Winning a career award

The impact of winning an award on career success

by

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CERTIFICATION

This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of PhD in the Faculty of Business and Economics, Macquarie University. This represents the original work and contribution of the author, except as acknowledged by general and specific references.

I hereby certify that this thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution.

Signed:

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Abstract

There is an abundance of work-related external awards in the business and corporate sectors. The number of awarding bodies is increasing, as well as the number of awards, the frequency with which awards are given, and the range of accomplishments honoured by awards. The proliferation of awards may suggest there is value in giving or receiving an award. However, there is little evidence about the nature and value of winning a work-related award for an individual. Relatively little research has been conducted into awards in the business sector and how awards impact an individual winner's career.

Careers theory guides the research in this thesis with regard to the career impact of winning a work-related award. Competing for and winning an award is a visible signal of expertise. Signalling theory is used to assess awards as signals of excellence and to communicate unobservable qualities via observable signals. Awards as signals, which may improve a winner's employability and subsequent career success, are investigated.

This thesis consists of three studies and focuses on national work-related awards for individuals in the business and corporate sector. To gain insight a framework of awards is developed in the first qualitative study. The structure and processes of 62 national awards are assessed using document analysis. This study is supported by interviews with ten award organisers. The second study investigates the career impact for an individual winning a national work-related business award. In this qualitative study, thematic analysis of 42 semi-structured interviews is completed using NVivo. In the third and final study, the relationship between award winners' employability and career success is identified using a structural equation modelling approach. Survey responses from 184 winners are analysed using factor and path analysis.

This thesis makes three main contributions to knowledge. The first is in introducing a framework of work-related awards' dimensions and processes against which awards may be assessed. The second contribution is the finding that award winners value the recognition and increased confidence from an award yet they experience no noteworthy change in career trajectory or other objective career success measures. The third contribution is that, for some award winners, increased employability makes a positive contribution to aspects of career success. These results have implications for individuals, employers and awarding organisations.

List of Publications

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Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

Chapter I: Introduction

Prizes are familiar to everyone. As children, we competed in spelling bees and chased gold stars. As adults, we have received an award ourselves or we know someone who has. Awards vary from the notable such as the Nobel Prizes to awards that are less well known such as the Gold Mouse Awards. Irrespective of how well known an award is and how much media space is provided for news about an award, awards and prizes are sought after in an innate desire to distinguish ourselves from other individuals (Frey, 2006, p. 77).

Awards abound and in the United States alone there are "millions of awards, prizes, and honors distributed … each year" (Best, 2008, p. 8). Awards as orders, medals, crosses, decorations, trophies, titles or prizes are important in organisations and for individuals (Frey & Neckermann, 2013b). Awards are found in many disciplines including arts, culture, sports, business and even religion (Best, 2008; Borins, 2000). In 2009, McKinsey and Company estimated the total prize sector to be around one to two billion US dollars (Bays, 2009).

In recent years, the number and type of awards and prizes has grown. There are now more awards and prizes awarded each year for films than there are feature films produced (English, 2005). The directory of international awards, honours and prizes is now in its 36th edition (*Awards, Honors & Prizes*, 2015). This reference has grown from a three-hundred-page index of about eighteen hundred prizes in 1969 (English, 2002) to a two volume, multi-thousand-page tome of awards and prizes in 2015 (*Awards, Honors & Prizes*, 2015).

Awards and prizes are designed to achieve several objectives. These range from recognition in the case of traditional awards, to problem-solving awards stimulating innovation to address a problem, to sporting-like competitions. Awards are used to recognise achievement, find a solution to a problem or to prompt a behaviour change.

The proliferation of awards might suggest there is value in giving or receiving a prize or award. Evidence shows awards are important and result in significant consequences in some industries (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005). Yet the value of a work-related award for an individual in business is unknown as there is little academic research on this subject. To address this gap, this thesis will investigate the career impact of winning an externally-granted national work-related award for individuals.

This chapter introduces the thesis topic. Background to the thesis topic is presented first in section 1.1. The research focus sets the parameters of this research and is presented in section 1.2. Justification for the research is then presented in section 1.3. Research questions for the three distinct studies are set out in section 1.4. The research methodology in section 1.5 presents the philosophical approach used in this study. Several alternative research questions were considered at the outset of this thesis and they are discussed in section 1.6. The chapter concludes with the thesis outline in section 1.7. Figure 1 provides a visual representation of Chapter 1.

Figure 1 Outline of Chapter 1

1.1	• Background to the research
1.2	• Research focus
1.3	• Justification for the research
1.4	• Research questions and hypotheses
1.5	• Research methodology
1.6	• Alternative research questions
1.7	• Outline of the thesis
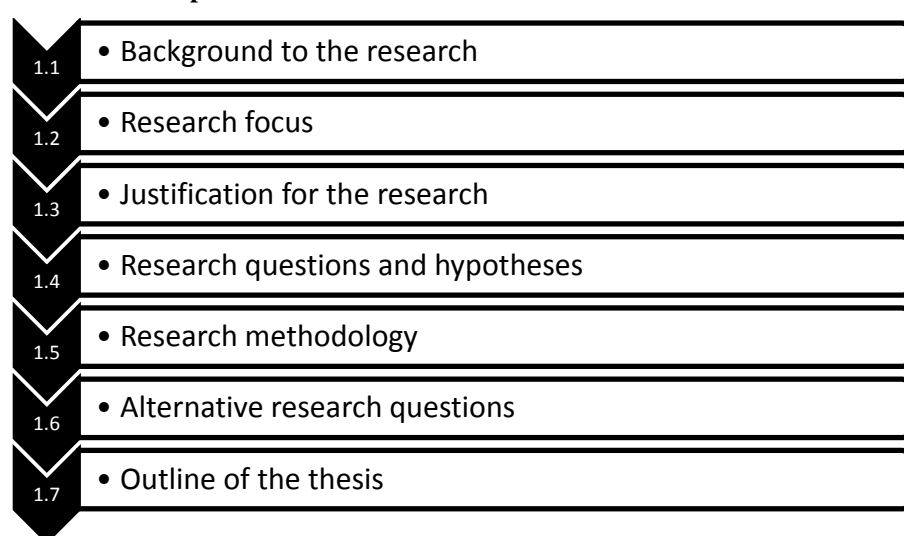
1.1   Background to the research

People aspire to win awards. There is increasing popularity of competitive awards suggesting the desire for recognition seems to be extensive and entrenched. Awards are based on the assumption that individuals strive for excellence, have an innate desire to distinguish themselves (Edelheim, Lee, Lee, & Caldicott, 2011; Frey, 2006) and seek approval from the relevant institutions that are legitimised to attribute this recognition (Bourdieu, 1992). In one international government study of innovation awards for individuals, 66% of respondents who had not won an award said they would like to win one (Rosenblatt, 2011).

Awards are considered signals of expertise and reward excellence (English, 2005). Awards promote excellence and act as a benchmark with which to make comparisons in a particular industry or employee category. While determining quality can be cumbersome, the role of gurus and experts is increasing (Ginsburgh, 2003) and

the role of awards as a signal mechanism (Spence, 1973) of this quality is also increasing.

Awards in business have flourished. Organisations, departments, teams and individuals compete for awards. Award wins are subsequently used in marketing material. Individuals often refer to awards won in résumés and on websites like LinkedIn. These awards for individuals may be used to signal an individual's skills and abilities to recruiters and hiring managers (Spence, 1973). In the recruiting process, individuals may stand out from their competition because they have won an award despite there being a relative lack of information about the award quality or value.

There is little academic research regarding business awards for individuals (Neckermann, Cueni, & Frey, 2014). One reason for this paucity of work is the lack of a clear definition of what constitutes a business award program for academics to use. From academics' perspective, the study of incentives such as compensation and feedback have been of more interest than awards which is an ambiguous concept with little theoretical basis (Neckermann, et al., 2014). Despite this, the study of awards is worthwhile given their proliferation and importance in the business sector.

1.2   Research focus

In this thesis, the research focus is placed on externally-granted, national, work-related, recognition awards for individuals in the Western world. Specifically, awards in this research are bestowed by institutions other than the recipients' employer. In many instances, the institution is an association representing professionals in business. The Institute of Public Accountants is one such association. Awards are at a national level and the award winner is considered best in the country in their particular discipline. For this thesis, awards are work-related recognition awards and most awards studied here recognise general achievement rather than a specific result. The awards studied in this thesis are for individuals only.

Awards included in this research are from commercial organisations. Excluded awards include those bestowed by philanthropic organisations. Innovation awards where people engage to find a resolution to a problem are excluded. Awards may be non-competitive or competitive. Non-competitive awards are often called threshold awards which refers to awards made available to individuals and organisations after being judged to pass certain threshold criteria (Hartley & Downe, 2007). Threshold awards are excluded from this research. Furthermore, awards where judging is

organised around populist principles are excluded. An example of such an award is the Eurovision Song Contest.

Awards literature included in this thesis is from mainly Europe, North America and Australia. Cultural influences such as the value of collectivism or equity affect the perceived fairness in how rewards and conceivably awards are allocated. Research in this thesis focuses on awards from Western cultures.

This thesis takes a careers viewpoint and considers the impact for an individual award winner. There are multiple lenses besides careers that could be used. Economists, psychologists and sociologists are some examples of researchers who have studied awards from their respective perspectives. Economist Bruno Frey and colleagues have investigated awards in the corporate environment (Frey, 2006, 2010; Frey & Neckermann, 2008; Neckermann, et al., 2014). Some of their research adopts a position other than an economic one (for example, Frey & Neckermann, 2008, 2009). Some of Frey's research has focused on "the most important personalities" (Frey & Neckermann, 2009, p. 178) who are listed in the International Who's Who. Such individuals are, by definition, successful and therefore more likely to be in a later career stage. The impact of winning an award for individuals who are still establishing themselves and their careers is unknown. Therefore, this thesis aims to identify the value of an early career award win.

There is a large body of literature regarding high performers and talent management. These domains are not included in this thesis. Further research to investigate the intersection of high performers and awards is recommended. The role of awards in talent management is a further research opportunity.

1.3   Justification for the research

Much has changed since Hansen and Weisbrod asked in 1972 "Why do economics and other intellectual sports not have similar awards?" (p. 1). Hansen and Weisbrod (1972) were comparing baseball and football awards with the lack of economics awards and the lack of analysis of such awards. These days, awards are universal and are "one of the great untold stories of modern cultural life" (English, 2005, p. 52). Awards offer honour and prestige and are coveted as individuals have an innate urge to be better than others (Frey, 2005).

In business, awards have proliferated (Best, 2008). Awards have become an incentive system that symbolically and economically reward both recipients and award

issuers (Best, 2008; Frey, 2007). While an award may be seen as a signal of performance excellence (English, 2002), in business there is little guidance available for a reader to interpret that signal. For recruiters and business managers looking to hire, little is known about the quality or value of specific awards and how an individual came to win an award.

If awards identify excellence, organisations' management may be interested in individuals who earn awards. If award winners are talented employees, they help create an enduring competitive advantage (Mucha, 2004). Nearly every manager is interested in achieving more from their staff whether it is through identifying and managing high achievers using talent management programs (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005) or increasing motivation levels of existing staff using reward and recognition programs (Cacioppe, 1999). Some, such as economists, have identified the value of awards as an incentive (Frey & Neckermann, 2013a). Others have considered the impact of winning an award in entertainment like an Academy Award (Nelson, Donihue, Waldman, & Wheaton, 2001) or an international award for science like the Nobel Prize for Chemistry (Lindbeck, 1985).

Awards are important for three reasons. First, the concern that monetary incentives can undermine intrinsic motivation is well-studied (Deci, 1972) and a nonmonetary incentive such as an award may address this issue. Second, where employers are forced to pay employees the same wage because of collective bargaining agreements or where promotion opportunities are limited by flattening the traditional hierarchical structure of an organisation (Gunz & Heslin, 2005), a nonmonetary award may be one way to reward outstanding performance. Third, the increasing cost to participate in awards, which include a fee to participate, time to prepare, and, in some cases, the use of consultants, marketers or public relations expertise in preparation for the award. Because of the number of awards in business, this research is important to begin to understand the size and complexity of business-related awards for individuals and the impact of such awards on an individual and their career.

For individuals, awards are important and may result in noteworthy consequences (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005). Employees working in an increasingly turbulent economy (Comin & Philippon, 2005) with considerable job losses have experienced a decline in job security (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011). As a result, there is an increasing recognition of the importance of remaining employable (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Forrier & Sels, 2003). Today, many employees are focused on

increasing their employability through enhancing their career competencies (Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2010) and looking for potential opportunities for career development (Smith, 2011). Career strategies used by individuals include networking (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2000), using mentors (Singh, Ragins, & Tharenou, 2009) and training and development (Tharenou, Latimer, & Conroy, 1994). On a practical level, research of this nature provides individuals with information that is important for realistically managing their career (Judge & Bretz Jr, 1994).

1.4 Research questions

Academic research pertaining to awards is still in its infancy (Frey & Gallus, 2015). Given the dearth of research into awards used in business, this research begins with the study of awards' structure and processes. In the first study, the perspective of the awarding organisation is adopted in the creation of an awards taxonomy. The aim of such a framework is to describe the architecture of externally-granted business awards for individuals. The first research question is:

1 What award components and processes comprise externally-granted work-related awards for individuals?

Earlier studies have called for research to include experiences of award winners through qualitative studies that provide opportunity for deep understanding and a complete description of the impact of an award personally and professionally (Huggett et al., 2012). From the perspective of the individual, the career impact of winning an externally-granted national work-related award is the aim of the second study. The first question in the second study is:

2.1 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?

Career success is the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements an individual accumulates as a result of their work experiences (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz Jr, 1995). Objective career success might include salary growth or career progression via a promotion (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008). An award win may be perceived as an indicator of objective career success. Therefore, the second research question in this study is:

2.2 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

In contrast to objective career success, there is growing recognition of the importance of subjective measures such as career satisfaction (Dyke & Murphy, 2006). Subjective career success is measured through self-perception of achievements and success (Dries, et al., 2008), for example. Therefore, the third research question is:

2.3 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

The study of career success often leads to research regarding employability (Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Kaiser, 2013). Employability is important given the turbulent economy (Comin & Philippon, 2005) and hence, in the third and final study, the research question is:

3 What impact does award winners' employability make to their career success?

The related hypothesis is:

H1: Award winners experience a positive relationship between their perceived employability and their experienced career success.

The five research questions presented here address different aspects of national work-related awards for individuals in business. To answer these questions different research approaches are necessary. These research methodologies are presented next.

1.5 Research methodology

The research methodology defines how a researcher will approach the study of a phenomenon (Silverman, 2005). Approaches employed are influenced by researchers' philosophical ideas or worldview. Philosophical worldviews or paradigms are researchers' fundamental beliefs which guide their action (Guba, 1990). Worldviews are general orientations about the world and may be influenced by researchers' disciplines or previous research practices (Creswell, 2009). The particular worldview a researcher adopts leads to the implementation of quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods approaches in their research. These three different philosophical approaches to research are discussed next and the reason for adopting a pragmatic multiple methods approach in this research is explained.

1.5.1   Philosophical approaches

There are three broad philosophical approaches to research. These philosophical approaches are briefly discussed in this section. The approach used in the current research is identified and justified.

First, a positivist approach often underpins traditional research and is described as empirical science (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000a) or scientific method (Evered & Reis, 1981). A positivist approach connects theory and data in a deductive approach (Morgan, 2007). Positivists believe knowledge is objective and quantifiable and thus positivists focus on experimental and quantitative methods. Positivists use developed and tested models and instruments to guide research and test constructed hypotheses through objective inquiry methods (Cooksey & McDonald, 2011). Positivism is concerned with generating objective knowledge (Veal & Ticehurst, 2005) which can be generalised to many situations (Evered & Reis, 1981).

