Qualitative Methods*, it is important to keep in mind that the answers for the researched phenomena cannot be expected to be the final truth. Rather, the answers are interpretations arising from an analysis making the work open to criticism (Järviluoma, Moisala and Vilkkö, 2003, pp. 19).

The questionnaire was in two languages; in Finnish and in English, which may have affected to the reliability of the study, since reliability refers to the extent to which a measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials and is concerned with the accuracy of the actual measuring instrument or procedure (Colorado State University, 1993-2008). Even the possible biases caused by translation were tried to be minimized by designing, translating as well as by testing the questionnaire carefully before carrying it out, at the end, interpreting the open-ended questions and translating answers from Finnish into English may have caused some biases. Also translating the interview from Finnish into English may have lead to biases in interpreting and translating procedure.

When asking about the educational background, the respondents had an opportunity to choose one or more alternative from the list. However, this lead to the result that researchers did not know whether the respondents had answered to one or more alternatives, which again affects negatively to the reliability of the study. For instance, a person who has a Bachelor and a Master degree could have chosen the higher education or both. Based on the high respondent rate on category “other”, it was further noticed that respondents did not always know in which category their education belonged to. The answers were tried to divide for the right categories, but since some of the degrees were unknown to the researchers basically because they were rather old degree titles or otherwise unclear or unknown, the possibility of biases exists.

When evaluating the results, it was noticed that the lack of definitions of the concepts used in the questionnaire affected on the validity of the study, since the validity refers to the level to which a study accurately reflects the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure and is concerned with the study’s success at measuring what the researcher wanted to measure (Colorado State University, 1993-2008). For instance, when asking whether the respondents have had a mentor in some point of their career, some of the respondents reported that they have had persons other than mentors who have played an important role in their career. This can be interpreted that respondents either understood the concept in a different way or it was totally unknown which, again may have lead to biases. The same problem was perceived when asking about the work networks. Since, relatively many of the respondents did not know whether they have work networks or not, the conclusion that the concept was unknown to some of the

respondents can be drawn. Results also showed that the concept “leisure” was understood in different ways among the respondents and should have been defined. For some respondents the term obviously meant the time left after work and the time spent on doing domestic work while to others it clearly meant the time they have for themselves. Some of the respondents may have also included the time spent with their families in the leisure time while others did not.

3.3.2 Generalizability and Representativeness

Only a small sample size of 81 has been used. It is notable that the study has been an introductory guiding research that cannot be generalised nor applied for the entire tourism sector since, it is only a sample from one hotel chain in one country. However, the study gives a good starting point for a bigger research and in the future it would be interesting to expand the research and take along several companies from the tourism sector or do a cross-cultural study and compare companies from different countries in order to investigate more deeply whether it is possible to find similar results from different countries.

4 Results

4.1 Gender Equality in Scandic Hotels in Finland

According to the interview by the Finnish Scandic Hotel's HR manager Mr Bigler, Scandic Hotels in Finland have an equity plan, which is updated two to three times per year by a so called "council" that consists of employee's representatives of each work unit. Among the others, the plan has been used to compare salary differences. According to Mr Bigler, the salary forms of the type of task and work description, work experience and the years worked in the company. Currently, all the new employees' salary is based on the collective agreement what might affect that their salary is less than employees that have been working in the hotel already several years. By following the collective agreement and certain criterias Scandic ensures equal and fair payment for all of its employees. In recruitment situation Scandic values basic issues such as earlier experience, knowing the work and personality. Gender does not matter and men and women do not have separate jobs in Scandic. However, according to Mr Bigler, if some department is relatively female dominated and there is a man and a woman who are equally qualified for the job, Scandic might choose the man over woman simply because that way they can balance the gender difference.

Scandic organises different kinds of training and education possibilities for all of its employees. In other words, everybody has an equal change to develop themselves and develop their careers. Women have an opportunity to child-care leave, which is also based on law. However, according to Mr Bigler connecting family life and work in hotel might be difficult. Many of the women returning from the maternity leave stay in the company approximately one to two years and then change to somewhere else and this is one of the major reasons why the company aims to support its employees with families in the upper management by providing them a possibility to change the benefit of a company car for example to the childcare or cleaning service. However, no one of the upper managers has used the advantage yet.

According to Mr Bigler 56 per cent of all the employees are women. He also stated that often when something needs to be developed it happens on women's perspective since women are the majority. However, in the upper management only 23 per cent are women and according to the Mr Bigler, this is because almost all of the managers are middle-aged and when they first came to the company the managers in upper management were mostly men and women managers were uncommon.

4.2 Results of the study

Together of 45 respondents out of 81 answered the questionnaire making the respondent rate to be 55, 5 per cent. 62, 2 per cent of the respondents were female and 37, 8 per cent were male (see figure 2). 42, 2 per cent of the respondents were between 41-50 years. From the female respondents 70 per cent were from the middle, - and 30 per cent from the upper management positions. The study illustrates various differences between these respondents as well as between men and women as a whole.

The Webropol programme summarised automatically all the results after the respondents had sent them back but at the end the results from the structured questions were analysed by using Excel.

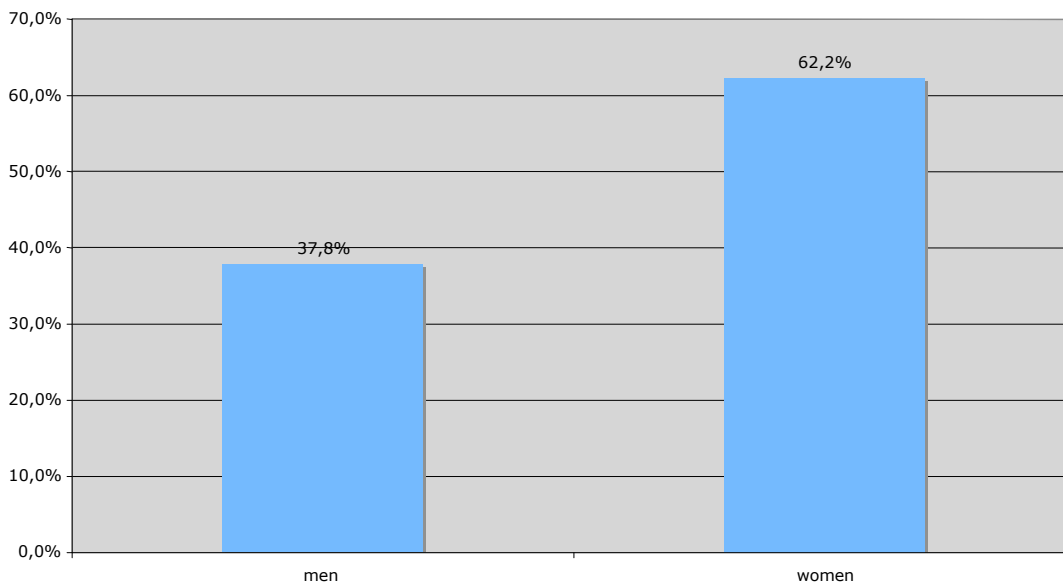


Figure 2 Gender of the respondents

The results showed that men and women had similar educational background (see figure 3). 46 per cent of the male respondents and 44 per cent of female respondents had Bachelor degree or higher education. However, according to the findings 23 per cent per cent of the female respondents working within upper management had a higher degree comparing with women in middle management where no one had a higher degree. 31 per cent of the women in upper management and 41 per cent of the women in middle management had a Bachelor degree (see figure 4). In the category “other” respondents mentioned for example educational programmes offered by employee.