Second, interpretivist researchers reject positivism and instead hold the philosophical assumptions of the interpretivist approach, sometimes referred to as constructivism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). An interpretivist approach connects theory in an inductive approach (Morgan, 2007). Interpretivists believe reality consists of people's subjective experiences of the external world and aim for deep understanding of a phenomenon, experience or situation by gaining knowledge via exploratory, qualitative research methods (Creswell, 2009). Interpretivists allow theory to emerge through interviews, for example, and suggest there are multiple realities which may differ across time and place (Cooksey & McDonald, 2011). Interpretivists explore rich, deep, complex phenomena to gain detailed, thick and empathic description of insights to improve our comprehension (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Finally, the pragmatist worldview includes a multi-paradigm framework of both positivism and constructivism (Creswell, 2009). A pragmatist connects theory and data in an abductive approach where reasoning moves between deduction and induction (Morgan, 2007). Pragmatists are not committed to any one philosophy and see the world as eclectic (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatists believe that to gain a deeper and more encompassing understanding of a phenomenon more than one technique is justified. The mix of techniques is not prescribed (Feilzer, 2010) and pragmatists therefore adopt a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods to provide the best understanding of a research problem. A multi-method approach allows an increased

depth of understanding by using rich, thick description offered by qualitative analysis as well as categorisation and quantification of data (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Pragmatists are sometimes accused of avoiding difficult questions (Small, 2011), however, pragmatism offers a middle ground where a mix of research approaches may provide the best alternative to answer research questions (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Using multiple methods offset perceived limitations identified in both quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

A limitation of quantitative research methods is that broad rather than deep data is collected (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Quantitative research methods are unlikely to reveal the depth of views or experiences by using surveys alone, for example. By adopting qualitative research methods such as interviews, in addition to quantitative methods, in-depth data can be gathered.

A limitation of qualitative research methods is that the sample of participants studied is small and therefore there is difficulty with generalising findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). By adopting quantitative research methods such as surveys, in addition to qualitative methods, a large number of people provide a general understanding of the problem.

Methodological pluralism of pragmatism is used in this thesis where including both qualitative and quantitative methods ensures a deep and encompassing understanding (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) of the phenomenon of individual awards in business. Using both quantitative and qualitative techniques provides the best understanding of a subject and is appropriate because the academic study of awards is only beginning (Frey & Neckermann, 2013b). Multiple research methods are engaged as a complementary approach which is appropriate when researchers are "reluctant to limit the kind of knowledge (that may be gained) to that which a type of data can produce" (Small, 2011, p. 64) which may be the case when a research topic has limited literature. Different research methods are discussed next.

1.5.2   Research method

Qualitative data is usually collected when research is conducted under an interpretive paradigm. An interpretive paradigm assumes reality is socially constructed using words, symbols and actions (Putnam, 1982), and suggests there are multiple realities differing across time and place. Through exploring rich, deep, complex phenomena, insights can be gained to improve our comprehension (Neill, 2006). The main task of qualitative

research is to elucidate ways people in certain settings understand and account for their situation (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Qualitative research provides a detailed understanding of a problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) by allowing researchers to "get under the skin" (Gillham, 2000, p. 11) of an individual to find out what really happens and what can only be perceived from the inside, from the view of the people involved (Gillham, 2000). A key feature of qualitative study is that while the sample of participants studied is small in number, the study is intense and usually provides a large amount of information (Creswell, 2009).

Some qualitative weaknesses are the inclusion of personal interpretations made by the researcher and the resulting bias (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The researcher impacts the research situation or system as soon as they enter the system through their preconceptions in the data collection and analysis processes where findings and interpretations may be influenced. A further weakness is the difficulty with generalising findings. The main task of qualitative research is to explain how people in certain settings understand and account for their situation (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Quantitative research is useful to "understand the relationship among variables or [to] determine if one group performs better on an outcome than another group" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 7). Quantitative research uses empirical methods to identify the presence and magnitude of differences between people or groups of people. Quantitative data provides a general understanding of the problem by examining a large number of people. Some quantitative weaknesses include the lack of a personal voice from participants and difficulty in understanding the context from which they participate (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Pragmatism and the use of multiple or mixed methods allows researchers a better understanding of world practices (Creswell, 2009) and additional perspectives on the phenomena being studied (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 1991). The mixed methods approach used in this thesis is ideal when a need exists either to generalise initial exploratory findings or to enhance understanding of one phase of the research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Using qualitative research methods at the outset of this research is appropriate given the exploratory nature of the study. The sequence of the different research methods in this thesis is identified in the research design next.

1.5.3 Research design

Research design involves the planned logical sequence of steps and connects empirical data to the initial set of research questions and the conclusion (Yin, 1994). The aim of the research design or plan is to guide the researcher and to act as a "blueprint" or action plan. As has been discussed, a pragmatic approach or philosophy using multiple methods is employed in this thesis. Different methods may be of equal importance; they may be used interactively where output from a qualitative study is input to a quantitative study, and vice versa; or the different methods may be used separately (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This latter position, where research methods are used separately, is used in this thesis. The current research uses a multi-paradigm approach (Gioia & Pitre, 1990) and multiple methods.

Most mixed methods research employs multiple types of data or data collection techniques (Small, 2011). A mixed methods approach has been adopted in this thesis. At the start of this research, to embrace a positivist paradigm to measure some aspect of winning an award may be premature. Qualitative researchers often start with more general research questions or areas of interest and seek to learn more through the data (Richards & Morse, 2007). Therefore, in an attempt to understand awards and awards' processes, an inductive approach and qualitative methods are used to create an overview and understanding of awards and their characteristics or attributes. The first study uses qualitative research methods in creating an awards taxonomy. Qualitative research used includes content analysis of texts from awarding organisations' award documents and interviews with awards organisers. In this first study, data is collected from multiple sources concurrently for triangulation and confirmatory purposes.

The second study adopts qualitative research methods to understand the impact of winning an award on an individual and their career. There are 42 interviews with winners of national awards. The extent of objective and subjective career success is investigated. The third study adopts quantitative research methods to understand the contribution made by individual's employability on their career success. There were 186 winners of national awards surveyed in this final study. Figure 2 is an overview of the three studies.

Figure 2 Research studies in this thesis

Chapter 3	**Awards taxonomy** Qualitative research Document analysis of 230 docs	**Awards taxonomy** Qualitative research 10 Confirmatory interviews
Chapter 4	**Career impact of an award** Qualitative research 42 Winner interviews	
Chapter 5	**Employability and career success** Quantitative research 184 Winner survevs	
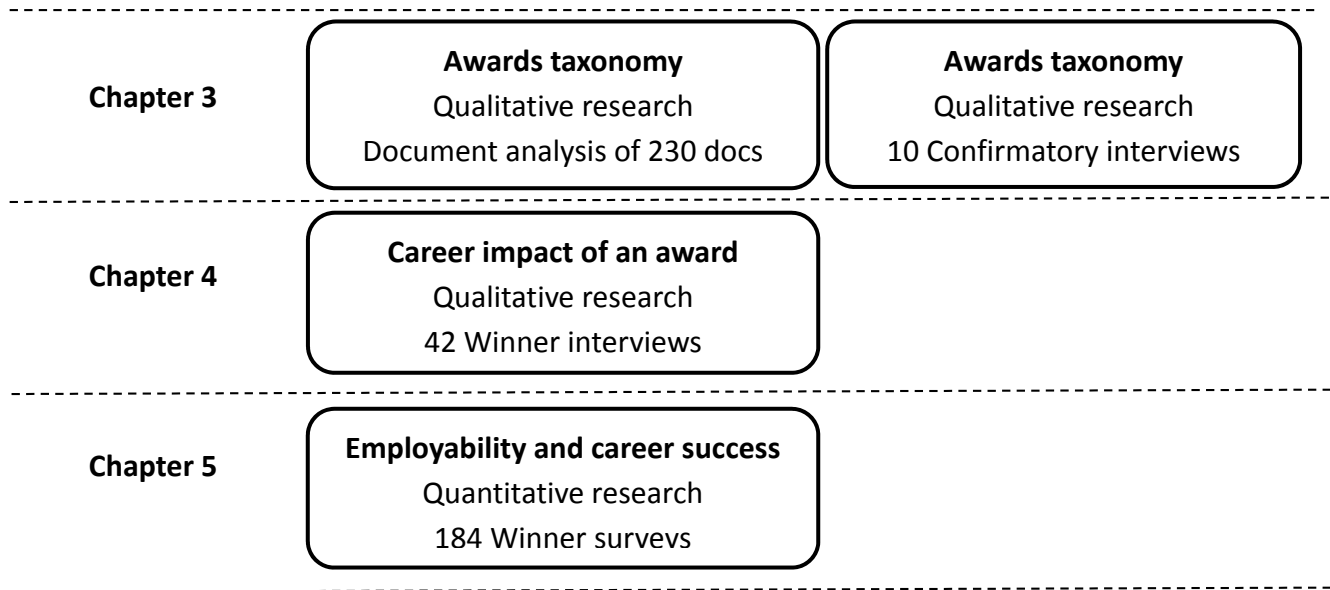
1.5.4 Justification for using multiple methods

Different research strategies have distinctive characteristics and areas that overlap (Yin, 1994). Each research method has merit and is best suited to particular research situations. Using multiple research methods can expand a study's scope and breadth (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A research design that uses more than one method is usually used when one method alone will not provide a comprehensive answer to the research questions (Richards & Morse, 2007). Using multiple methods for research provides an in-depth understanding of the research situation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000a) and is helpful when the research questions are about developing an understanding (Silverman, 2005).

Because the topic of awards has limited empirical research and it is unclear whether existing theory is relevant, an inductive model is appropriate in the initial research (Gillham, 2000). In the first qualitative study an awards taxonomy is developed which then informs subsequent qualitative and quantitative research. Findings from these studies enhance the descriptive understanding of awards. Benefits of a quantitative approach include confidence regarding data robustness and representativeness and inferences about the larger population (Silverman, 2005).

1.6 Alternative research questions

There are many perspectives in the investigation of externally-granted national work-related awards for individuals. Almost every person interviewed or who heard about the research topic had their own thoughts and opinions and many different research questions have been raised. Some of these potential avenues for research are listed here and in the future research section in the final chapter in this thesis

Other research questions have been considered and are part of a post-PhD research plan. Some examples include a study in which human resource managers, talent managers and recruiters are interviewed for their view of the value of awards and their views of award winners. The role of an award in the recruitment process is not clear. Further, the position an award win has in award winners' résumés and the use of an award by winners in their personal marketing stories extends the research lens to the recruitment process.

Another research avenue to investigate is the role of awards for small business and entrepreneurs and the impact an award win has on them and their business. Finally, given there are more non-winners than winners, an examination of non-winners would be valuable to understand their experiences. These examples are a sample of the many opportunities for alternative studies that were considered in the process of selecting a thesis topic and the studies to investigate that topic.

1.7 Outline of the thesis

This thesis has six chapters. This chapter introduces the thesis topic. Background information is provided and the importance of this field is established. The research methodology, limitations and key assumptions are presented.

In Chapter 2 the literature is presented. Theory as it applies to awards is outlined and includes tournament theory, signalling theory and awards theory. Literature related to awards is assessed. Furthermore, career theory, career success and employability literature as it relates to awards is evaluated.

Chapters 3 to 5 present the three studies in this thesis. Chapter 3 presents the investigation into awards' structure and processes. Documents from awarding organisations are analysed and interviews with awards experts are conducted. An awards taxonomy is established based on findings from that study. In Chapter 4, the career impact of winning an award is examined. Award winners are interviewed and their career orientation and career success is evaluated. In Chapter 5, award winners'

employability and career success is investigated. Award winners are surveyed and their self-perceived employability and career success is examined.

Finally, Chapter 6 concludes the thesis by providing an integrated analysis and discussion of the three studies. Key research limitations and implications of this thesis' findings are considered. Potential avenues for future research are presented. Figure 3 provides a visual presentation of the thesis structure.

Figure 3 Thesis structure

1 • Introduction

2 • Literature review

3 • Awards structure and processes

4 • Career impact of winning an award

5 • Award winners' employability and career success

6 • Summary and conclusion
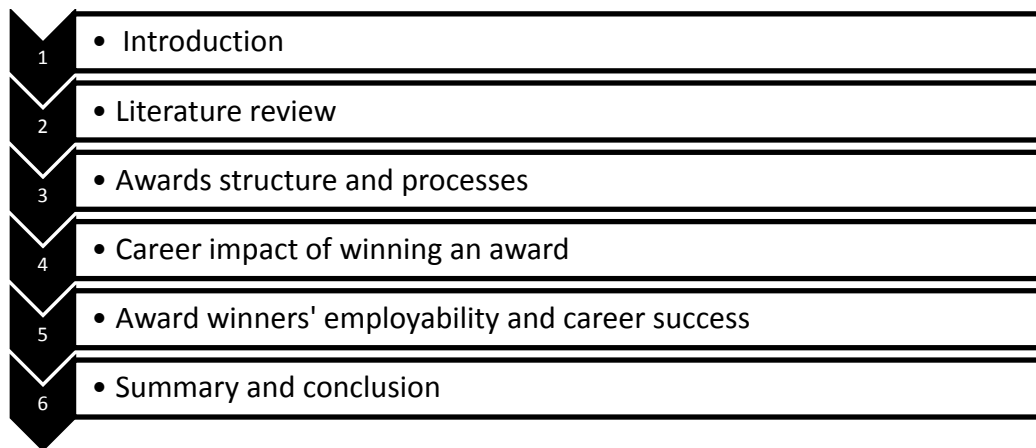
Chapter II: Literature review

In this chapter, the need for research that explores the impact of national awards for individuals in business is argued. In section 2.1, the conceptualisation of awards as competitive tournaments and tournament theory is presented. Then, an award as a symbolic representation or signal of some hard-to-measure behaviour is examined in the context of signalling theory. The brief literature regarding awards theory is considered next in section 2.2. To further understand awards, well-known and well-researched global awards such as the Nobel Prize are examined in section 2.3. In business, the equivalent of a Nobel Prize is the Deming Prize which is a global quality award (Milakovich, 2004). This and other business awards occurring at national levels are examined in section 2.4. Literature regarding the structure and characteristics of awards in business is reviewed using existing frameworks for awards, and gaps are identified (section 2.5). Attention is then drawn to work-related awards for individuals. The reasons for awards (section 2.6) and the impact of winning an award (section 2.7) are identified. The impact of an award on the individual's careers leads to the literature regarding careers theory and employability in section 2.8. Literature regarding talented employees is presented in section 2.9. Finally, the research questions are summarised in section 2.10. The structure of this chapter is visually represented in Figure 4.