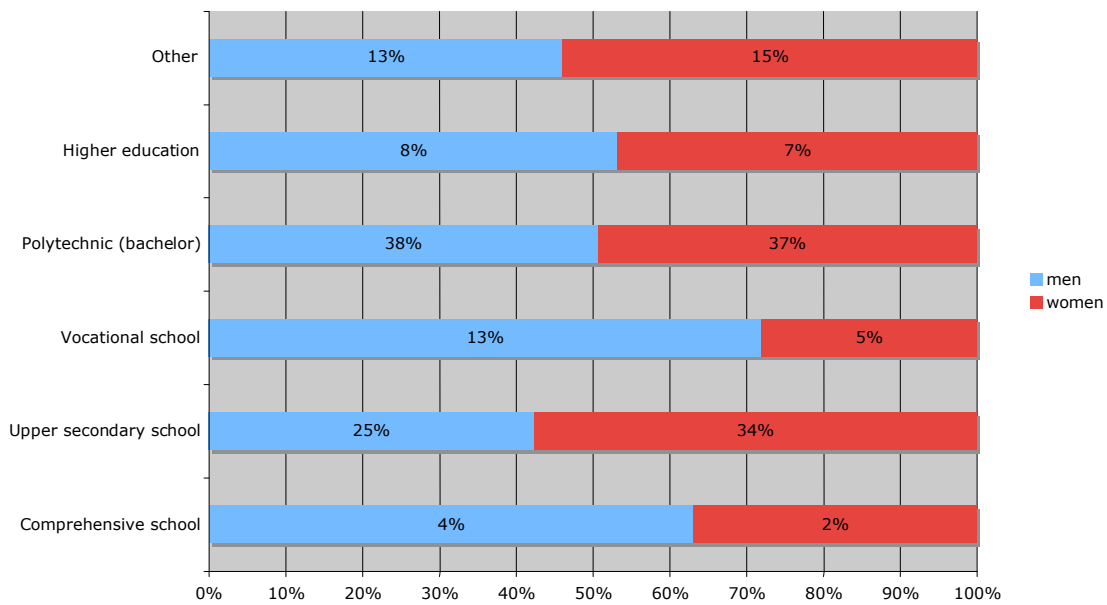


Figure 3 Education of the respondents

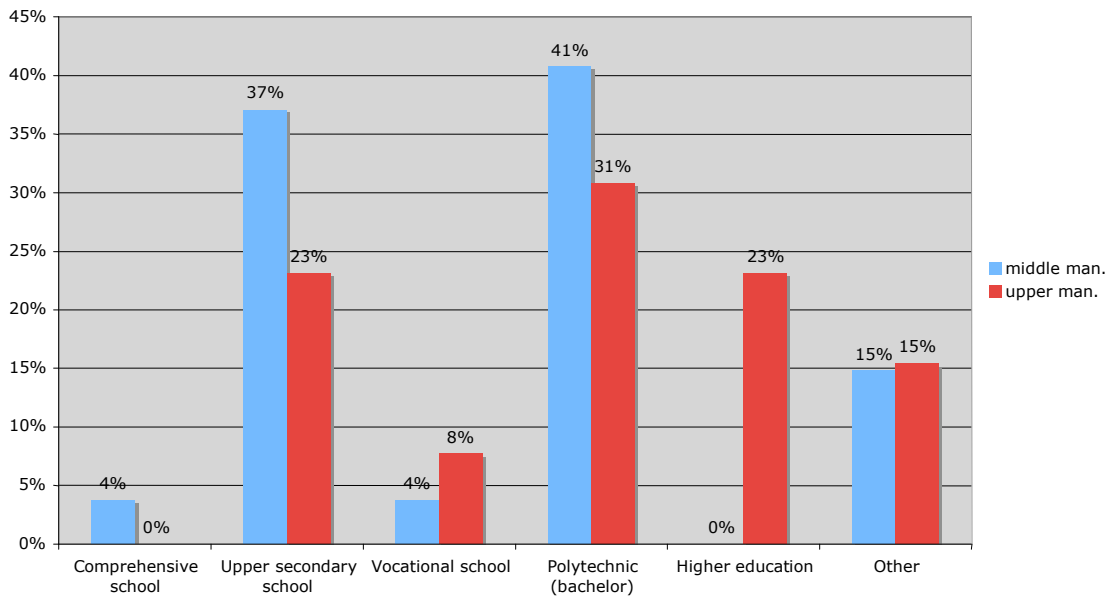


Figure 4 Education among female respondents

The empirical findings showed that 94, 1 per cent of male respondents while only 50 per cent of female respondents were married (see figure 5). Those men that were not married can be found from the middle management. 52, 6 per cent of women working in middle management and 37, 5 per cent of the women working in upper management were married (see figure 6).