Figure 4 Literature review outline

2.1	• Tournament theory and awards as signals
2.2	• Awards theory
2.3	• Popular awards
2.4	• Awards in business
2.5	• Awards structure and processes
2.6	• Reasons for awards
2.7	• Impact of winning an award
2.8	• Careers theory
2.9	• Talented employees
2.10	• Research questions summary
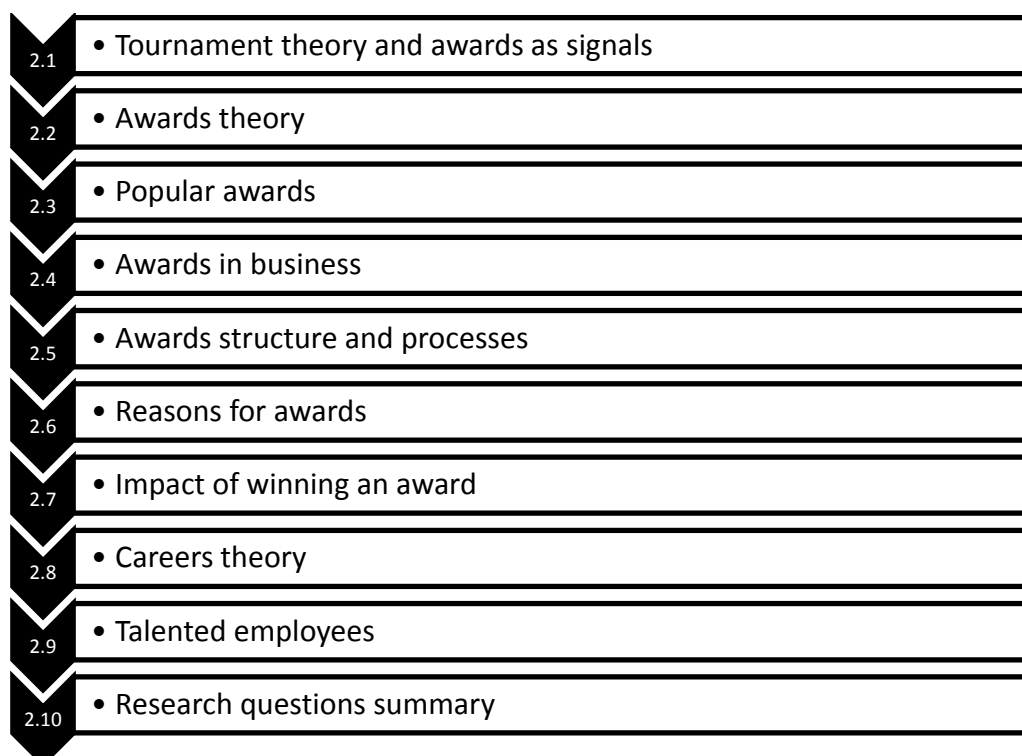
Awards are pervasive (English, 2005). The number of awarding organisations is increasing, as well as the number of awards, the frequency with which awards are given and the range of accomplishments honored by awards (Best, 2008). Awards for outstanding performance may be made by governments, monarchies and organisations (Frey, 2006). Awards are referred to as a decoration, medal, prize, grant, honour, knighthood or damehood, certificate, trophy, world record, championship, an Order or honour. Industries well known for their awards include advertising, arts, film, food, literature, music, science, and television. These awards may be bestowed upon an organisation, team or individual. Awards may recognise a single event or an enduring activity and may even be bestowed posthumously. Many of these awards are well known and the nomination, judging and celebration of these awards are transparent or else generally accepted (Duguid, 2007).

To understand awards in business it may be helpful to consider the competition structure in which awards exist. In an organisation, a sequence of competitions may be used to describe the career system and promotion chances (Rosenbaum, 1979). The aim of such contests is to create an incentive to induce optimal effort from individuals which may be difficult and expensive to monitor or measure (Connelly, Tihanyi, Crook, & Gangloff, 2014; Frey & Neckermann, 2010). An award may represent these hard-to-measure efforts when the efforts exceed others. An award is a symbolic representation of these hard to measure efforts, which are communicated to other parties. In this manner, awards are signals and set award-winning individuals apart.

2.1 Tournament theory and awards as signals

2.1.1 Tournament theory

Tournaments are competitive contests where actors compete for a limited number of prizes (Connelly, et al., 2014). Tournament theory describes the design and governance of competitions in which actors compete for a prize or reward based on relative rank (i.e., performance) rather than absolute levels of output (Lazear & Rosen, 1981). A foundational assumption of tournament theory is that competition participants work independently of each other. Furthermore, fundamental to tournament theory is the existence of both winners and losers.

Tournament theory grew from research about mobility patterns in school sports and students' postgraduate careers. Tournament theory was later applied to economics

with studies dating from as early as the 1970s (Rosenbaum, 1979). Rosenbaum proposed a tournament mobility model where careers are conceptualised as a "sequence of competitions, each of which has implications for an individual's mobility chances in all subsequent selections" (p. 222-223). The tournament model as it applies to careers posits that assessments in the early career have a deep and lasting effect on later career.

The early 1980s saw an increase in interest in the use of prizes and incentives in contests as a part of compensation schemes in organisations (Nalebuff & Stiglitz, 1983). More recently, management scholars have used tournament theory to describe a range of inter- and intra-organisational contests including innovation competitions, promotions and incentives (Connelly, et al., 2014; Johnson & Dickinson, 2010).

Tournament theory as it relates to promotions applies when employees with careers at lower levels compete with each other for career advancement through a series of tournaments (Rosenbaum, 1979). As with actual tournaments, performance is based on individual effort and ability (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1994) and the better individual wins the promotion prize in the form of higher pay in their new role (Bognanno, 2001).

Tournaments are often an excellent incentive strategy especially when efforts are difficult to monitor and performances are observable but difficult to judge (Morgan & Wang, 2010). A competitive compensation scheme provides rewards based on relative performance, not unlike a sports contest (Nalebuff & Stiglitz, 1983). In tournament theory this relative performance, rather than absolute performance, accounts for salary differentials. Disproportionate premiums commanded by the highest organisational position, usually the chief executive officer, compared to other employees, is one example of this salary differential (Connelly, et al., 2014).

The tournament model may have "dysfunctional" consequences (Rosenbaum, 1979, p. 236). A self-fulfilling prophecy may occur when "high-potential people" (Rosenbaum, 1979, p. 236) are given additional opportunities and the chance to develop themselves further. In comparison, those who do not win are given little or no chance to prove themselves.

Further research indicates tournaments may result in additional benefits. Kosfeld and Neckermann (2011) found a tournament can have a great impact on peoples' performance, even if the award has no material value. In sales environments, tournaments with or without monetary rewards have been shown to increase effort. (Delfgaauw, Dur, Sol, & Verbeke, 2013). Competitions motivate people not only

because there is a chance to win a monetary award but also because of non-pecuniary benefits like esteem and social recognition.

Not all rewards are pecuniary. Awards are examples of non-pecuniary rewards that share some similarities with tournaments. Both awards and tournaments set prizes before tournament begins. In addition, winners are based on rank order at the finish rather than absolute performance (Becker & Huselid, 1992). In the case of externally granted awards, individuals may or may not know of the prize until they are nominated. Furthermore, nominees are assessed on behaviour or outcomes at a time when nominees were not competing.

Awards and tournaments have awards ceremonies or tournament rituals in common (Anand & Watson, 2004). In tournament rituals status, fame, reputation and professional worth are all at stake. The same may be true of awards with ceremonies, trophies and the public nature of the event. Participation in such tournament rituals is a privilege provided to select participants in an organisational field and is coveted by those without such honour (Anand & Watson, 2004).

Understanding tournaments and the way tournaments are affected by the flow of information can be enhanced using signalling theory (Connelly, et al., 2014). Signalling theory describes how independent participants overcome information asymmetry by communicating unobservable qualities via observable signals (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011). Signalling theory as it relates to tournament theory and awards is examined next.

2.1.2   Signalling theory

Signalling theory (Spence, 1973) describes the resolution of information asymmetry between independent participants who use signals to represent unobservable or hard to find qualities (Connelly, et al., 2011). Spence's original research showed how, in the labour market, prospective employees use signalling theory to distinguish themselves and their work potential from one another. Specifically, education is used to signal ability or potential (Connelly, et al., 2011). Education may be considered a reliable signal because only high quality candidates will withstand the rigour of higher education. In Spence's (1973) conceptual example, the cost of acquiring an education is a signalling cost.

In the recruitment process, the hiring organisation makes an investment under uncertain circumstances because they do not have complete and perfect information

about the prospective employee. The hiring organisation has a set of beliefs about the strength of the relationship between a signal and an applicant's future productivity (Hannon & Milkovich, 1996). Employers receive "informational feedback" (Spence, 1973, p. 359) from applicants' behaviour once they are hired. This information impacts the next cycle of recruitment because once applicants are employed, employers' beliefs regarding the value of the signals are revised and the cycle starts again.

Signalling reliability refers to signal fit which is the degree to which the signal corresponds with the signaller quality (Connelly, et al., 2011). Signalling reliability refers also to the extent to which the signaller is honest. Signalling equilibrium is reached when beliefs are confirmed by new information at the end of a feedback loop.

Awards have a strong signalling function (Frey, 2007; Frey & Neckermann, 2010). Awards signal a recipient's ability or motivation (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). Because awards reward venerable behaviour that exceeds others' expectations (Frey & Neckermann, 2010), an award signals to others that the award recipient engaged in such behaviour. Furthermore, awards provide the uninformed with information about the award recipient's behaviour and abilities and go so far as to indicate expertise (Heppner & Pew, 1977).

Signals are useful when outsiders cannot directly witness behaviour (Frey & Neckermann, 2010) or do not understand the award-winning activities (Frey & Neckermann, 2009). Instead, outsiders use information about an award as a measure of an award recipients' behaviour. Outsiders are able to access this information because of publicity associated with the award. Awards often gain publicity through presentations or ceremonies when award recipients' receive their prize (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). Such events are often in front of an audience and the press report who the award recipients are. Award recipients are often encouraged to display their awards and regularly list their award in their résumé (Frey & Neckermann, 2010). In so doing, the award is set apart from other rewards such as bonuses or praise which are not publicised and bare no visible sustainable signal.

Awards may serve as signals that induce and reward effort and motivate socially desirable behaviour. People will extend effort to participate in an award to receive the associated recognition from others and the accompanying benefits (Frey & Neckermann, 2010). Examples of these benefits include job offers, salary increases and enlarged and highly valued social network.

Awards may act as indicators of quality when they are considered signals of expertise (English, 2005) and they communicate what is of value (Anand & Watson, 2004). Competitions function as institutions that convey expert opinions (Glejser & Heyndels, 2001) and the prize is a device to signal quality to consumers (Gergaud, Guzman, & Verardi, 2007; Street, 2005). While determining quality can be cumbersome, the role of gurus and experts is increasing (Ginsburgh, 2003) and the role of awards as a signalling mechanism (Spence, 1973) of quality is also increasing. Signals operate as lighthouses (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005) and allow consumers to save on search costs (Glejser & Heyndels, 2001), especially if the search is for quality.

2.2   Awards theory

A "general theory of awards" was proposed in 1972 by economists Hansen and Weisbrod. Their theory describes an economic frame encompassing the desire for awards, low production costs and the warning that an unlimited increase in awards would lead to declining marginal social benefits. Declining social benefits refers to the increased unhappiness that Hansen and Weisbrod (1972) suggested would result from non-winners, who would increase in number, and also from winners, who experience reduced scarcity value of an award.

The theory experienced little subsequent uptake (Gavrila, Caulkins, Feichtinger, Tragler, & Hartl, 2005) in economics or in any other discipline. Instead, economists focused on incentives that offer specific and measurable dimensions such as monetary rewards (Frey, 2010). More recently, theories about awards have been developed by several academics. One example is Gavrila, et al. (2005), who describes the changing value of an award depending on the scarcity of the award. The optimal solution for increased recognition from awards occurs when fewer people receive the award and former recipients are highly esteemed. Another example is Besley and Ghatak (2008) who use an economics lens and analyse a principal-agent setting with non-monetary incentives such as job titles or awards which are used to increase individual employee's (agents) motivation. Neckermann and Frey (2013) determine awards at work affect over- and under-performing recipients differently.

Awards theory proposed by McLaren and Mills (2008) suggests awards provide legitimacy to both award givers and recipients and award value depends on the organisation behind the award. While this appeals intuitively, a general theory of awards is yet to be developed according to some researchers (for example, Frey &

Neckermann, 2008). The role of awards needs to be investigated from perspectives other than economists. In particular, the question of the role of awards as they relate to careers and outstanding achievement is unanswered.

Awards are used globally as a means to reward and recognise. Awards are conferred by different organisations including governments, royalty, organisations and associations (Frey, 2006) and the number of awarding organisations and awards is increasing (Best, 2008). Van den Dungen (2001), who has examined peace awards, suggests there are so many peace awards that one is awarded somewhere in the world every day of the year.

Awards praise discipline, delayed or foregone gratification, and inner directedness. Awards, like the Olympics, explicitly offer praise for the individual's achievement (Rothenbuhler, 1989). Sports are a well-recognised form of competition that has migrated to the work place. For example, staff compete to see who makes the most calls or the most sales. Sport-like awards are different to employee-of-the-month type competition where the form of measurement is less objective. While some awards are more obviously competition prizes, others might resemble feedback or praise (Frey & Neckermann, 2008).

Awards where winners are those who exceed some set standard are called threshold awards (Hartley & Downe, 2007). Other terms for such awards are accreditation or certification contests where a reputable third party offers an endorsement (Wade, Porac, Pollock, & Graffin, 2006). A certification contest is a competition where an actor in a given domain is ranked according to accepted and legitimate performance criteria. Examples include the Fortune 100 Best Companies to Work For and Forbes' Best Business Schools award. Where organisations receive such an award there is opportunity for increased access to resources, lower cost of capital, greater legitimacy and enhanced organisational survival (Wade, et al., 2006). This type of certification signals the organisation is of a high quality and likely to survive. An example of a certification contest that recognises an individual is the Financial World's CEO of the Year awards. Certification contests are useful measures of status in that they combine individual assessments of accepted criteria, which then enables comparisons (Wade, et al., 2006).

In contrast, competitive or norm-referenced awards (Hartley & Downe, 2007) have award categories and assessors or judging panels where the best is selected, usually with respect to some aspect of performance. These awards are often high profile

and attract media attention (Hartley & Downe, 2007). Lifetime awards, sometimes referred to as Hall of Fame awards, are honorary awards and are given to individuals to recognise career achievements (Gehrlein & Kher, 2004). Recipients are usually at the most senior levels.

Top managers at senior levels have admission to the "fraternity of the successful" (Mills, 1956, p. 281) where they are called corporate elites and are subject to elite theory. Corporate elites are a small but important sector of the highest echelon who hold positions of command and dominance and reflect a particular social status (Maclean, Harvey, & Chia, 2010). Admission to an elite level does not rely on principles of meritocracy (Useem & Karabel, 1986). Credentials expected of an elite include education and upper-class background. These criteria have been described by Bourdieu (1986) as cultural capital, which individuals internalise over time, and social capital, which is the indirect access to resources via personal relationships (Maclean et al., 2010). Neither forms of capital are easily accrued making access to the top management or elite level difficult. Parallels may be drawn between corporate elites and award winners for two reasons. First, both reflect a particular social status some might aspire to. Second, admission to the fraternity is difficult.

There is rich literature in sociology relating to awards including topics such as social distinction, status and esteem (for example, Allen & Lincoln, 2004; Bourdieu, 1993; Braudy, 1986; Rossman & Schilke, 2014). Bourdieu's work is seminal in the social sciences. With respect to awards, Bourdieu (1993) proposes awards result in the creation of a restricted or small-scale field of elite and lead to the creation of symbolic capital. Considering the large-scale field, an award may be about economic value for either the awarding organisation if there is material value in the award (is the award a money raiser or cost-neutral), or for the winner if there is a cash prize or a material reward. An example of this material reward may be a bonus or pay increase.

Bourdieu (1984, p. 6) used the word *consecration* to describe the phenomenon where a "magical division" is created between the "pure" and "sacred" offerings available. Individuals who are worthy of respect and admiration are distinguished and separated from those who are not. The goal of being a part of the elite field is directed at the individual winner who is in a class of their own (Bourdieu, 1993). Most of this literature in sociology addresses awards in a general and abstract way (Frey & Neckermann, 2008).

There is considerable economics literature on awards (for example, Clark & Riis, 1998; English, 2005; Frey, 2006; Lazear & Rosen, 1981; Nalebuff & Stiglitz, 1983; Neckermann & Frey, 2013). Rosen (1981) identifies the "phenomenon of superstars" (p. 845) where a small number of people earn a significant amount of money and dominate their domain. Rosen's examples include comedians, classical musicians and sales of economics textbooks. Frank and Cook (1995) address awards as positional goods and their value is a result of their scarcity (Besley & Ghatak, 2008).

Recently more economists have turned their attention to awards. Studies of awards include Nobel laureates' subsequent awards (Chan, Gleeson, & Torgler, 2014) and winners of American Economics Association's John Bates Clark Medal subsequent publications and citations (Chan, Frey, Gallus, & Torgler, 2014). More generally, Tran and Zeckhauser (2012), in a classroom experiment, found even incentives with no monetary benefit improved individuals' performance. In another classroom experiment, Bhattacharya and Dugar (2013) supported this finding and furthermore that the presence of public recognition impacts performance. Neckermann, et al. (2014) found a positive but short-lived spillover effect where rewarding one job dimension impacts performance on other job dimensions. Their study concludes employee awards from an organisation's management have a motivating power. While these bodies of literature are interesting and useful, they seldom consider the individual's experience of winning an award from an external organisation and the associated career implications.

2.3   Popular awards

Considerable attention has been devoted to high profile awards and prizes for individuals such as the Nobel Prize, Academy Awards or Oscars, and Michelin Stars for restaurants and their chefs. These awards are well known and the nomination, judging and celebration of these awards are transparent or otherwise generally accepted (Duguid, 2007). These well-known awards form a backdrop for the study of awards for individuals in business. Background and relevant research regarding the Nobel Prize, Academy Awards and Michelin Stars are discussed next.

2.3.1   Nobel Prize

The Nobel prizes originate from the will of Alfred Nobel, an inventor and industrialist (Sandmo, 2007). The Nobel prizes were created in 1901 for achievements in chemistry, physics, physiology and medicine, and literature (Pederson, 2006). The fifth prize is the

Nobel Peace Prize. The Nobel Prize in economics is the more recent sixth prize created in 1968 in memory of Alfred Nobel. Most categories are awarded annually where, in a closed process, prize winners are decided by the awarding authority committee members (Lindbeck, 1985). Winners in each category receive a substantial cash prize. The prize may be won by an individual or may be shared.

The process of awarding a Nobel Prize is complex (Best, 2008). The process begins with the selection of committees for each prize. Examples include the literature committee that is appointed by the Swedish Academy and the chemistry committee that is appointed by the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences. Requests for nominations are made and each committee considers and decides on a winner. The larger institutions such as the Swedish Academy review choices which may still be rejected at this point. Then, winners and media are notified. Awards are presented in a week-long festival where the King of Sweden bestows the prize (Best, 2008).

Nobel awards might be considered the gold standard of awards and have become models for the creation of other awards (van den Dungen, 2001). The Nobel awards have attracted much research attention, including geographic distribution of winners (Jank, Golden, & Zantek, 2005), the merit of winning (Adams & Raymond, 2008) and the merit of not winning (Ballantyne, 2008; Moore & Savage, 2009; Ranzan, 2009; Stolt, 2001).

Nobel winners or laureates also win awards at an increasing rate before winning their awards and in some instances after the award as well (Chan, et al., 2014). Laureates often receive their Nobel prize at the peak of their careers (Gingras & Wallace, 2010). The direct impact of winning a Nobel Prize on the winner's career includes access to resources, more favourable evaluations of their work and opportunities to direct work when collaborating with peers (Merton, 1968). Marshall (2001) recorded examples of winners who changed their career after winning. Some winners experienced increased opportunities for funding or used their influence to support political or other causes.

The negative career impact of winning a Nobel prize includes reduced productivity and quality of work that sometimes accompanies the distraction of increased publicity (Marshall, 2001; Samuelson, 2002). Of concern is the awarding of a prize to a single scientist and the associated winner-take-all mentality because important discoveries or inventions are seldom the result of a lone scientist . Sometimes the Peace

Prize has had undesirable effects for example, where winning has resulted in more harm than good to some recipients' causes (Krebs, 2009).

2.3.2 Academy Awards

The Academy Awards, created in 1929, are perhaps the best-known awards and most prominent cultural prize. The Academy Awards, or Oscars as they are also known, are granted annually for excellence in many aspects of film and film making (Levy, 1987). The awarding organisation, the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences, is a professional honorary organisation whose members judge nominations. Academy membership requires a prior nomination so effectively it is current members who recruit new members. It is for this reason the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences is considered an elite body, able to bring legitimacy to the cinema on an annual basis (Rossman, Esparza, & Bonacich, 2010).

Winning an Oscar can have significant economic success. Academy Awards such as Best Actor or Best Picture can substantially increase a film's probability of survival and movie revenue (Nelson, et al., 2001). There is a question of whether economic success precedes an Oscar because movies are often released before the awards are announced (Ginsburgh, 2003). However, it is generally accepted that an Oscar is recognition of excellence.

Oscars have been well researched with studies examining the selection of nominees and winners (Allen & Lincoln, 2004; Gehrlein & Kher, 2004; Rossman, et al., 2010), patterns in choosing winners (Edwardson, 1990), models to predict winners (Pardoe & Simonton, 2008) and winner age and gender (Gilberg & Hines, 2000). The direct impact of an Academy Award on a winner's career has been examined (Levy, 2001). The nomination for an Oscar alone is enough to impact a film professional's visibility and publicity resulting in a notable impact on their career (Deuchert, Adjamah, & Pauly, 2005). Levy (1987) identifies symbolic (prestige) and practical (earnings) dimensions for the artists winning an Oscar.

Negative effects of winning an Academy Award have been identified (Levy, 1987). Work quality may be jeopardised if, in an attempt to leverage the winner's popularity, a new film is released too quickly. There is the risk of typecasting if a winner is offered and accepts a role similar to their winning role.

The Oscars receive unrivalled prominence and attention. Oscars are seen as a model award and are imitated by other entertainment awards as well as awards in other industries (Anand & Watson, 2004).

2.3.3 Michelin Stars

The Michelin star system in Europe is the best-known and most respected ranking system for high-quality or haute cuisine restaurants (Johnson, Surlemont, Nicod, & Revaz, 2005). The Michelin Guide, recently renamed the *Guide Rouge*, control the Michelin star ranking system that operates as a lighthouse in the industry and drives the formation of an exclusive upper class of restaurants (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005). Although stars are awarded to restaurants it is the individual chef who is promoted in the Michelin Guide (Gergaud, et al., 2007) and whose gastronomic talent and expertise is the bedrock of these restaurants (Johnson, et al., 2005). The success of a Michelin star restaurant depends on the "skills and culinary excellence of the restaurant's celebrity chef" (Johnson, et al., 2005, p. 171).

There is no guide to the criteria to earn a star or earn a further star and there is mystery regarding how stars or awards are decided. The aim of the ambiguity is to maintain creativity and individuality and avoid standardisation (Johnson, et al., 2005). Some researchers have identified the role that location, décor, and service play in earning a star together with food quality, suggesting a chef's financial potential is important as well as talent in the kitchen (Gergaud, et al., 2007). Despite the ambiguity around judgement criteria, the conservative nature of the guide and the consistency in the grading system has led to the creation of a solid reputation, consistency and reliability and may have contributed to the strong signalling role the awards offer (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005). Diners use the star system as a signal of quality or a type of risk insurance premium because the system signals quality to diners (Gergaud et al., 2007). Awarding of Michelin stars signals a restaurant's inclusion in the haute-cuisine sector and offer "recognition of achievement and excellence" (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005, p. 580).

The direct impact of a Michelin star includes increased turnover and profitability with a price premium of 25% being charged by the awarded restaurant (Gergaud, et al., 2007). The Michelin Guide has been described as being fearsome with power to evoke major change in a restaurant's sales and profitability (Johnson, et al., 2005). For the individual chef the star ranking can create pressure to ensure the restaurant achieves

high quality levels (Johnson, et al., 2005). One Michelin starred chef returned his stars because he found the pressure from having the stars limited his creativity (Gergaud et al., 2007). In an extreme case a three star chef committed suicide after he was downgraded in a competing guide and expected the same from the Michelin Guide (Edelheim, et al., 2011; Surlemont & Johnson, 2005).

The three examples above, the Nobel Prize, Academy Awards and Michelin Stars, are a small part of a large cohort of well-known awards. In the cultural field alone popular literature awards such as the Man Booker Prize, journalism awards such as the Pulitzer Prize and art prizes such as the Turner Prize have been researched (for example, Anand & Jones, 2008; English, 2002; Street, 2005). Next, literature about awards in business are examined.

2.4   Awards in business

Awards are abundant in business (Best, 2008) and may be considered by managers as innovative human resource practices and essential for firm competitiveness (Ichniowski & Shaw, 2003; Neckermann & Frey, 2013). While considerable attention has been devoted to cultural consecration, the lack of research attention to awards in business is somewhat surprising given how pervasive and increasingly popular honours, awards and prizes are in business everyday (Frey & Neckermann, 2009; Goode, 1979; Levy, 1990). Awards may be seen as transorganisational events that provide opportunity for various participants in a field to come together (Anand & Watson, 2004) and also formalise the distribution of prestige among participants (Svejenova, 2005). Examples of awards in business are examined in this section. The source of awards - being awarding organisations - is examined first followed by awards for organisations, teams and individuals.

2.4.1   Awarding organisations

The source of an award contributes to the award's perceived prestige (Rosenblatt, 2011). Awarding organisations or "consecrating institutions" (Schmutz, 2005) include not-for-profit organisations, private organisations, government bodies, regulatory bodies, institutes, professional associations and semi-government agencies (Chuan & Soon, 2000; Frey, 2006). Professional associations who may be, for example, a regulatory or professional development body, often make sectoral awards (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009). Professional associations, who might require membership, aim to

promote and protect their profession or sector and the standards of the profession (Gruen, Summers, & Acito, 2000). More recently, professional associations tend to have focused on collective knowledge and continuing professional development programs. Examples of offerings professional associations might make to their members include access to mentors (Friedman & Phillips, 2002), networking opportunities (Davidson & Middleton, 2006), latest developments or technologies (Swan & Newell, 1995), and reward and recognition through the use of awards.

The reputation of an awarding organisation influences the award. Awards are more likely to motivate if the recipient values the awarding organisation's opinion (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). However, awards reflect on the awarding organisation and indicate value for the award presenter (McLaren & Mills, 2008) through increased attention, for example (Duguid, 2007). Despite these findings, organisations that bestow awards have received little attention from researchers (Frey & Gallus, 2015).

2.4.2 Awards for organisations

Innovation and quality awards are examples of awards for organisations. Quality awards are either competitive or non-competitive. Non-competitive awards take the form of a threshold award where organisations only need to pass certain threshold criteria to receive the award. Such awards are sometimes called badges and the ISO 9000-14000 series for quality management is an example (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009).

Another non-competitive award is The Deming Prize in Japan which is one of the oldest quality awards for organisations and individuals (Bohoris, 1995). The Deming Prize is considered by many Japanese to be as prestigious as an Oscar or Nobel Prize (Milakovich, 2004). In contrast, the equivalent award in the United States of America, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award, is a competitive award as there are only two awards in each of the five categories. The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award originally aimed at improving manufacturing quality and productivity and now recognises successful innovation strategies (Milakovich, 2004).

Many of these quality awards have shifted their focus from technical quality to excellence across the organisation (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009) and successfully achieve their objectives to identify improvement opportunities and meet higher performance goals (Milakovich, 2004). Governments in many countries have set up national public sector awards based on these early quality awards (Chuan & Soon, 2000).

2.4.3 Awards within organisations

A growing number of awards for individuals are bestowed by individuals' employers (Gubler, Larkin, & Pierce, 2013). The early 1980s saw an increase in interest in the use of prizes and incentives in contests as a part of a compensation scheme within an organisation (Nalebuff & Stiglitz, 1983). A competitive compensation scheme provides rewards, sometimes referred to as a prize, based on relative performance, not unlike a sports contest.

Team awards in organisations are an example of an internal award. Team awards are a form of reward and recognition which are a direct and visible means of communicating the value of teamwork and group problem solving (Abosch, 1998; Wilson, 1997). As well as a communication device, reward and recognition programs are valuable for motivating staff and provide the glue to keep a team together (Cacioppe, 1999).

Employee-of-the-month awards are another example of an internal award. Some employee-of-the-month award programs are similar to rank order tournaments where there are a number of people competing for what is assumed to be a valuable prize, there is a single winner, and the winner is established based on the best-perceived performance (Johnson & Dickinson, 2010). Employee-of-the-month awards have their critics. One example is Argyris (1998) who believes awards are not successful at empowering staff. However, some supporters have found awards lead to the establishment of role models, provide information about valued behaviours and induce loyalty (Frey & Neckermann, 2008).

Teaching awards are another example of an internal award that recognises and rewards an individual's excellence. Teaching awards allow institutions or departments to "symbolically acknowledge" their support for teaching, recognise excellent teachers, and encourage others (Chism, 2006). Teaching awards are widely researched (for example, Butcher & Kersey, 2015; Dunkin & Precians, 1994; Frame, Johnson, & Rosie, 2006; Francis, 1976; Frey & Neckermann, 2009). Teaching awards are an attempt to balance the value placed on research where excellence is rewarded with grants and promotions (Jackson, 2006).

There are a small number of empirical studies of awards for individuals where the individual's employer bestows the award. A meta-analysis by Stajkovic and Luthans (2003) found monetary feedback and social recognition increased productivity. Abosch

(1998) asserted that individual performance rewards help hold employees accountable for specific objectives and to act as an incentive for exceeding objectives. Markham, Scott, and McKee (2002) used a public recognition program in a quasi-experimental setting that lowered absenteeism by 52% and motivated participants. Kosfeld and Neckermann (2011) showed that, in a field experiment, just the announcement of a non-material award increased productivity by 12%. Neckermann and Frey (2013) found changes in motivation and behaviour because of an award from management in a corporate environment. In the same study, Neckermann and Frey found a public ceremony increased the value of an employee award by as much as $1000. In a further study, Neckermann, et al. (2014) showed winners of an internal award significantly increased their performance in the month following the award, while the performance of non-recipients remained unaffected.

Employee award programs positively influence behaviour and performance of individual employees (Gubler, et al., 2013). Even competitions without prizes have been found to increase productivity when individuals derive utility from outperforming others (Blanes i Vidal & Nossol, 2011). Improved performance may occur through increases in self-esteem and a desire for positive social comparison with peers (Festinger, 1954; Gubler, et al., 2013). That award recipients feel more self-conscious and therefore work harder because they are the centre of attention is one hypothesis (Neckermann et al., 2014). Neckermann and colleagues (2014) found winners' performance in tasks that are hard to observe increased subsequent to an award win although the effect was short-lived. Positive results from increased performance has resulted in suggestions that awards are a cheap or even costless means to improve employee productivity (for example, Blanes i Vidal & Nossol, 2011).

In contrast, Gubler et al. (2013) found internal awards do not always work well and awards for good behaviour, like timeliness, might demotivate people if they already display such behaviour. Other potential costs of award programs include "gaming" where, for example, employees engage in only those activities that are relevant for the award (Gubler, et al., 2013). Awards based on subjective or unclear criteria may lead to feelings of envy and a decrease in productivity. Further, awards may result in crowding out motivation (Frey, 2006). Crowding out occurs when, for example, an outside intervention is perceived to be controlling and people react by reducing their intrinsic motivation. In a study of rewards and awards for navy recruiters in the 1980s, Asch

(1990) found varying levels of effort depending on how long until the next award, with productivity dropping "precipitously" after an individual has won a prize.

Empirical studies used to identify potential benefits and costs of award programs are not without their limitations. Most notably for this research, these studies involve awards in organisations and in some instances in only one organisation (for example, Gubler et al. (2013) in an industrial laundry plant; Neckermann & Frey (2013) at IBM; Kosfeld & Neckermann (2011) in a non-governmental organisation; Neckermann, Cueni & Frey (2014) in the call centre of a Fortune 500 firm). Whether findings in these studies of internal awards are generalisable to awards from external awarding organisations is unclear.