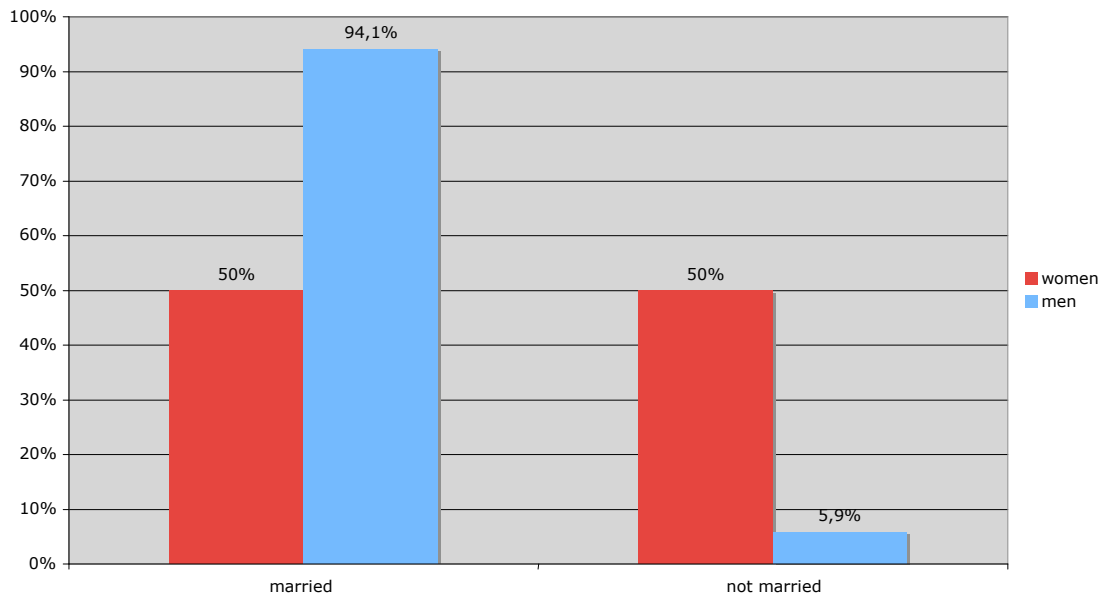


Figure 5 Percentages of the respondents reporting to be married, men and women

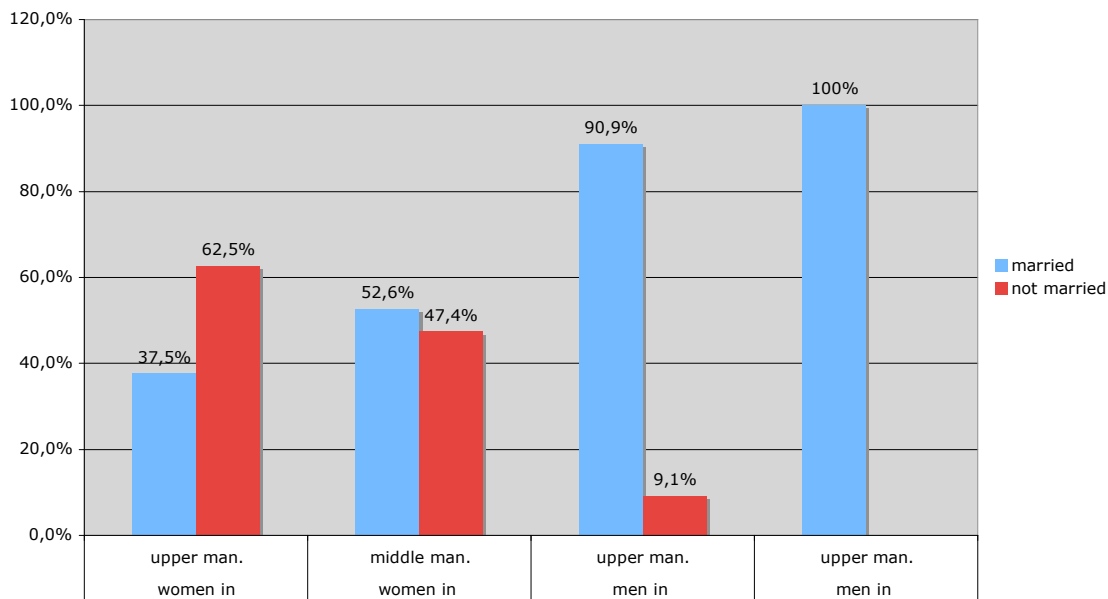


Figure 6 Percentages of the respondents reporting to be married, men and women in middle and upper management

94, 1 per cent of the male respondents reported to have children comparing 57, 1 per cent of the female respondents (see figure 7). The average amount of children among men was 2, 3 and

among women 1, 9. Among female respondents 63, 2 per cent women working in the middle management and 37, 5 per cent of those working in the upper management reported to have children (see figure 8). The average age among men's children was 14, 9 years and among women's children it was 12, 1 year. When comparing the average age of children among women in upper and middle management the results show that among upper management the average age was 17, 4 years and among middle management it was 11, 1 year.

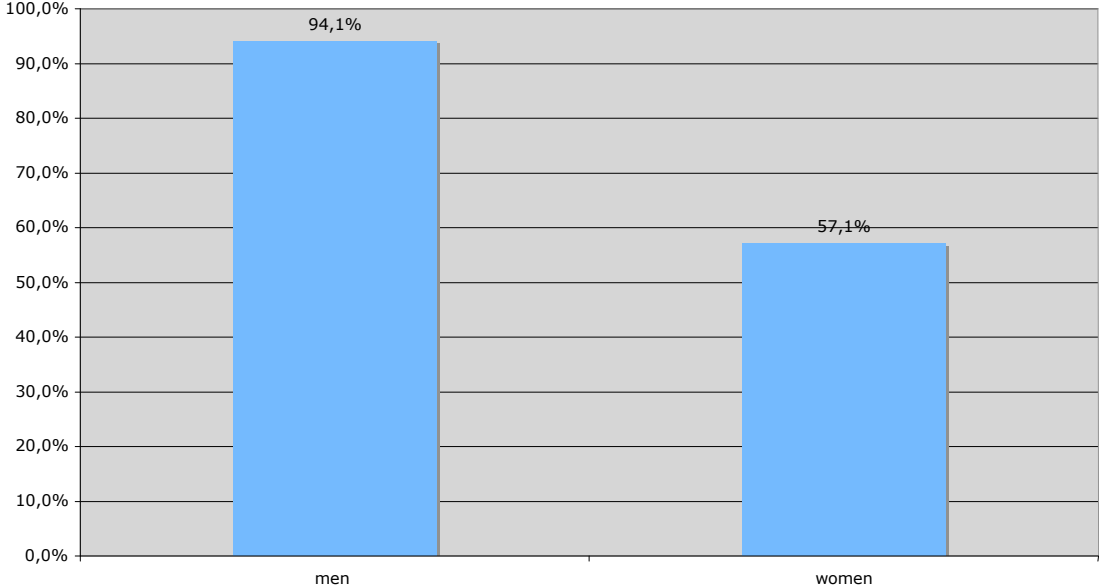


Figure 7 Percentages of the respondents reporting to have children

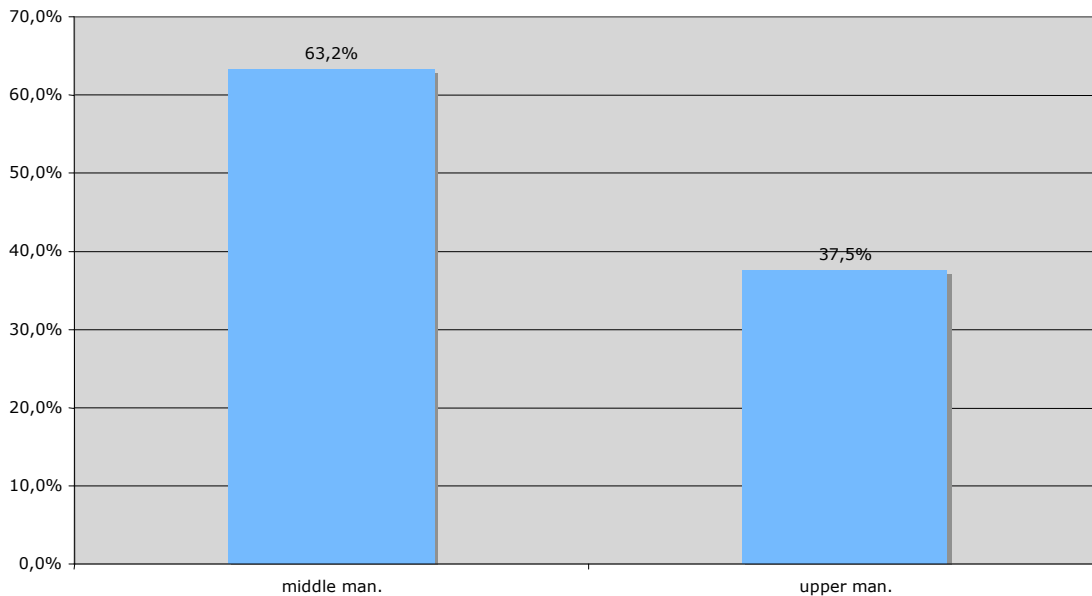


Figure 8 Percentages of the female respondents reporting to have children

Men in upper management have worked as an employee and as a middle manager average of five years and as an upper manager average of 14 years. Among women the same figures were ten years as an employee, nine years as a middle manager and seven years as an upper manager (see figure 9). This shows clearly that among the respondents men had advanced almost twice as fast as women in their career in spite of the similar educational background and years of work experience.

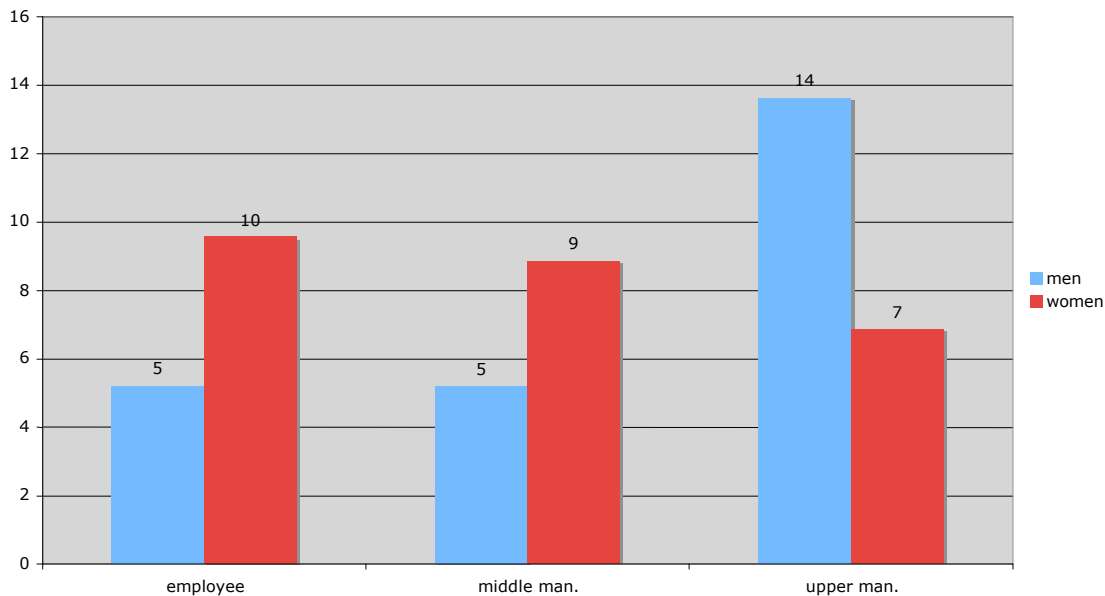


Figure 9 Average amount of years that women and men currently working in the upper management have been working as an employee, a middle manager and as upper manager

Among the respondents men worked on average 46, 5 hours and women 45 hours per week. Male respondents reported to use eight hours per week doing domestic work while the average amount of hours among the female respondents was 11 hours. Relatively big difference between the genders can be found on the time respondents reported to spend leisure time. Men reported to spend on the average 41, 5 hours and women only 27, 5 hours on leisure. Men in middle management responded to have much more leisure time per week than their colleagues working in the upper management. Noticeable was however, that among the female respondents the situation was the opposite. Female respondents working in the upper management responded to have more leisure time than women working in the middle management (see figure 10).

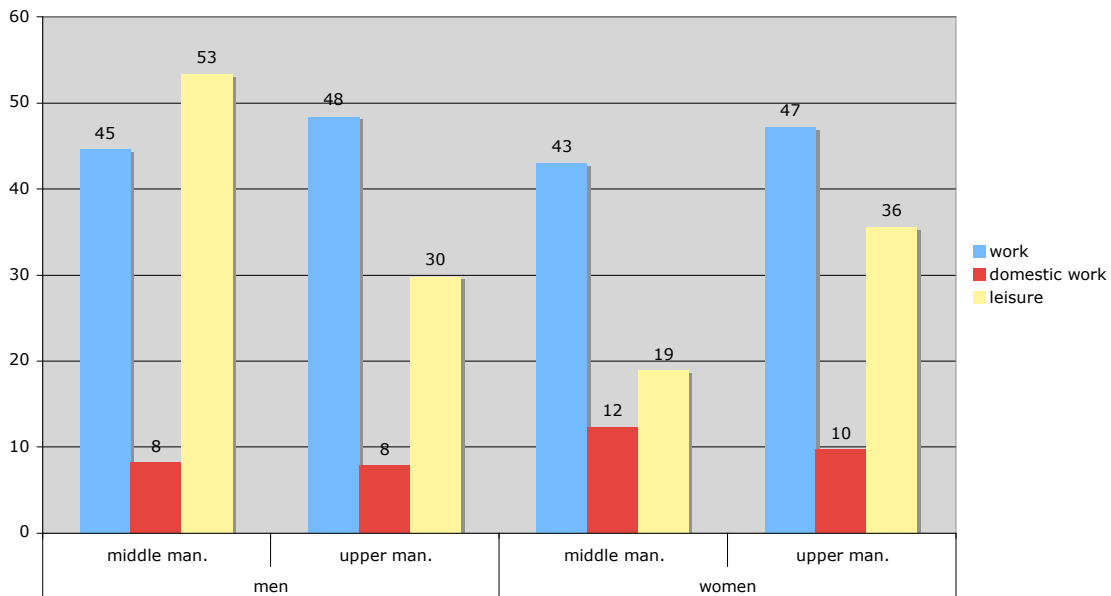


Figure 10 Average amounts of hours spent per week on work, domestic work and leisure time, men and women in middle and upper management

90 per cent of males and 76 per cent of female respondents reported to be willing to advance in their career (see figure 11). When comparing women in middle management with women in upper management, results show that 80 per cent of women in middle management and 67 per cent in upper management were willing to advance in their career (see figure 12). Interesting finding was that majority of the women working in the upper management were willing to advance in spite of their current high position.