2.4.4   Awards for individuals

In contrast to awards from management, individuals may win awards from external organisations such as professional associations, private or public organisations, or media organisations. Few studies have empirically analysed the implications of receiving such awards (Frey, & Neckermann, 2010). Chan et al. (2014) found economists who had won the John Bates Clarke Medal, a prestigious American honour, are expected to publish more and receive more citations. Borjas and Doran (2015) found mathematicians who win the Fields Medal experience a decline in productivity because subsequent work is often unpublished after the award winners' move to new topics. Several authors including Frame, et al. (2006), Halse, Deane, Hobson, and Jones (2007), McCormack, Vanags, and Prior (2014) and McNaught and Anwyl (1993) have studied different dimensions of teaching awards from an external awarding organisations.

In business, Malmendiar and Tate (2008) found company stock and operating results underperformed subsequent to a chief executive officer winning the Chief Executive Officer of the Year award bestowed by a publication or organisation such as Business Week or Ernst & Young respectively. Awards from an external organisation are said to offer objective evidence (Milakovich, 2004) but their impact is not well studied or understood.

2.5   Award structure and processes

An awards framework provides information for designing, implementing and evaluating award programs (Huggett, et al., 2012). Creating a framework for awards by categorising award programs may result in better management of awards program,

enhanced benefits and reduced costs (Borins, 2000). Awards share certain features such as publicity, social recognition, and the typically broad set of evaluation criteria that often have a subjective element (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). However, few attempts have been made to distinguish components of contests, and specifically awards, for their general improvement and understanding. Components of awards may drive the effect of an award on recipients and non-recipients (Neckermann & Frey, 2013). For example, an award ceremony and associated publicity increases the value of an award for a recipient.

There are three examples of such frameworks. In these three examples teaching awards, journalism awards and awards for innovation were examined. In the first example, identification of problems with teaching awards resulted in the creation of "tests" for awards followed by a framework (Menges, 1996). Teaching awards are used by institutions to recognise their own individual faculty member who demonstrate noteworthy accomplishments. Problems identified included secrecy and vagueness around selection procedures, bias toward popularity where awards favoured polished presenters who taught large classes, and competition that resulted rather than collaboration. In response, Menges (1996) developed three tests that teaching awards should meet to be effective. The tests help identify ways to increase award effectiveness. The first test aims to determine how well an awards program rewards truly outstanding teachers. The second test addresses motivation and whether an awards program energises faculty. The third test is about public perception and whether external audiences have increased awareness that teaching is valued. From these tests, characteristics of exemplary awards programs for teaching were developed (Svinicki & Menges, 1996) and are included in Table 1.

Table 1 Characteristics of exemplary awards programs*

1. The program is consistent with the institution's mission and values, and it communicates those values to the community

2. The program is grounded in research-based teaching competencies rather than dependent on special interests, favouritism, or popularity

3. The program recognises all significant facets of instructional activities that are conducted by the faculty

4. The program rewards collaborative as well as individual achievements

5. The program neither precludes nor displaces rewards for teaching that are part of the institutionalised reward system

6. The program calls on those who have been honoured to continue to contribute to the development of others

7. The program contributes to collegial responsibility for promoting exemplary teaching

8. The program encourages self-reflection at all levels of the institution

9. The program is based on sound assessment practices, including multiple data sources, multiple measures, and consistency over time

10. The program itself is open to scrutiny and change as conditions change

* Source: Svinicki & Menges, 1996, p. 110-113.

The second example of an attempt to distinguish determinants of awards for individuals was made by Dong (2013) who examined and compared four journalism awards in China. Examples of important award characteristics identified from that study are provided in Table 2.

Table 2 Example components of journalism awards*

Award components and descriptions	Example
1. Size of jury The number of people involved in judging the award	Varies; Up to seven jurors
2. Scope Describes what is assessed in the determination of an award	Environmental news published in the previous year
3. Restrictions Describes who is eligible to participate	Nominees < 40 years old
4. Nomination Refers to type of nomination	Self-nomination; Recommendation by news organisation
5. Selection mechanism How the winner is determined	Assessment by jury; Multiple rounds with acceptance in subsequent rounds made by junior editors first and followed by progressively more senior editors
6. Prizes	Cash prizes; international travel

* Source: Dong, 2013

The third example of an attempt to distinguish determinants of awards for individuals was made by Adamczyk, Bullinger, and Möslein (2012) who investigated innovation contests. Innovation contests to realise innovative products or services have grown in popularity. Adamczyk and colleagues' aim of understanding elements of innovation contests was to better understand and manage such competitions. Adamczyk, et al. (2012) identified relevant award structures, processes, design elements and attributes for innovation awards. Design elements of innovation contests provide a framework to assist understanding of how such contests are composed and how they function. There are 15 elements listed in Table 3 of which there are ten "extant" design elements and five "novel" elements.

Table 3 Overview of extant and novel design elements in innovation contests*

Design elements	Description of design elements
Extant design elements	
Media	Appearance of the innovation contest
Organiser	Promoter or organisation in charge of the innovation contest
Task/topic specificity	Problem specification. Issue of the innovation contest
Degree of elaboration	Elaborateness. Level of accomplishment. Required level of detail required in the submission
Target group	Participants of the innovation contest. Target audience or population, membership restrictions
Participation as	Mode of innovation contest attendance. May be an individual, team or both
Contest period	Timeframe of the innovation contest
Reward/motivation	Incentives to encourage and reward participants in the innovation contest
Community functionalities	Functions to support interactions between participants of the innovation contest
Evaluation	Process to assess submissions. Includes judgement
Novel design elements	
Attraction	Notification of the contest. Includes advertising and marketing
Facilitation	Support provided to participants of the innovation contest
Sponsorship	Support by sponsors of the innovation contest
Contest phase	Number of rounds of the innovation contest
Replication	Revision cycles of the contest. How often the contest is repeated

* Source: Adamczyk, et al., 2012

The innovation contests framework (Adamczyk, et al., 2012) draws on research conducted by several scholars (for example, Ebner, Leimeister, & Krcmar, 2009; Füller, Jawecki, & Mühlbacher, 2007; Haller, Bullinger, & Möslein, 2011; Travis, 2008). This framework may be a useful start for the creation of a business awards taxonomy. Using the design elements from innovation contests as an outline, the next section includes similarities and differences between innovation contests and business awards, and gaps

are identified. Where appropriate, comparisons between innovation and business awards and other popular awards such as the Nobel Prize are made to further explain and examine the structure or process.

2.5.1   Media and attraction

Media refers to the appearance of a contest or competition and attraction refers to the means of attracting potential participants through advertising and marketing (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Having a large number of nominees is one criterion of an attractive awards program or award (Hartley & Downe, 2007). The number of nominees reflects the extent of competition. The scope of advertising for the award can be expected to impact nominee numbers. Nominees should be representative of the total population for which the award is applicable (Hartley & Downe, 2007).

Different types of media may be used (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Examples of online media include websites, blogs, emails or social networking sites. Examples of offline media include word-of-mouth and newspaper advertising. A combination of online and offline media may be used (Adamczyk, et al., 2012).

For some awards, the extent of media attention plays a role in the impact of an award for an organisation (Balasubramanian, Mathur, & Thakur, 2005). Some award advertising and promotion has been outsourced to organisations that specialise in public relations whose aim it is to raise the awards' profile (Street, 2005). Publicising awards stimulates applicants (Jackson, 2006). People who are nominated may be the source of the media attention, for example, the Nobel Peace Prize candidates (van den Dungen, 2001). Beyond this literature by van den Dungen media use and the attraction of nominees for business sector awards has yet to be established.

2.5.2   Organiser

The organiser is the person or institution in charge of and responsible for a contest (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Awards for outstanding performance may be made by governments, monarchies and organisations (Frey, 2006). Organisers may be a public or not-for-profit organisation for example (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). The award source is important in terms of perceived prestige of the award with internal awards less impactful than external awards from a peer group (Rosenblatt, 2011).

Award providers are motivated to give awards for a variety of reasons (Best, 2008). Award providers may want to recognise and reward outstanding performance.

Awards may be made to inspire or motivate others. The Nobel Prize provide a socially valuable message by signalling who "heroes" are in this world beyond entertainers and sports stars (Lindbeck, 1985). Award providers may have less altruistic reasons for organising awards programs. An award may contribute to the award provider's visibility and prestige and may be a part of the organiser or sponsor's marketing program (Best, 2008). Awards may be a source of income for the awarding organisation. The role and motivation of award providers in the business sector is uncertain.

2.5.3   Degree of elaboration

The degree of elaboration refers to the level of detail required in each submission (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). For innovation contests, submissions may range from simple descriptions that may include a sketch, or concepts that are more elaborate which may be prototypes or functional solutions. Teaching awards are useful examples this element. Applications for teaching awards are a complex process and often require considerable detail (Jackson, 2006). Expected elaboration is often in the evidence required in the application. Examples of evidence for teaching awards include formal materials such as course materials, curricula vitae, letters of support from colleagues or department heads, student testimonials, peer evaluations and teaching observations (Huggett, et al., 2012). In the business sector, the extent of elaboration may vary. Nominees might over-emphasise some criteria-meeting elements or they may selectively include referrals and testimonials (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009). Reliance on referrals was raised by McNaught and Anwyl (1993) who found some teaching awards do not include students' feedback or observable teaching practice in the assessment.

2.5.4   Target group

In innovation contests, participants comprise the target group (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Selection of the target group is from the target audience or population. The number of targeted participants may be limited by the topic and by other entry requirements. An unspecified target group indicates everyone could participate. A specific target group may be limited by age, for example.

Eligibility criteria may define the target group. Eligibility criteria might include several restrictions with respect to who can be nominated. For example, the number of years of experience or type of role might be criteria that limit applicants (McNaught &

Anwyl, 1993). Employment status, prior participation in the awards program, who is responsible for the nomination are examples of eligibility criteria.

A balance is required between awards where criteria are too limiting because of multiple restrictions and awards where criteria are too broad and cover too many aspects or areas (Chuan & Soon, 2000). On the one hand, lack of restrictions that limit eligible candidates is one reason for the appeal of awards like the Nobel Prize (van den Dungen, 2001). On the other hand, if there are more awards each with their own unique criteria the result is there are more winners and fewer disappointed non-winners (Jackson, 2006).

2.5.5 Nomination

Nomination, referred to by Adamczyk, et al. (2012) as "participation as" (p. 350) is the first process for individual nominees. Nomination processes provide structure to how participation occurs. Nomination processes should be transparent and perceived to be fair by stakeholders and potential applicants (Hartley & Downe, 2007). Nomination processes may be a barrier to entry and limit participant numbers. However, there is merit in more participants because awards are more exclusive when there is a greater ratio of winners to non-winners (Straface, 2003).

Nomination may be blind where the nominee plays no part in the nomination process (Dinham & Scott, 2002). In contrast, some awards programs allow self-nomination (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009; Huggett, et al., 2012). The nomination process may include completion of an application including forms and questionnaires. There may be value in standardising the collection of data such as curriculum vitae data (McNaught & Anwyl, 1993). There is value in the nomination process. In the case of the Oscars, a nomination alone is valuable with respect to box office revenues and winning provides only a small additional value (Deuchert, et al., 2005).

2.5.6 Contest period

The timeframe of the innovation contest is the contest period (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Contest periods are pre-assigned and last between hours for very short-term contests and multiple months for very long-term contests. Business sector awards may last a month in the case of employee-of-the-month awards or a lifetime in the case of a Hall of Fame awards.

2.5.7 Reward/motivation

To encourage participation during the contest and to reward participation, a reward system serves to motivate participants (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Rewards in the form of awards include trophies, medals, badges, plaques, statuettes, certificates, or permission to use a logo or symbol (Frey, 2006). Some awards may appeal to extrinsic motivation. For example, monetary awards or prizes and non-monetary awards such as a certificate. Intrinsic motivators including positive feedback and enhanced reputation may motivate participation. A combination of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators may be used.

Prize money, if it exists, is a structural feature that helps create the profile of an award (Street, 2005). Usually decisions about the size of the award are made at the start of the process. In the case of some internal awards, judges might be required to decide the size of the award prize (Speck, 1994). The size of award may vary. On one hand, a full Nobel Prize earns the winner close to one million United States dollars ("The Nobel Prize Amounts", n.d.). On the other hand, most awards and prizes include a certificate only. Frey and Neckermann (2008) claim the effect of the reward increases with the monetary value of the reward. Rewards may be more effective when accompanied by a payment in cash rather than a gift. However, in studies by Bhattacharya and Dugar (2013) even incentives with no monetary benefit improved individuals' performance.

2.5.8 Community functionalities

Interaction and communication between participants may lead to outcomes that benefit the community (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Examples include community building, enhanced information exchange or collaborative development of products or services. In the case of teaching awards, the creation of a "teaching academy" (Jackson, 2006, p. 269) where all awardees are members, signals continuous recognition while capturing and developing skills, insights and experiences.

2.5.9 Evaluation

In the evaluation process, submissions are assessed which may involve judgements, ratings or reviews (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). In innovation contests, evaluations occur as self-assessments by participants, peer review by other participants or evaluation by a jury of experts. A combination may be applied.

Task or topic specificity refers to the specific problem or task of the contest (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Task specificity may be low if the task is very open and high

if the task is highly specific. On one hand, the award or prize may be easily attained such as a Girl or Boy Scout who earn their first badge, the Tenderfoot badge, of which there are thousands and they are easily earned through some basic skills. On the other hand, there is only one Nobel Prize in physics each year. A Nobel Prize awards exceptional excellence and through its scarcity is more valuable (Best, 2008).

Task or topic specificity may depend on judging criteria. Judging criteria help ensure awards are not based on popularity (Gehrlein & Kher, 2004). Judging criteria might define characteristics of excellence and aspects of someone's performance that will be evaluated (Chism, 2006).

Selection and weighting of performance dimensions is often deliberately unspecified (Frey, 2012). This lack of clear criteria allows awarding organisations to honour and incentivise performance that can only vaguely be determined (Frey & Gallus, 2015). Vague criteria discourages individuals from focusing on specified activities at the expense of others. In so doing, awards are not perceived to be controlling. However, vague criteria may jeopardise the symbolic value of awards (Chism, 2006). Obscure or vague criteria gives award administrators latitude and freedom in the selection process that would not be possible if criteria were more specific. Nevertheless, for awards to be taken seriously, criteria should be clear and should align with award programs' goals (Chism, 2006). Criteria should distinguish excellence versus competence and criteria should be listed that are indicators of excellence (Dinham & Scott, 2002). Criteria and evidence should match.

Rigorous and credible selection procedures to decide the winner affect the value of the award (Allen & Parsons, 2006; Arthur & Cook, 2009; Chuan & Soon, 2000). Reasons for decisions about a particular winner are often transparent and are cited in the process of awarding the individual. Because of the awarding process, non-recipients are unlikely to claim an award by attempting to establish their superiority over the winner (Frey, 2012).

In some instances, such as government awards, the awarding scheme provides an explicitly articulated set of criteria for judging (Straface, 2003). In contrast, in teaching awards, there is seldom evidence about how criteria are used or how items are valued (McNaught & Anwyl, 1993). Even if actions are easily observed, such as teaching, judgement may be made based on other evidence such as a reference from a manager or other senior person (Frame, et al., 2006).

There may be a one or two-stage selection process with a decreasing number of applicants (Huggett, et al., 2012). Those nominees who reach the second round may be invited to provide additional materials for consideration (for example, a résumé). For other awards, the process might include the use of a shortlist and even a long list. The Man Booker Prize for literature in English is one such example (Street, 2005).

Although there is limited published research that includes the judging process for awards, there appear to be two approaches to the process of selecting a winner (Huggett, et al., 2012). On one hand, nominees are compared with each other. An example of this judging process is the Academy Awards where a preferential system is used (Gehrlein & Kher, 2004). Nominators receive a list of all possible candidates in each category and nominators rank their five, for example, most preferred candidates.

Alternatively, a standards-based selection process may be used (Huggett, et al., 2012). In this case, judges rank nominees across each award criteria and then sum the scores to identify the winner (Straface, 2003). Judges might discuss individual nominees to reach a consensus. Silent or anonymous bidding may occur.