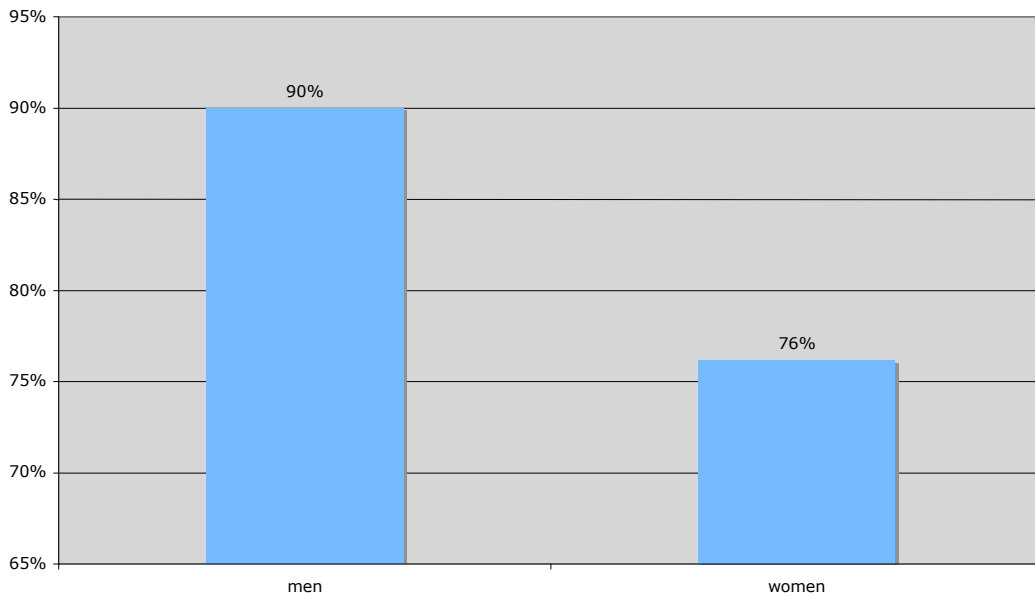


Figure 11 Willingness to advance, men and women

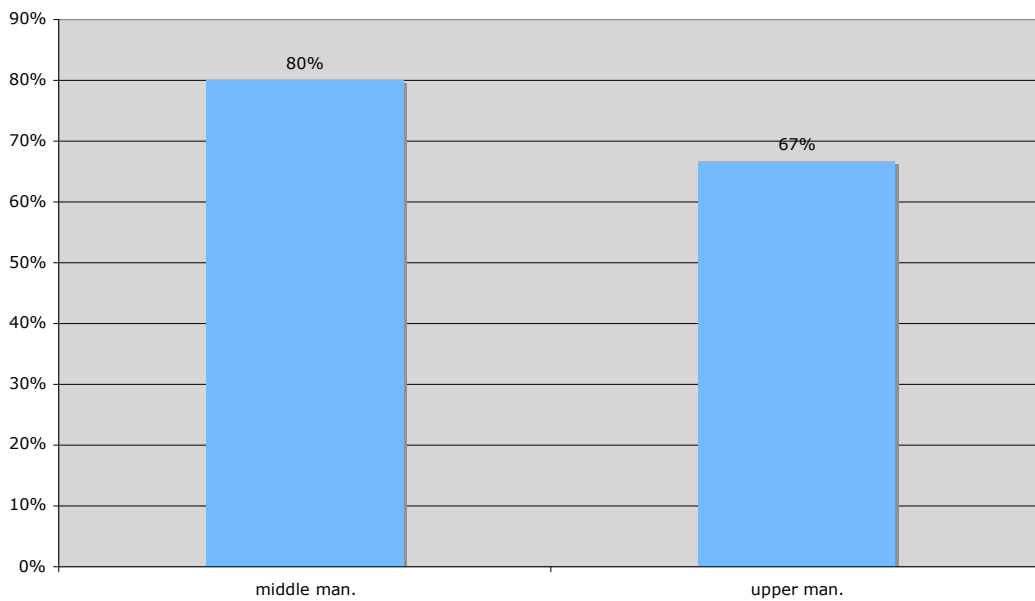


Figure 12 Willingness to advance among female respondents

According to the findings the most common obstacles for doing career among men respondents were the need of changing locality with 21 per cent, family, age and lack of opportunities in the

sector all with 14 per cent. None of the male respondents answered gender, company or superior being an obstacle for doing career while ten per cent of the female respondents named gender and seven per cent company or superior being one of the main obstacle in career. Among women the most commonly mentioned obstacle was lack of opportunities in the sector with 24 per cent. After this, most common obstacles for women were family with 17 per cent, the need of changing locality with 14 per cent and age with ten per cent (see figure 13).

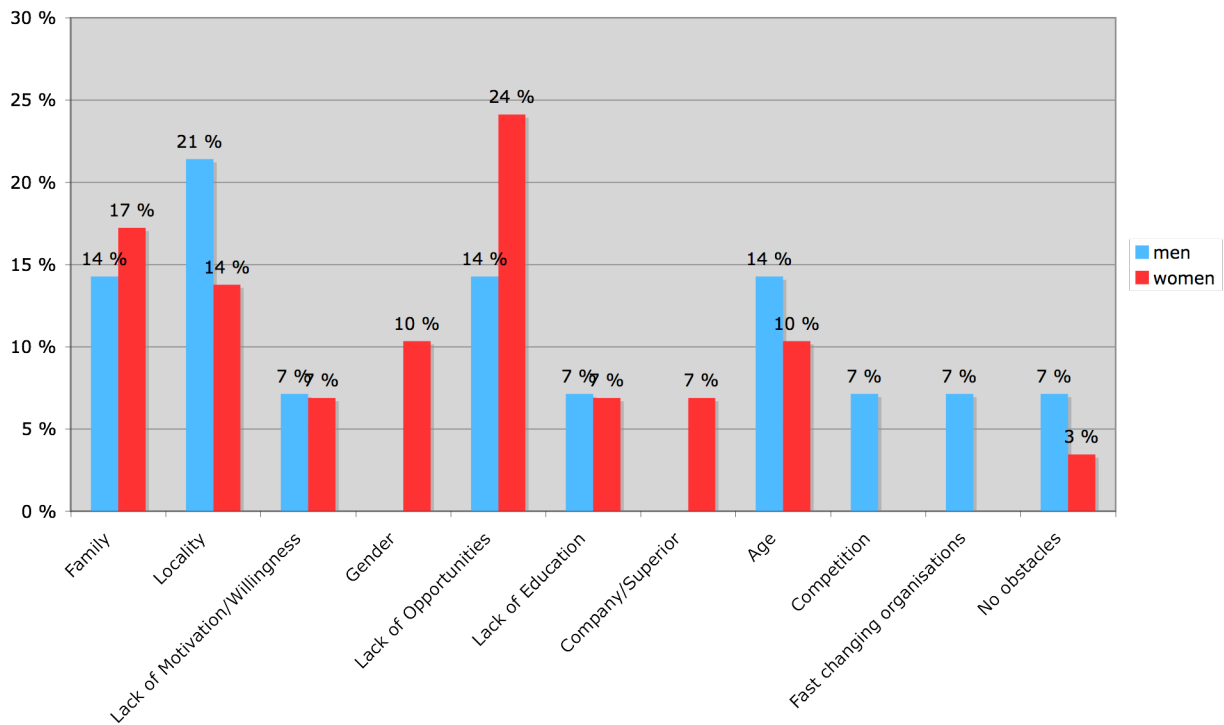


Figure 13 Obstacles for doing career, men and women

38 per cent of the female respondents working in upper management mentioned the main obstacle for doing career to be lack of opportunities in the sector. Other obstacles mentioned by women in upper management were family, gender, lack of education, company/superior and age with 13 per cent. Among female respondents working in middle management was not found to be any major obstacles, but family, locality, and lack of opportunities in the sector were all mentioned equally with 19 per cent. One tenth of the female respondents working in the middle management reported lack of motivation and willingness to be one of the main obstacles for doing career (see figure 14).

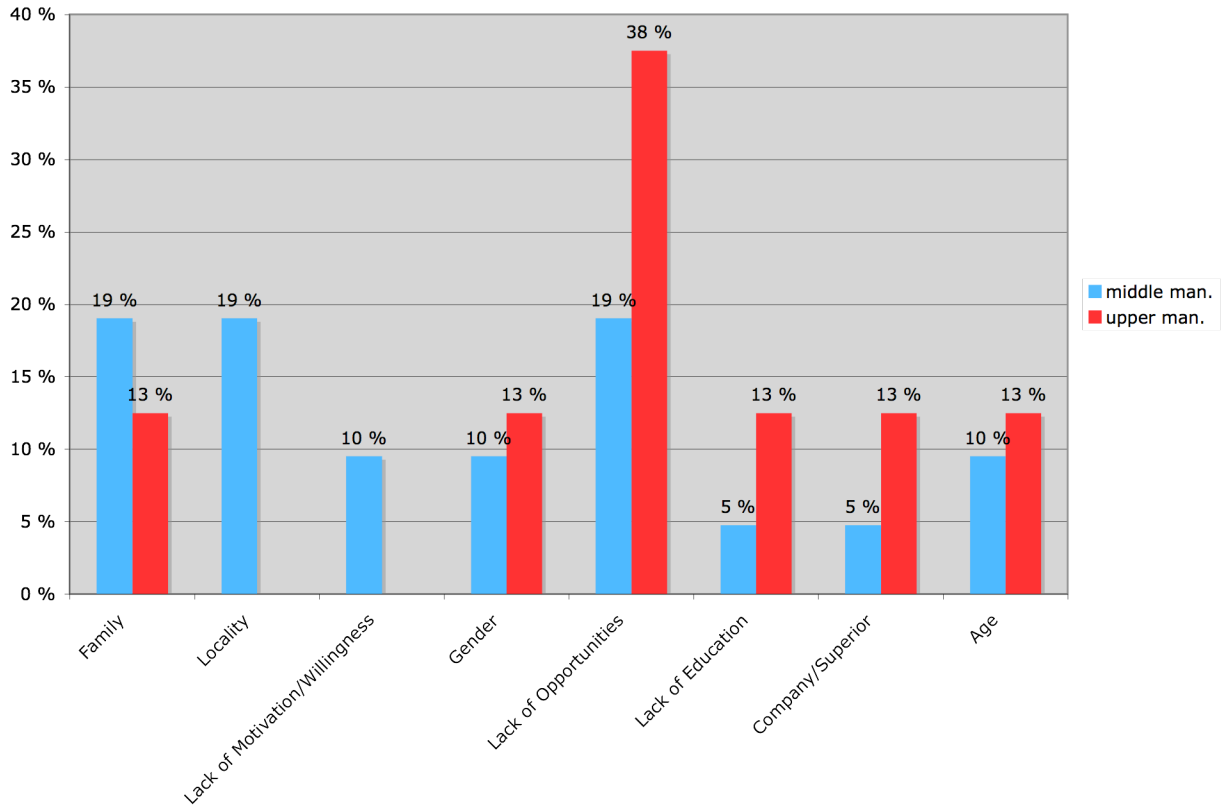


Figure 14 Main obstacles for doing career among female respondents

Most of the respondents had work networks with both men and women or with the same gender. 67, 9 per cent of the women responded to have work networks with both genders while 10, 7 per cent only with other women. Among male respondents 58, 8 per cent of the respondents had work networks with men and women and 11, 8 per cent only with other men. A little under 18 per cent of male and female respondents did not have work networks while 3, 6 per cent of the women and 11, 8 per cent of the men did not know whether they have work networks (see figure 15). This figure and relatively high percentage of respondents not knowing if they have work networks indicates that the concept has been unknown among some of the respondents.

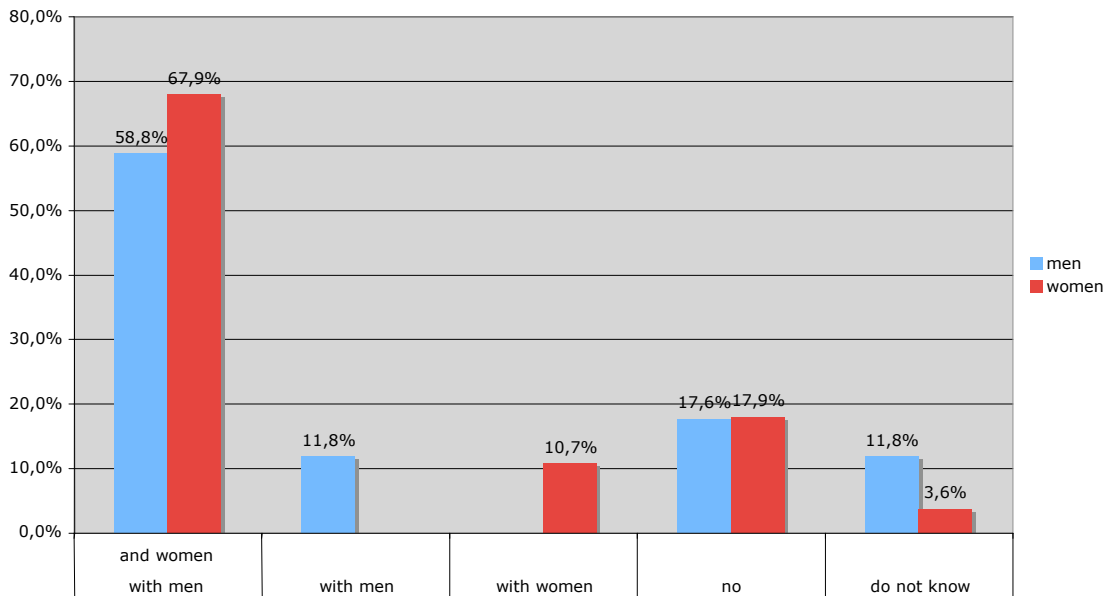


Figure 15 Work networks, men and women

29,4 per cent of the male and 25 per cent of the female respondents reported that they have had a mentor at some point of their career (see figure 16). Mentoring experienced has been useful and helped for advancing in the career. Women in middle management have had mentors nearly as much as their colleagues in upper management. No one of the male respondents in middle management have had a mentor while almost a half of the men in upper management (45,5 per cent) have had one (see figure 17).