Judging criteria may be influenced by cultural factors (Chuan & Soon, 2000). For example, for quality awards, in the USA where organisations are results-oriented, the definition of success and therefore the award criteria is different compared to equivalent awards in Japan where a consensus approach to success is used. In the case of the Michelin star system, the mystery regarding how awards or stars are decided helps maintain creativity and avoid standardisation (Johnson, et al., 2005). Despite the ambiguity around judgement criteria, the conservative nature of the Michelin Guide and the consistency in the grading system has led to the creation of awards with a solid reputation, consistency and reliability (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005). Using the Michelin Guide as a template or system to aspire to might be valuable for organisers of business awards who want to create well-regarded and reliable awards programs.

Issues identified in the evaluation process include biases in the ranking method where, for example, the way in which an assessment is organised affects the ranking of finalists (Glejser & Heyndels, 2001). For example, in music contests, musicians who participate later in the competition or later in the day obtain a better classification. Often, determining the winner is a subjective event (Frey, 2012).

Award judges who may be an expert panel that acts as a "preserver and celebrator of the best" conduct the evaluation process (Schmutz, 2005, p. 1515). Judges stand as gatekeepers, gurus and experts (Ginsburgh, 2003) as they determine nominee

quality. Individual judge's views may be subjective yet some level of authority is given to the judge based on their experience in the job or industry (Edelheim, et al., 2011). Where judges are seen as authorities or specialists, they signal expertise and help increase credibility and public recognition of the award and awarding organisation. In the public sector, judges who are external members of a selection committee are recommended because they are seen as having more validity (Borins, 2000). Yet, where judges are employees or members of the organising body, they may provide valuable context and knowledge of the history of the award and previous award winners.

Finding suitable judges may be an issue (Street, 2005). Judges may need to be both personalities who can attract publicity and at the same time able to provide intellectual credibility. For example, musician Neil Tennant from the electronic pop music band Pet Shop Boys was a judge for the Turner Prize for art to increase public profile and attract media interest (Street, 2005). Another requirement may be to find judges who are able to secure assistance from key industry people such as literary journalists who could promote the prize. These requirements support assertions that awards and prizes are principally media events (Street, 2005). In contrast, the Michelin Star system has built trust because first, their inspections are anonymous and unannounced, and second, several inspectors or judges visit at different times (Edelheim, et al., 2011).

Judges' play a critical role in the evaluation process and they affect validity, consistency and accuracy of judgements (Chuan & Soon, 2000). In the case of quality awards, examiners and judges either are employed and trained full-time staff of the awarding organisation or recruited to work for a certain period of time (Chuan & Soon, 2000). In the film world, previous nominees judge the Oscars each year.

If judges select the wrong winner it may lead to reduced morale for individuals and bring the award into disrepute (Borins, 2000). Judges commit to sufficient time to study and critically access applications. Judges are seldom trained in selection techniques and often have different ideas, expertise and opinions. Judges are given some level of authority due to their experience in the job or industry but their views may still be subjective (Edelheim, et al., 2011).

Concerns regarding judges have been identified. Judges may be ill-informed (Arthur & Cook, 2009). In the case of quality awards, judges have been known to assume the role of paid consultant and have been engaged by organisations participating

in the award (Chuan & Soon, 2000). Where judges do not have to justify their decisions the awarding organisation risks being accused of bias (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009).

Complexity and fairness of the awards process may be problematic if processes appears to be subjective or are unclear (Dwyer, 2009; Elsaesser, 2005). For example, the use of qualitative judgement as the sole means to select a winner. Even the Nobel selection committee relies on qualitative judgement and does not include quantitative methods such as the number of citations, which may be seen as signals of importance and impact of work (Lindbeck, 1985).

In some instances, winners may not be selected because of their achievements (McLaren & Mills, 2008). Instead, winners may be selected based on what message is sent to the field and how the winner will reflect on the awarding organisation. The award is then less about recognising success and instead defines what success looks like for those who have not won (McLaren & Mills, 2008). When there are too many awards, dilution of prestige (Gavrila, et al., 2005) and impact of the award occurs, and the award provides diminishing returns (Rosenblatt, 2011).

Finally, there is a risk that little or no difference exists between winners and others which may erode the value of an award. Tollefson and Tracy (1983) found no difference between recipients of teaching awards and non-winners in self-reports of teaching behaviour. Ginsburgh (2003) found that movies considered for inclusion in a top 100 list some years after the movie release were not necessarily Oscar winners.

2.5.10 Facilitation

Facilitation of participants during the contest can encourage participants' contribution to an ongoing active community (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Facilitation may include professional facilitation, peer facilitation or a combination of both. The role of facilitation in business sector awards has not been identified in extent research.

2.5.11 Sponsorship

Sponsorship in the model by Adamczyk, et al. (2012) refers to "family, friends and colleagues, universities, national associations, specific industries, state and local education agencies" (p. 352). Sponsors might render financial or emotional assistance from outside the contest. In business sector awards, award organisers may be the award sponsor.

2.5.12 Contest phases

Contest phases refers to competition rounds where each round raises the elaborateness or level of accomplishment(Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Contest phases are determined by the structure of the competition, which furthermore affects the number of winners. For example, awards with state-based competitions where state winners later compete for a national title result in more winners. There are state winners and a national winner. Where there are multiple winners the awards may be seen as inclusive with fewer disappointed people at the end of the selection process (Jackson, 2006). At the same time, some exclusivity is maintained because there is a single final national winner. However, a one-off event may be more exclusive and therefore more valuable.

2.5.13 Replication

Replication refers to how frequently the competition is held (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). For example, competitions may occur annually. In the case of innovation awards, each replication may result in the same or different task or topic specificity.

2.5.14 Other elements of awards

Literature on awards identifies other determinants of awards that do not fit the framework posited by Adamczyk, et al. (2012). One dimension of awards that is missing from their framework is the award ceremony. Award ceremonies might be a part of the reward where the ceremony is a banquet and may include a spectacle or festival with bands and artists performing (Rothenbuhler, 1989). Awarding events might be considered a commemorative occasion and the most important calendar event for a particular industry. Formal awards ceremonies might involve noted individuals (Speck, 1994). For example, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award is traditionally presented to the award winners by the President of the United States of America (Chuan & Soon, 2000).

Public award ceremonies are an essential feature of awards (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). Ceremonies are a source of publicity, which affects the extent of the reward. Ceremonies and associated publicity provides social recognition and prestige to the recipient (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). Social recognition associated with awards comes from peers or the awarding organisation. Where the award is from an external organisation, the award ceremony may be the only form of social recognition.

Award ceremonies provide a symbolic medium for reward and acknowledgement of worth and professionalism, and those who receive recognition benefit from greater visibility, further commercial success and career longevity (Anand & Watson, 2004). Celebration of awards is important, particularly when a key benefit is that of self-promotion (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009). However, not everyone is a winner at such a ceremony, in fact, most are excluded from enjoying the benefit of winning (Anand & Watson, 2004) which may lead to a rise of fragmentation and conflict.

Other award elements not included in the framework by Adamczyk, et al. (2012) are feedback to participants. Feedback to successful and unsuccessful nominees has been identified as valuable (Jackson, 2006). The need for feedback is never ending and feedback from awards satisfies this need and may lead to an increase in the future quality of applicants.

In summary, the growing popularity of awards has resulted in increased interest from practitioners and scholars from different backgrounds such as sociology and economics. Awards have not been assessed from the point of view of understanding, creating and managing awards in business for an awards taxonomy. Such a categorisation offers value to awards and recognition programs (Borins, 2000) and has proved to be useful for managing of awards (Adamczyk, et al., 2012). Given there is no research to provide an awards taxonomy, the first study in this thesis aims to develop a taxonomy to describe awards. Such a framework aims to provide an inclusive understanding of awards by incorporating relevant components and processes. The first research question is:

1 **What award components and processes comprise externally-granted work-related awards for individuals?**

2.6 Reasons for awards

Institutions to consecrate individuals and even entire fields as worthy (Rossman, et al., 2010) use awards, prizes and honours. For some, medals and trophies are a legitimate measure of a person's worth (English, 2005). However, awards are used for other reasons and have different outcomes. Reasons for the existence of an award depends on the award, the industry and the awarding organisation.

Some individuals are said to have an innate desire to distinguish themselves from other individuals, an urge to be better than others (Frey, 2005). The need to feel appreciated is deeply ingrained in some people (Wiley, 1997). Individuals participating in an award seek approval from the relevant institutions that are legitimised to attribute this recognition (Bourdieu, 1993). The following section includes some examples of reasons for the existence of awards.

2.6.1   To incentivise and motivate

Several studies have addressed the effectiveness of different types of incentives. Peterson and Luthans (2006) found both financial and non-financial incentives have a significant effect on profit, customer service and employee turnover at the business-unit level. Meta-analysis by Stajkovic and Luthans (2003) indicate that both financial and nonfinancial incentive motivators have a positive impact on individual performance.

In general, awards are either direct or indirect incentives (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). As direct incentives, awards are announced ex ante and granted for a particular type of performance within a given period. An example is a customer service award granted for best customer service in a year. Awards may be indirect incentives when they encourage others to engage in like tasks, even if these individuals do not expect to win an award. A state order handed out for exceptional civil courage, such as saving lives, is one such award (Frey & Neckermann, 2008).

Eliciting the best performance possible from a workforce is an ongoing management concern. Traditional incentives in organisations include monetary compensation (Frey & Neckermann, 2013a) of which there is a large body of literature (Gavrila, et al., 2005). Awards are a form of extrinsic incentive and there are distinct differences between monetary compensation and awards bestowed in an organisation by management (Frey & Neckermann, 2013a) as shown in Table 4. As an extrinsic incentive, awards are of considerable importance and may partly compensate for lower income (Frey & Neckermann, 2008).

Table 4 Differences between awards and monetary compensation*

1. The material costs of awards may be very low, or even nil, for the donor, but the value to the recipient may be very high
2. Accepting an award entails a special relationship, in which the recipient owes (some measure of) loyalty to the donor
3. Awards are a better incentive instrument than a monetary payment when the recipient's performance can only be vaguely determined
4. Awards are less likely to crowd out the intrinsic motivation of the recipients than monetary compensation
5. Awards are not taxed, while monetary income is.

* Source: Frey & Neckermann, 2013a, p. 313

Awards often have a low material cost to management and at the same time are of a high value to individuals. Low material cost may be the price of a certificate or small trophy. The reason for the high value is that awards are of high visibility to others compared to individual compensation which is often a secret (Frey & Neckermann, 2013b).

The honour or prestige of an award can be a significant motivator (Frey & Neckermann, 2008; Gavrila, et al., 2005). One caveat is that if the award is given too many times, the award's prestige is diluted. Awards are a means to enhance an individual's intrinsic motivation (Frey, 1997). In contrast, monetary incentives crowd out an employee's motivation. There are two reasons awards are less likely to crowd out intrinsic motivation compared to monetary compensation (Frey, Homberg, & Osterloh, 2013). First, awards strengthen loyalty to the awarding organisation. Second, awards are perceived as supporting rather than controlling because ex-ante criteria are not specified. Ex-ante criteria are often vague and there is no incentive for employees to manipulate criteria to win an award (Frey & Neckermann, 2008).

Awards derive their motivating power from a combination of feedback, status and recognition (Neckermann & Frey, 2013). Winning an award leaves the recipient feeling good about themselves irrespective of monetary or status consequences (Frey & Neckermann, 2008). Awards as types of social incentives derive value from status, esteem, positive feedback and material benefits that result (Neckermann & Frey, 2013).

2.6.2 To reward and recognise

Awards are one type of reward that sit between extrinsic monetary-type rewards such as bonuses or stock grants on one hand and intrinsic development or empowerment-type rewards such as special projects or development plans on the other hand (Cacioppe, 1999). In the public sector, where it is harder to provide financial rewards compared to the private sector, awards are used to offer encouragement, incentivise and recognise (Rosenblatt, 2011). Recognition programs as formal organisational interventions specify how a person will be recognised, the type of behaviour encouraged and the manner of the acknowledgement (Markham, et al., 2002).

Awards directly address recognition and praise (Frey & Neckermann, 2013a). There is some overlap between reward and recognition programs and awards (Campbell-Allen, Houston, & Mann, 2008). Both have, as an outcome, desire to reward appropriate behaviour. Other areas of overlap include acknowledgement and praise, nomination process, positive impact on performance, and formal and informal, financial and non-financial recognition.

Using awards for recognition and encouragement is an attractive option for management because awards are relatively inexpensive and can be repeated frequently (Frey, 2007; Rosenblatt, 2011). Several studies show that formal recognition programs have an impact on employee performance (Frey & Neckermann, 2008; Markham, et al., 2002; Neckermann, et al., 2014). People value public recognition independently of any monetary consequence (Delfgaauw, et al., 2013). Awards for individuals serve to recognise (Daniels, 2000), sustain performance in an organisation, raise morale, motivate excellence and encourage team building and innovation (Borins, 2000). Organisers hope others will adopt the behaviour of winners. In so doing, awards act as indirect incentives when they create role models (Frey & Neckermann, 2013a).

2.6.3 To educate

Awards and prizes may be useful to engage and educate (Lindbeck, 1985). For example, prize organisers of the Turner Prize for art created the award to encourage the public to engage with modern art (Street, 2005). A prize in literature may encourage people to read an author or a topic they would otherwise never get to know. Awards may provide information to people such as politicians (for example, the Nobel Peace Prize), international peers (for example, a Michelin Star) or consumers (for example, an Oscar award for Best Picture). An award might help a consumer by reducing their risk

(Edelheim, et al., 2011). One example is where diners who are new to a restaurant use the Michelin star system as a signal of quality or a type of risk insurance premium (Gergaud, et al., 2007).

The aim of quality awards is to help disseminate good practice techniques and improve the quality of output (Hartley & Downe, 2007; Milakovich, 2004). Objectives of innovation awards in public service organisations include development, dissemination and replication of innovation in a sector not typically thought of as being pioneering or well paid for their creativity (Borins, 2001; Bovaird & Loffler, 2009; Straface, 2003). Awards that identify individuals may be useful when identifying high performance or excellence (Dunkin & Precians, 1992).

2.6.4 To publicise

Awards and prizes provide a (relatively) cost effective means of gaining publicity (Edelheim, et al., 2011; Frey & Gallus, 2015; McNaught & Anwyl, 1993), self-promotion (Milakovich, 2004) and increasing public awareness for an industry, an awarding organisation and an individual winner (Lindbeck, 1985; Rosenblatt, 2011; Street, 2005). Sectoral awards made by professional associations may be used to promote their own role as well as the sector and standards of the profession (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009). Public-service awards aim to improve public attitude toward the public sector (Borins, 2000), and to counter media criticism and hostility (Borins, 2001).

Where sponsors with commercial interests at heart are involved, awards may be only a mechanism for increased publicity (Street, 2005). The Glenfiddich award from The Glenfiddich Fiddle Championship is one example where the organisation behind the brand has no direct interest in music in this instance. The use of celebrity judges is another example where the aim is to garner media coverage (Street, 2005).

2.6.5 To legitimise

An industry may be granted legitimacy through the creation of a representative organisation and the creation of an awarding event (Anand & Watson, 2004; Schmutz, 2005). The creation of the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences is an example of a professional honorary organisation that has brought legitimacy to an industry through their awards (Anand & Watson, 2004). Awarding organisations or consecrating institutions and the authority they have determines the legitimacy of the consecration project or awards (Schmutz, 2005). Both the use of rigorous selection procedures to

select winners and the presence of objective differences in merit between winners and non-winners determines the legitimacy of the award (Allen & Parsons, 2006).

2.6.6 To convey a message or signal

Awarding organisations, industry and sponsors work together to create a particular type of event to signal quality and reach a designated market (Street, 2005). Organisations and individuals use awards to signal (Spence, 1973) who and what they are and their expertise (Edelheim, et al., 2011). Awards are a popular marketing tool that increases market visibility and promotes the reputation of award organisers (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009) and award winners (Hannon & Milkovich, 1996). In uncertain environments, an award serves as a signal that the award winner is of high quality and likely to survive in the long run (Wade, et al., 2006).