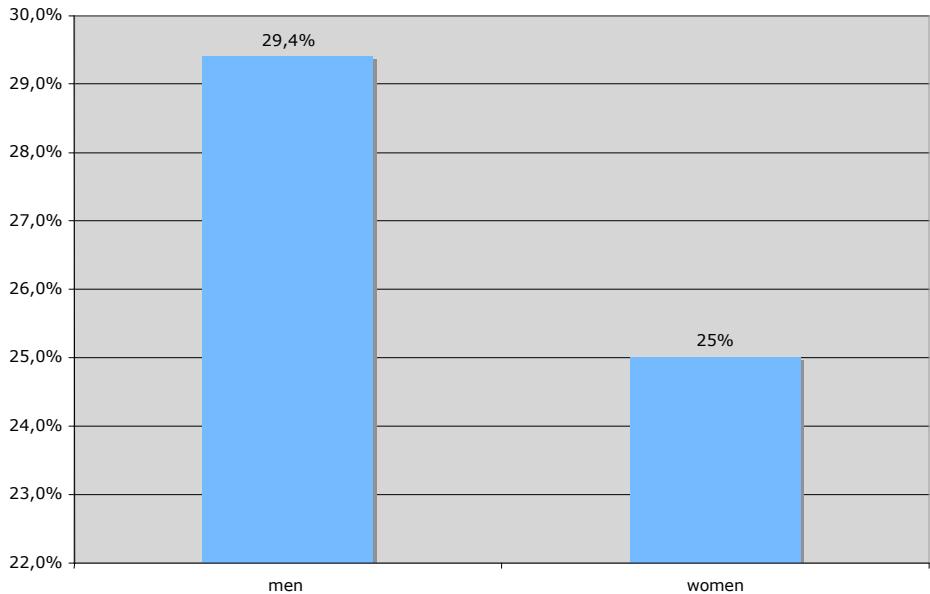


Figure 16 Mentoring, men and women

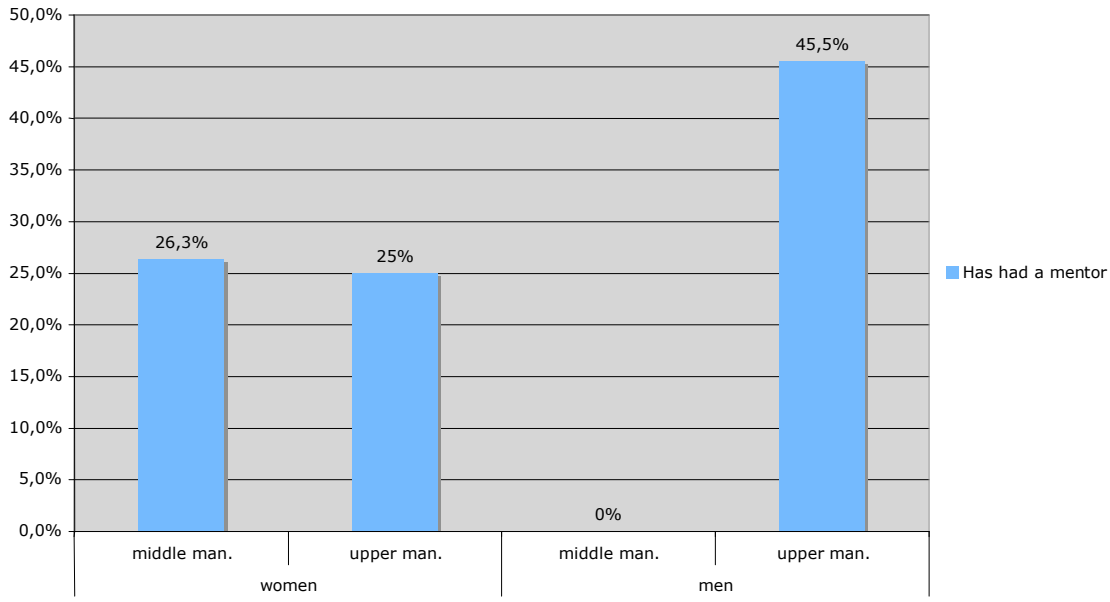


Figure 17 Mentoring, men and women in middle and upper management

5 Analysis

The first research question was how the link between career developments and gender emerges in tourism sector. Like Kotiranta, *et al.* (2007) states, Finland is equal country, except at the top of the business world. Majority of the employees at the Scandic Hotels are women but however, only 23 per cent of the hotel managers are female. Tourism sector do not differ from any other sector based on career development or gender differences but in fact the differences between careers and genders are stronger and more visible mainly because tourism is such a female dominated sector.

More typical for tourism sector is that there are rather limited amount of possibilities to advance in the career. Especially, the possibilities to advance in the hotel sector are somewhat limited since; the market in Finland is quite small and it has been concentrated on bigger cities. In fact, according to the findings, the most common obstacles for doing career were the need of changing the locality, age, family and lack of possibilities in the sector. Women in middle management mentioned the need of changing locality to be an obstacle while none of the women working in upper management mentioned it. This finding especially shows the weakness in tourism sector that in order to advance in the tourism sector, mobility is essential and inevitable. Therefore having a family can be a restrainer when making a career since, with the family moving is always more complicated. Tourism sector is also known from the fact that it employs a lot of young women and the average of age is getting younger and younger making some of the employees to think that age is becoming disadvantage for them. Women considered family and lack of possibilities to be much more common obstacles than men. Interesting was that family was more commonly stated obstacle among women than men: even though men had more families than women. Since one tenth of the female respondents also named gender being one of the main obstacle for the doing career, it can be said that gender affects the career development also in tourism sector.

The second research question asked; are there any differences in career development between women in top positions and women in middle positions? If so, which? The previous paragraph mentioned already some of the findings but basically the empirical findings showed that there are

differences in career development between women in middle and upper management. Results showed that education has an important role in women's careers since, women working in the upper management had generally higher education than women working in the middle management. Noticeable was that no one of the women in the middle management had a higher education, while more than a one fifth of the women in the upper management had one. In spite of the fact that education seems to have a correlation with women's career development, only 5 per cent of the women in the middle management mentioned lack of education being one of the main obstacles for doing career. The results show that the importance of education and its relation to the career advancement has not been completely understood.

There was a small difference between women working in middle and upper management when asking whether gender is considered to be one of the main obstacles in career. Gender was mentioned to be one of the main obstacles among every tenth women in middle management comparing to the 13 per cent of the women in upper management. This difference can partly be explained by the fact that it is considerably more difficult for women to advance from middle to upper management than from employee level to middle management. The reason behind this is that the class ceiling is not considered to be a problem until its existent is experienced.

The third research question tried to find an answer for the following question: does women's career development differ from men's career development? The empirical results indicate that there are differences between genders in career development. The results showed that men had advanced in their career considerably faster –in fact nearly twice as fast as women, in spite of the similar educational background and approximately the same amount of years of working experience. This supports the literature that although there are no differences in education or in earlier work experience everything leads to the fact that the whole process of selection, recruitment and promotion needs renovation. According to the interview, the current corporate practices aim to guarantee the equal treatment in the Scandic Hotels and the current low number of women in upper management is residue from the earlier situation when only men were promoted as hotel managers. According to the interview, Scandic is now aiming to hire equally men and women into the top management and provide them equal possibilities to advance in their careers.

Men were almost two times more often married and had children than their female colleagues. When comparing only upper management the difference between genders was even bigger; in upper management 91 per cent of men and only 38 per cent of women were married. When comparing women in middle and upper management it was noticed that less than 40 per cent of the women in upper management had children, while over 60 per cent of the women in the middle management reported to have one or more children. This supports the literature, which states that it is rather common that female managers are single and childless and that childlessness among women in management is double compared to their male counter partners. It is therefore evident that the family and family commitments affect much more to women's career development than men's.

According to the results, a little more men than women have had a mentor in some point of their career. More than a half of the men working in the upper management have had a mentor but no one in the middle management have had one. Between women, the situation was the opposite but not as radical. One fifth of the women working in the upper management have had a mentor comparing 26 per cent of the females the middle management. Altogether, only less than one third of the respondents have had a mentor. This can be a sign of the fact that mentoring itself has not yet been adopted in the Finnish working culture - or that its importance has not been fully understood. However, according to literature mentoring helps employees to achieve benefits from their networks and organisations. The results showed that the respondents, who have had a mentor, found it useful and felt that having a mentor had advanced their career development. Respondents felt that mentors have given them support, made them see things from another perspective and created new possibilities.

Among the respondents women had a somewhat more work networks than their male colleagues. Most of the respondents had work networks with both men and women or with the same gender. No one of the respondents had work networks only with the opposite gender, which supports the fact that people mostly have work networks with the people similar to themselves. Altogether 76, 5 per cent of the female in middle management reported to have work networks comparing 87, 5 per cent of the women in upper management. The results show that networking is crucial for

career success and especially it has a high importance to both men's and women's career advancement to higher and upper levels.

6 Conclusion

The study examined the factors and differences in career development in tourism sector and the ways to enhance women's career development. The study indicated several links between career development and gender in the tourism sector. Tourism sector was found to be gendered. It employs a lot of women but only few of them have an opportunity to advance in the top management positions. In other words, it is a sign that a glass ceiling exists also in tourism sector. Career development was also found to be challenging because of the limited opportunities in the sector.