Awards exist for a variety of reasons as described above. While individuals may participate in an awards program to distinguish themselves, the creation of awards also satisfies the needs of organisations. Awards are used as a means to incentivise and reward individuals, to educate a market or to legitimise an industry. Both organisations and individuals use awards to signal their expertise by referencing an award win either in their marketing material or in their résumés respectively. The use of awards have consequences for both organisations and individuals. The impact of winning an award is discussed next.

2.7 Impact of winning an award

Awards can symbolise esteem and may be used as evidence of excellence (Best, 2008). An award may become a highlight of a winner's career. An award may result in demand for the winner (for example, for Academy Award winners) or a source of financial success (for example, for winners of book prizes). This section about the impact of winning an award addresses positive and negative outcomes resulting from an award.

2.7.1 The value of an award

As discussed in the section on signalling, the value of an award is determined by characteristics of the award organisation and the award (McLaren & Mills, 2008). Examples of these characteristics include reputation and independence of awarding organisations (Arthur & Cook, 2009), proliferation of awards in an industry, type of

award, extent of media attention (Balasubramanian, et al., 2005), and whether an award is internal or external from a peer group (Rosenblatt, 2011).

Most awards for individuals are unlikely to affect the individual's employer. Perhaps one exception is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Year award. A highly recognised CEO may reassure stakeholders that the firm's future is bright which might result in the hiring of quality employees, increased leverage over suppliers and better access to capital (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). However, little evidence has been found to support this argument and CEO certification does not appear to have either a positive or a negative effect on operating profits (Wade, et al., 2006). Other arguments in the literature suggests potential detrimental effects when star status CEOs display overconfidence and hubris (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997).

Awards provide practical tangible evidence of a skill or characteristic (McNaught & Anwyl, 1993). Awards convey expert opinions (Glejser & Heyndels, 2001) and therefore are particularly valuable when work rewarded is not easily identifiable by others (McNaught & Anwyl, 1993). An award signals expertise or quality to those with information asymmetry who do not know or understand the awarded work (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005).

Whether winners' value awards they receive at work or see awards as rewards is not certain. For some winners, awards may be motivating and a lifetime achievement (Frame, et al., 2006). While properties of some awards are distinguishable, the value of an award is a judgement made by the award winner (Appadurai, 1986). Impacts of awards from the individual winner's perspective are reviewed next.

2.7.2 Impact for individuals

Winning an Oscar may lead to fame, prestige, power or wealth for Oscar winners (Gehrlein & Kher, 2004). The awarding of an Oscar results in creation of "prestige hierarchies" (Anand & Watson, 2004, p. 76) and those who earn their peers' esteem receive more prestige and recognition (Levy, 1987). Wade, et al. (2006) posits that winning a CEO of the Year award may increase a CEO's "prestige power" (p. 645). The impact of being anointed as a star CEO influences personal outcomes and total compensation in particular. Besides research regarding CEOs who win an externally-granted award, research of award winners in business is limited.

For some, winning an award provides the ultimate recognition, for example Nobel Prize winners. Michelin stars offer "recognition of achievement and excellence"

51

(Surlemont & Johnson, 2005, p. 580). Professional recognition might be from peers, for example, the recognition from a nomination for an Oscar by members of each individual branch in the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences (Allen & Lincoln, 2004). As discussed, rewards as a form of recognition in an organisation is well studied (for example, Cacioppe, 1999; Gkorezis & Petridou, 2008). On winning an externally-granted award the extent of recognition from the winner's employer influences the boost in self-confidence an individual may experience (Frame, et al., 2006). However, Frame and colleagues also report that while more recent winners experienced greater levels of recognition they displayed lower levels of self-confidence.

Teaching awards offer positive personal and professional meaning to winners (Dinham & Scott, 2002). An award win gives individuals credibility and confidence and the process of the award provides opportunity for the individual to reflect on their professional development and obtain feedback. Teachers who received awards reported feeling proud and believed the award provided recognition not just to the individual, but also to the faculty, school and profession. With respect to career advancement, 41% of United States winners sampled in the study by Dinham and Scott (2002) experienced career enhancement attributable to teaching awards. In a study by Mackenzie (2007) winners of teaching awards reported feeling empowered.

Rosenblatt (2011) found the use of innovation awards for individuals was an incentive to recognise and encourage innovation, which had positive consequences. These effects included encouragement to complete work, tangible recognition of achievement, support for promotion, increased employee pride, increased support from others and the creation of heroes others wanted to imitate.

Furthermore, awards may be interpreted in terms of Merton's (1968) "Matthew Effect" where success breeds success. Merton observed that increasing recognition accrues for scientists who are of considerable repute and make particular scientific contributions. Merton quotes one award winner who reasons the world is peculiar because "it tends to give credit to [already] famous people" (p. 2). This suggestion of cumulative advantage addresses the accumulation of symbolic and material rewards and draws parallels with the winner-take-all market. In such markets, winners benefit disproportionately compared to nominees and get progressively better roles and better pay (Anand & Watson, 2004). Winning an award is a pleasant and positive experience for the majority of winners of teaching awards (Dinham & Scott, 2002). While personal and professional effects were mostly positive for winners of teaching awards, reactions

from others were mixed. Some recipients of teaching awards reported groups or individuals were uninterested, unsupportive and even displayed signs of jealousy and resentment (Dinham & Scott, 2002). These impacts – positive and negative – are examined in this thesis.

The impact of receiving an award is not always positive (Huggett, et al., 2012). Critics have referred to awards as a "form-filling exercise" (Chuan & Soon, 2000, p. 1072), a "token gesture … cosmetic and superficial" (McNaught & Anwyl, 1993, p. 10-11) and even the "kiss of death" (Sowell, 1990, p. 69). Awards are often portrayed as divisive, manipulative and demeaning (Dinham & Scott, 2002). Questions have been asked whether an award is a reward of a "millstone" (Frame, et al., 2006).

Effort and associated cost to participate in awards such as the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality award may be an issue (Gavrila, et al., 2005). The cost of consultants and entry fees are incurred in preparation for awards. There is a risk that effort or costs will outweigh benefits. Critics have claimed time and effort required to win an award may distract an organisation or individual from their core objectives (Borins, 2000). Or awards might be seen as an attempt to divert attention from issues like limited resources (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009; McNaught & Anwyl, 1993).

In the case of restaurant awards, evidence exists of negative consequences of receiving one or more Michelin stars (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005). Negative consequences include increased pressure and stress to perform at high quality levels, heightened expectations from clientele for quality food, increased prices, which impacts the ability to fill the restaurant. Downgrading of a restaurant impacts profitability and as discussed earlier, has even led to a restaurateur's suicide after losing a coveted award (Edelheim, et al., 2011). Furthermore, restaurants have renounced their award and at least one chef has refused to have his restaurant included in the Michelin guide (Gergaud, et al., 2007). Ambiguity that surrounds how restaurants are judged has consequences on some chefs' behaviour who have declared that a Michelin star should not be something aimed for (Surlemont & Johnson, 2005).

Rosenblatt (2011) found the use of innovation awards as an incentive to recognise and encourage innovation has negative impacts. Negative impacts identified include resentment particularly amongst those who thought they should win, undermining of team spirit when contributors were unrecognised and feeling unappreciated and de-motivated when criteria to win were vague. Heightened scrutiny

of an outstanding award winner may also be attached to heightened criticism (Kovacs & Sharkey, 2014).

As discussed, negative career impact of winning a Nobel Prize includes reduced productivity and quality of work that sometimes accompanies the distraction of increased publicity (Marshall, 2001; Samuelson, 2002). For CEOs, CEO of the Year leads to underperformance relative to prior performance and relative to a matched sample of non-winning CEOs (Malmendier & Tate, 2009). For teachers, teaching awards may be career limiting in that winners are labelled as teaching-focussed in a research-rewarded institution (Frame, et al., 2006). In public service organisations, it has been discovered that managers use awards as a means to increase their leverage and gain credibility (Straface, 2003). Awards may act as both an incentive and compensation for relatively low remuneration for those who participate from the public service (Bovaird & Loffler, 2009).

Scott Adams' cartoon character, Dilbert, describes employee recognition programs as being for junior or less well-paid staff while senior managers reap real rewards in the form of bonuses and stock options (Borins, 2000). As discussed, award-winning CEOs underperformed after winning Financial Times' CEO of the Year award (Malmendier & Tate, 2009). Some recipients underperform after receiving an award because they are distracted (Frey, 2007).

Some winners of teaching awards felt they had an image or reputation they needed to live up to (Dinham & Scott, 2002). Award recipients reported negative reactions from others, increased pressure, discomfort, jealousy and resentment (Mackenzie, 2007). Awards create resentment among staff because awards single out an individual, which may be counterproductive to team work.

The existence of an award program may produce more variability in performance according to Johnson and Dickinson (2010). Top performers have their behaviour reinforced after receiving a desired outcome for their performance and at the same time, remaining performers who do not receive desired outcomes reduce their efforts and their productivity decreases (Asch, 1990). With the passing of time, this gap increases.

Sales contests in organisations are examples of rank-order tournaments. Sales contests have been accused of rewarding short-term performance at the potential expense of long-term objectives and increased manipulative behaviours (Connelly, et al., 2014). Such behaviour might be less likely in externally-granted awards.

Another potential problem with awards is the use of vague criteria. For example, while the Michelin star rating system claims to reward consistent quality, the Guide Rouge, the awarding organisation, is purposefully vague with no written criteria or accreditation standards (Johnson, et al., 2005). The expectation is that vague criteria leads to increased creativity, individuality and avoids standardisation in the restaurant sector. When a winner is announced and criteria or systems of assessment are not known, the award may be no better than winning the lottery (Bazeley et al., 1996).

Internal revolving employee-of-the-month programs with vague performance criteria do not lead to enhanced or sustained performance (Johnson & Dickinson, 2010). There are three reasons for this underperformance. First, vague performance criteria do not provide an incentive to continue working hard after the award is received. Second, the award is not valuable. Third, performance expectations are unclear. Overall results are that typical employee-of-the-month programs are ineffective motivational tools and do not improve performance, even when there are additional incentives (Johnson & Dickinson, 2010).

Winning an award could lead to a "sense of triumphalism" (Borins, 2000, p. 334), a sense of superiority that could lead to stagnation and thus a weakened competitive position. Triumphalism that results from winning may lead a team or individual to stagnate which in the case of an organisation may impact competitive positions. For an individual, stagnation may result in subsequent underperformance (Borins, 2000). Individuals may become demoralised if they feel the winner was not the most deserving applicant or that the winner was the best at marketing their achievements (Borins, 2000). Winners, even if they are deserving, may be exposed to envy from their co-workers (Borins, 2000).

Researchers like Daniels (2000) argue against the use of awards for various reasons including the winner-take-all design that leaves non-winners feeling like losers. Awards have led to undesirable behaviour like sabotage. Frey & Neckermann (2008) in their field experiment at IBM found non-recipients substantially decrease their contribution even if there is a chance for them to win the same award at another time in the future.

Ginsburgh and Weyers (2014) recommended awarding organisations might rank the top five, for example, rather than picking an outright winner, because he found there was little difference in talent or quality between winners and nominees. In so doing, awarding organisations may become more reputable.

Arthur and Cook (2009) and Hannon and Milkovich (1996) found not all awards enhance an organisation's reputation or profitability. Similarly, teaching awards may have no significant impact on teaching effectiveness (Jacobsen, 1989). Yet despite all the issues with awards, being called "cosmetic" and without significant impact, an award scheme is considered valuable (McNaught & Anwyl, 1993).

2.7.3 Awards and careers

The role of an award from an external organisation on an individual's career has not been extensively studied. There are four studies of interest. First, Lincoln (2007), who studied Oscar nominees and winners, argues some awards are conceptualised as a career-relevant event. Second, a Nobel prize, the result of earlier labour and the pinnacle of achievement in scientific advancement, may be seen as a career promotion (Inhaber & Przednowek, 1976). Third, a study by Rosenblatt (2011) found winning an innovation award in the public sector could affect one's career in that it "makes it easier to be promoted" (p. 214). In contrast to the first three studies, in the fourth study winners of teaching awards experienced career blocks following their award (Frame, et al., 2006). Some of these teaching awards' recipients reported increased administrative responsibilities and less time for research (Huggett, et al., 2012).

Despite these four studies of awards from an external organisation, the value of such an award on an individual's career remains largely unstudied. Awards may be conceived as an event in an individual's career. How this award affects an individual's career is unclear. In the next section, careers and careers success is discussed.

2.8 Careers theory

The purpose of this section is to summarise major existing theories of careers and career development. The aim of this review is to identify how careers develop and how career success is perceived. Career definitions are outlined first and types of careers identified in the literature are examined. A range of career development theories are then considered. Because there are so many career development theories, only the salient theories relating to individuals' careers are discussed here. Theory related to career success is subsequently examined.

2.8.1   Career definitions and types

Much of careers research is influenced by early work by Super (1957) and the concept of a traditional structured career that is a "sequence of positions" (Super & Hall, 1978, p. 334) through the course of a lifetime. Careers have been seen as "a course of professional advancement… restricted to occupations with formal hierarchical progression" (Arthur & Rousseau 1996, p29). Careers may be defined as the interaction between an individual and an organisation or organisations over a period of time (Gutek & Larwood, 1987). The career may include different jobs within various organisations or a series of related jobs within one organisation.

Schein (1996) identifies both an internal and external definition of career. The internal career is subjective and describes where the individual is headed in their work life. The external career includes the formal roles defined by organisational policies and societal concepts of expectations of an individual in an occupation. Schein (1996) acknowledges the importance of understanding the subjective nature of careers and consequently the study of career success is included later in this review.

The focus in the last 20 years has shifted from long-standing career relationships to careers as more temporary transaction relationships between the individual and the organisation (Baruch, 2004). Careers were contextualised as stages such as organisational entry, establishment, advancement, middle and late career (Super & Hall, 1978). Careers are now the "unfolding sequence of any person's work experiences over time" (Arthur & Rousseau 1996, p. 30). Traditional organisational careers have been replaced with more flexible adaptive career forms.

In contrast to linear or climber careers that follow progressive steps upwards to positions of greater organisational authority (Sturges, 1999), contemporary models of careers are non-linear. Non-linear careers include boundaryless careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), protean careers (Hall, 1996), post-corporate careers (Peiperl & Baruch, 1997), kaleidoscope careers (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005), intelligent careers (Arthur, Claman, & DeFillippi, 1995) and the new organisational careers (Clarke, 2013). There is extensive research regarding both boundaryless and protean careers which will be discussed next, followed by examination of new organisational careers.

The boundaryless career is defined as "a sequence of job opportunities that goes beyond the boundaries of any single employment setting" (De Fillippi & Arthur, 1994, p. 307). Boundaryless careers may be the opposite of organisational careers (Arthur &

Rousseau, 1996) as boundaryless careers are not fixed within the boundaries of a single organisation, do not have an ordered progression, and have less stability (Briscoe & Hall, 2006). Traditional organisational careers are managed by the organisation (Hind, 2005). In contrast, in boundaryless careers, the individual is independent of organisational career arrangements (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). The "locus of responsibility" for an individual's career is transferred from the organisation to the "career actor" (Arthur, 1994, p. 304). Boundaryless careers incorporate loyalty to the individual's career or profession rather than to the organisation.

Boundaryless careers include both physical and psychological mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Career progression includes both lateral and vertical moves, which provides opportunity for learning and development and thus an increase in skills and experience. In this manner, the individual's employability is enhanced (Currie, Tempest, & Starkey, 2006). Success in the boundaryless career is generally associated with qualities relating to physical mobility, having transferable skills, demonstrating flexibility and adaptability, and engaging in professional networks (Inkson, 2006).