There are various reasons for differences in career development. These reasons can be divided in external and internal factors. External factors are factors that do not depend on person itself or his or her own choices, such as attitudes towards women and female managers or unequal company culture. Internal factors instead are factors that can be said to depend on the person itself and on the choices he or she makes. Examples of these are for example person's own willingness to advance and motivation. Nonetheless, it is not always easy to categorize these factors whether they should be classified in external or internal. Family is one of the good examples. The empirical results showed that family affects more for women's than men's career development making women to choose between career and family –consciously or not. Having a family however, should not slow nor affect negatively on women's career development. It is partly the society as well as companies that make it difficult to have both and there is need for change. Women cannot break the glass ceiling only by themselves. Companies have a big responsibility here since even in spite of the same level of education and same amount of earlier work experience men still advance faster in their careers than women. This difference cannot be explained by the internal reasons and therefore is a visible example of the inequality between genders. As long as this problem exists, loses tourism sector talented employees and managers.

The study indicated several differences in career development between women in middle and upper management. One of the main differences was education that can be considered as an important factor determining women's career development. Other differences were found to be

families including children since, women working in middle management were married and had families more often than their colleagues working in upper management.

Work in tourism sector consists to a great extent from a shift work. However, the higher one gets in his or her career, the more regular the working hours normally get. One of the major problems with Scandic Hotels were that a lot of women returning from the maternity leave change the job quickly because it is difficult to have a shift work and a family at the same time. This partly because the society's structure which seems to be designed mainly for people working daytime. For instance, public kinder gardens offer childcare only at daytime. However, also companies could try to renovate their procedures in order to keep their employees, which again could provide them competitive advantage. Every time a company loses an employee, it also loses some knowledge. It is also expensive for a company to train a new employee from the beginning.

6.1 Limitations of the study

It is not always possible to consider all the aspects and the study has tried to give an understanding about a career development and gender differences within tourism sectors since, no previous studies has been done. The study has only tried to show whether the problems are the same as in other sectors or businesses. The study is limited only to Scandic hotels in Finland with a relatively small sample size and that is why it cannot be know whether the results would be the same in every hotel chain.

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APPENDIX

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Career Development in Tourism Sector

Questionnaire by Tiia Riikonen and Jonna Lahtinen

November 2007

We are master students from Göteborg Graduate Business School and we are writing our final master thesis. The purpose of the study is to investigate the career development in tourism sector.

The completion of the questions will not take more than five to ten minutes. Please send the completed questionnaire back as soon as possible but latest on 23rd of November. All completed questionnaires will be handled confidentially and anonymously.

Thank you.

I. Background

1) Gender

- Male
- Female

2) Age

- -20
- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61-

3) Education (You may choose more than one alternative)

- Comprehensive school
- Upper secondary school
- Vocational school
- Polytechnic (bachelor)
- Higher education
- Other

4) Are you married?

- Yes
- No

5) Do you have children?

- No
- Yes, what age

11. Work / Career

6) Do you work in

- Upper management* (i.e. senior management)
- Middle management* (i.e. sales manager, marketing manager, etc.)

*Upper management (also referred as senior management) refers to the highest level of organisational management who has daily responsibilities of managing a corporation

*Middle management refers to the layer of management in an organisation whose main job responsibility is to monitor activities of subordinates and to generate reports for upper management

7) Working experience

How many years have you worked as an employee?

How many years have you worked as a middle manager?

How many years have you worked as an upper management?

8) How many hours per week

Do you work?

Spend doing domestic work (cleaning, cooking, etc.)?

Have time for yourself (leisure, exercise, etc.)?

9) Would you be willing to advance in your career? If yes, what do you think are your prospects for advancement?

10) What do you think are the main obstacles for doing career?

11) Which factors and characteristics you find relevant in order to advance in your career?

12) Do you have work networks?

- Yes, with men and women
- Yes, with men
- Yes, with women
- No
- I don't know

13) Do you consider networking important?

- Yes
- No
- I don't know
- If yes, why?

14) Do you have or have you had a mentor?

- Yes
- No

15) If yes, how do you think that mentor has advanced your career development?

Thank you.

• I want to submit my answers

Submit

0% valmiina

Urakehitys Matkailualalla

Tiia Riikonen ja Jonna Lahtinen

Marraskuu 2007

Opiskelemme matkailualan maisterintutkintoa (Master of Tourism and Hospitality Management) Göteborgin yliopistossa Ruotsissa. Kirjoitamme Pro gradu -työtä urakehityksestä matkailualalla.

Kyselyyn vastaaminen kestää noin 5-10 min. Kysely tulisi lähettää takaisin mahdollisimman nopeasti, mutta viimeistään 23. marraskuuta. Vastaukset tullaan käsittelemään luottamuksellisesti sekä anonyymisti.

Kiitos.

I. Taustatiedot

1) Sukupuoli

- Mies
- Nainen

2) Ika

- <20
- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61-

3) Koulutus (Voitte valita yhden tai useamman vaihtoehdon)

- Peruskoulu
- Ylioppilas
- Ammattikoulu
- Alempi korkeakoulututkinto
- Ylempi korkeakoulututkinto
- Muu

4) Oletteko naimisissa?

- Kyllä
- Ei

5) Onko teillä lapsia?

- Ei
- Kyllä, minkä ikäisiä?

11. Työ / Ura

6) Työskenteletteko

- Ylimmassä johdossa*
- Keskijohdossa*

*Ylimmällä johdolla tarkoitetaan organisaation korkeinta johtoa, joiden vastuuna on yrityksen päivittäisten asioiden hoitaminen sekä päätöksenteko yritystasolla (esim. hotellin johtaja, johtokunnan jäsenet)

*Keskijohdolla tarkoitetaan organisaation operatiivista johtoa, jonka vastuuna on mm. valvoa alaisten toimintaa ja raportoida ylemmälle johdolle (esim. päälliköt)

7) Työkokemus

Kuinka monta vuotta olette työskennelleet työntekijänä?

Kuinka monta vuotta olette työskennelleet keskijohdossa?

Kuinka monta vuotta olette työskennelleet ylimmassä johdossa?

8) Montako tuntia viikossa

Teette töitä?

Teette kotitöitä?

Vietätte vapaa-aikaa?

9) Oletteko kiinnostuneita etenemään urallanne? Jos vastasitte kyllä, millaisiksi koette mahdollisuuksenne uralla etenemiseen ?

10) Mitkä ovat suurimmat esteet uralla etenemiselle?

11) Mitkä ovat tärkeimpiä tekijöitä uralla etenemiselle?

12) Onko Teillä työverkostoja (networks)?

- Kyllä, sekä miesten että naisten kanssa
- Kyllä, miesten
- Kyllä, naisten
- Ei ole
- En tiedä

13) Pidätkö verkostoitumista (networking) tärkeänä?

- Kyllä
- Ei
- En tiedä
- Jos vastasitte kyllä, miksi?

14) Onko Teillä tai onko Teillä ollut 'mentor'?

- Kyllä
- Ei

15) Jos vastasitte kyllä, uskotteko, että "mentor" on auttanut Teitä etenemään urallanne?

Kiitos.

- Haluan lähettää vastaukset