Protean careers are owned by the individual and may change regularly depending on the situation and the individual (Hall, 1996). A protean career differs from the traditional career (Super, 1990) by having less focus on the vertical climb up the corporate ladder that defines success. Instead, a protean career has a focus on the individual as the one experiencing the change (Baruch, 2004) who then reshapes and repackages their knowledge skills and abilities to meet the needs created in the changing work context (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Protean careers include learning stages (Hall, 1996) rather than only age related stages (Super, 1990). However, the protean career is considered a "mindset about the career" (Briscoe & Hall, 2006, p. 6) rather than a particular behaviour and there is more of a focus on psychological success that results from achieving important life goals (Hall, 1996). In the protean career the individual seeks to maintain employability and values flexibility, continuous learning and intrinsic rewards (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

New theory of careers (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999) accommodate the new economy of the late twentieth and early twenty-first century. This theory aims to address the issues that many careers do not fit traditional theories. The theory is based on a modified version of age-based career stage theory and consists of three key career stages which they refer to as fresh energy, informed direction and seasoned engagement. There are similarities between the aged link theories of Super (1957) and

Arthur et al.'s (1999) work. However, one key difference is that Arthur et al.'s first two stages may not be age related.

Careers theory outlined in this section are presented in order to highlight the existing related literature. Next, career development theories emerge from careers theory and are examined. Furthermore, there are a range of factors that have been shown to influence career development which will be assessed.

2.8.2   Career development

The development of a career involves transitions between different jobs within various organisations or related jobs within one organisation. Jobs ascend in a linear fashion through an organisation's structured hierarchy together with increased remuneration, responsibility and recognition (Gutek & Larwood, 1987). The more an individual's career progresses in this manner, the more it is judged successful. Career development is "for most people a lifelong process of getting ready to choose, choosing, and typically continuing to make choices from among the many occupations available in our society" (Brown & Brooks, 1990, p. xvii). Two theories that discuss career development are human capital theory and social capital theory. Both theories are interrelated and positively relate to career success (Lin & Huang, 2005). Human capital refers to an individual's quantity and quality of competencies, capabilities, knowledge, skills and behaviours (Davenport, 1999). Human capital theory posits that individuals invest in human capital by way of training and education to improve their competencies and future careers (Aryee, Chay, & Tan, 1994). Individuals with more human capital may develop professional expertise, increase productivity at work and receive positive rewards from organisations (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). Social capital theory suggest individuals gain social capital because when comparing themselves to others, the individual has more advantageous networks with access to a variety of people with potential for faster promotions and career success (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001).

Career development depends on a multitude of factors. There are three types of factors: organisational, inter-personal and personal. Organisational factors encompass workplace policies, organisational culture, and access to training and education. Inter-personal factors influence career development and include mentors and networks. Finally, personal factors relate to the individual and career development factors include

age and family background. These factors are potential predictors of career development and an explication of relevant theories is provided next.

Organisational factors

Researchers recognise the importance of organisational factors that impact individuals' careers. These factors include human resources practices (Jansen, et al., 2001), the organisational climate for learning (Park & Rothwell, 2009), education and training (Judge, et al., 2010), and person-environment fit (Ballout, 2007). Human resource practices such as flexible work arrangements impact careers (Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012). However, there are conflicting findings regarding whether flexible work choices are a source of career penalties or premiums. The organisational climate for learning assumes learning opportunities at multiple levels within the organisation including individuals, teams and organisations (Park & Rothwell, 2009). Opportunities for ongoing education in the organisation are positively related to career enhancing strategy (Nabi, 2000). The careers of individuals who attain more education and complete more job training ascend at a faster rate (Judge, et al., 2010). Finally, person-environment fit has been shown to be an antecedent of career enhancement and success (Ballout, 2007).

Interpersonal factors

Interpersonal factors that have potential impact on individuals' careers include mentors (Gayle Baugh & Sullivan, 2005) and networks (Ismail & Rasdi, 2007). Mentors have been found to provide both career and psychosocial support (Tharenou & Zambruno, 2001; White, Cox, & Cooper, 1997). For both men and women, career advancement is positively related to career and psychosocial support over time. More recent research finds mentoring is reciprocal and benefits both protégé and mentor (Ghosh & Reio, 2013).

Networking is another interpersonal factor that has been found to provide fast upward career mobility (Ismail & Rasdi, 2007; Linehan, 2001; Richardson & McKenna, 2014). Networks usually involve contacts for the purpose of mutual work benefits. Networks include both informal and formal relationships and may involve people inside and outside the organisation (Travers & Pemberton, 2000). Networks may lead to the exchange of professional advice, information and expertise, and involve friendship and social support.

Personal factors

Factors that impact career development that are related to the individual and their circumstances include age (Van der Heijden, et al., 2009) and family background (for example, Leslie, et al., 2012). Early research showed individuals make different career decisions at different ages (Super, 1957). Age as it relates to learning, motivation and career development is a focus of contemporary research (for example, Bertolino, Truxillo, & Fraccaroli, 2011; Feldman, 2007; Maurer, 2001). Some researchers recognise family background as a career development factor because work and personal lives are inexorably linked (for example, Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Burke, 2001; Litano & Major, 2015).

For the purpose of this thesis, another factor that has the potential to impact career development is an award win. An individual who purposively participates in an award may be an example of self-promotion and strategic career management behaviour (McIlveen, 2009). In this way, career management is an active process. On the other hand, an award win might be a chance event that is unplanned or unpredictable (Bright, Pryor, & Harpham, 2005). Unplanned events that influence career progress may be defined by chaos theory (Bright & Pryor, 2005). Chaos theory is a contemporary career development concept and includes a variety of elements that influence career progress ranging from a continuously changing environment to an unplanned meeting (Bright & Pryor, 2005).

The chaos theory of careers may account for the influence of chance, the unplanned and serendipitous event in an individual's career (Bright & Pryor, 2005). Chance events may occur more frequently than individuals' realise and there is opportunity to capitalise on these events to accrue positive benefits. One such opportunity which may accrue positive benefits may be an award win. An award win may be considered a single irregular event which, with its unpredictability as well as order, is at the heart of chaos theory (Bright, et al., 2005). Winning an award may impact an individual's career perhaps by being an external change or as a change in the individual's circumstances. However, the question of how an award win impacts a winner's career is unknown.

Beyond highlighting this research gap, the purpose of the second study in this thesis is to increase understanding of the impact of winning an external work-related award on an individual's career. Careers theory would suggest that winners who had

existing boundaryless or protean career attitudes would be more likely to promote their award win than those with traditional career attitudes. Winning a national, externally-granted award may be seen as a catalyst for a change in career direction for at least some award winners. Either acceleration in a traditional career trajectory or a transition from a traditional to a boundaryless or protean careers mindset in some winners may be anticipated. Since no research has examined this assumption, the first guiding research question in the study of awards and careers is:

2.1 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?

There are a number of reasons to study career success including the need for individuals to manage their own careers, the need for guidance on effective career management, and the importance and interest of individuals and organisations in career success (Wayne, et al., 1999). Employees' personal success can eventually contribute to organisational success (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). Career success is discussed next.

2.8.3 Career success

A career is judged successful when more linear progression occurs and is measured by objective measures such as salary, position or promotion. Career success is "the experience of achieving goals that are personally meaningful to the individual, rather than those set by parents, peers, an organisation, or society" (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 366) and "the real or perceived achievements individuals have accumulated as a result of their work experiences" (Judge, et al., 1995, p. 622). Career success research draws on career theory (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005) and has long been a topic of research (for example, Smith, 1927).

In the past, career success was measured using traditional measures such as linear career progression. Career success has changed as a result of the transformation of careers types. Now, lateral career moves are equally important as linear career progression (Brousseau, et al., 1996). In this manner, career moves support behaviours and values that are more in line with the values and requirements of more recent career types such as the spiral career, boundaryless, protean and portfolio careers. New

organisational careers are measured in terms of both subjective and objective measures of success (Clarke, 2013).

On one hand, career theorists focus on career success in terms of a person's organisational position or promotions (Arthur, et al., 2005). In these instances, indicators of career success that can be seen and therefore evaluated objectively by others are referred to as objective or extrinsic career success (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Objective career success measures include verifiable achievements such as organisational position or promotions and compensation (Arthur, et al., 2005). According to social comparison theory, where people compare themselves with others (Festinger, 1954), using salary level or the number of promotions are convenient means of comparison. Obtaining a higher salary or more promotions relative to others may enhance an individual's perception of success.

On the other hand, theorists identify the personal meaning of career success, which they call subjective or intrinsic career success (Judge, et al., 1995). Such indicators include career and job satisfaction. The subjective career is experienced directly by the person engaged in their career (Hughes, 1994). Subjective career success is measured through self-perception of achievements, future prospects (Dries, et al., 2008), recognition (Nabi, 1999), job satisfaction (Judge, et al., 1995) and career satisfaction (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990).

These perceptions of career success are important to understand (Sturges, 1999). Management stands to gain from enhancing their understanding of staff perceptions of career success for two reasons. First, management are in a better position to offer alternative career paths when hierarchical success is less available. Second, management are in a position to enhance staff motivation and commitment. Because of the perceived importance of career success, a range of variables related to career success has been studied (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Variables studied include demographics (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986), socio-economic factors (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991), cognitive and motivational factors (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1994), personality characteristics (Judge, et al., 1995), human capital variables like education and experience (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000), organisational sponsorship and intra-organisational factors like organisation structure (Judge, 1994). With respect to this thesis, an award win may be considered as an additional variable related to career success. However, the impact of such a variable on career success is unknown.

Career success is sometimes assumed to comprise of objective and subjective elements (Judge, et al., 1995). A brief review of career success literature pertaining to both objective and subjective career success follows. Rather than attempting an exhaustive account of the relevant literature, exemplars focus attention on how awards may relate and both strengths and limitations of methods of measure and operationalisation of career success.

2.8.4   Objective career success criteria

An award may be considered similar to other objective career success criteria such as pay and position in that awards can be measured by observable exoteric metrics (Judge, et al., 1995). Most empirical research on career success has focused on external measures (Dyke & Murphy, 2006). Early definitions of career success included salary level and job title (for example, Pfeffer, 1977). Similarly, more recent indicators of objective career success include salary, salary growth, job title and the number of promotions in one's careers (Ng, et al., 2005). Those who earn higher salaries and are promoted faster are typically regarded as more successful in their careers.

Studying objective criteria such as salary growth and promotions offer the benefits of this data being readily available in organisations and is efficient to collect through the organisation (Heslin, 2005). However, the relevance of these traditional indicators of career success has been questioned after decades of organisational change. For example, as discussed earlier, hierarchical progression via promotions in organisations have made way for the protean career (Hall, 1996). Protean careers include consultant, contractor and associate and these roles have proliferated (Cappelli, 1999). There is no clear indication of rank or status (Heslin, 2005) in these examples.

An award may be considered an indication of objective career success in the way a promotion is an indicator of objective career success. As a result, the second research question in the study of awards and careers is:

2.2   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

The importance of these traditional objective criteria of career success has been questioned because there are other outcomes people seek from their careers (Heslin, 2005). There is an increasing emphasis on examining subjective judgements someone

has of their career such as their career satisfaction (Ng, et al., 2005). Subjective career success criteria are addressed next.

2.8.5 Subjective career success criteria

Although most research regarding career success focuses on external, objective career success measures, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of internal or subjective measures as determined by the individuals' feelings about their accomplishments (Dyke & Murphy, 2006). Some researchers even suggest subjective success may be a more important determinant of perceived career success than objective success (Powell & Mainiero, 1993) . Subjective career success is a construct which exists in peoples' mind and has no boundaries (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). Subjective career success refers to individuals' perceptual evaluations of, and affective reactions to, their careers (Greenhaus, et al., 1990).

Subjective career success is most often measured through the assessment of either career or job satisfaction (Heslin, 2005). This measure is not without its limitations. Heslin (2005) points out it is possible to be satisfied in a job and dissatisfied with career progression prior to that job. Conversely, an individual may be dissatisfied in their current role and satisfied with their career progression. In addition, high job satisfaction may not result in subjective career success, particularly if the price paid is too high with respect to sacrifices made to family or health, for example.

Determination of a successful career may depend on whether the criteria against which the career outcomes are judged are personal standards or the standards and expectations of others (Heslin, 2003). These criteria are self-referent or other-referent criteria respectively. Self-referent criteria may include personal standards and preferences and these judgements about career success may vary (Heslin, 2005). Criteria may be subjective such as a career goal to feel masterful at work or to attain a work-life balance. Criteria may be objective such as a goal to be CEO by the age of 45. Irrespective of what other people do, an individual will experience career success if this goal is achieved.

By contrast, when career outcomes are compared to others and their expectations and achievements, these criteria are referred to as other-referent. Theory suggests people often evaluate their own success relative to the accomplishments of others (Heslin, 2005). As reported, social comparison theory occurs when an individual compares themselves with another to evaluate or enhance themselves (Festinger, 1954).

Social comparison is one source of self-evaluation information where other sources might include direct feedback and comparison with past selves as examples (Suls, Martin, & Wheeler, 2002).

The scope of the construct of subjective career success is broad. Gattiker and Larwood (1986) proposed a multi-dimensional model encompassing job success, interpersonal success, financial success, hierarchical success and life success. Other researchers have identified additional components of the construct. Examples include personal recognition, influence, accomplishment and achievement (Dyke & Murphy, 2006; Sturges, 1999).

Following on from subjective career success components and related literature, an award win may impact an individual's subjective career success measures. Therefore, the third research question in the study of awards and careers is:

2.3   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

Increasingly career success is measured by an individual's employability (Boudreau, Boswell, & Judge, 2001). One reason for the increased interest in employability is the increase in multi-employer and even multi-profession careers. Given the relationship between career success and employability, the next section includes an assessment of the literature regarding employability.

2.8.6   Employability and career success

The labour market has changed substantially in recent years with increasing demands for organisational adaptation as a result of globalisation and changes in technology (Berntson, Sverke, & Marklund, 2006). With an increasingly turbulent economy and considerable job losses in recent years there has been a decline in job security and an increasing recognition of the importance of remaining employable (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Forrier & Sels, 2003).

Employability, is defined as "an individual's chance of a job on the internal and/or external labor market" (Forrier & Sels, 2003, p. 106). Today, employees are more focused on increasing their employability through enhancing their career competencies (Wittekind, et al., 2010) and looking for potential opportunities for career

development (Smith, 2011). When individuals feel they are less employable than they would like, they participate in adaptive behaviours (Carver & Scheier, 1982) to gain control and advance their employability (Fugate, 2006). Employability facilitates identification and realisation of job and career opportunities (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008).

Employability has been considered from a variety of perspectives since the 1950s (Feintuch, 1955) including macro, meso and micro levels of the labour market (Berntson & Marklund, 2007). At the macro level, employability may help solve a government's unemployment issue (for example, McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005) and is a public policy matter (Hogan, et al., 2013). At the meso level, employability at the organisation level aims to optimally position staff and enhance competitiveness (Nauta, Vianen, van der Heijden, van Dam, & Willemsen, 2009). More recently, there has been a shift in focus from governments and employers' consideration of employability to the micro or individual's (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). This shift has coincided with significant changes in the economy and subsequent changes to employment arrangements (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). These employment changes have resulted in a shift in ownership and management of career development beyond the boundaries of one employer or organisation to individual employees (Kuijpers, Schyns, & Scheerens, 2006). If employability is the responsibility of the individual given changes in career management (Fugate, et al., 2004) and considering the definitions provided, it makes sense to consider individual strategies and characteristics that may influence employability.

Employability can be conceptualised as an individualistic theory where a person accumulates skills, reputation and connections to maximise their chance of finding employment internally with their employer or elsewhere in times of change (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Kanter, 1995). An individual's employability opportunities at different life stages, such as after graduation, have been an area of notable consideration and research (for example, Johnes, Taylor, & Ferguson, 1987; Krahn, Lowe, & Lehmann, 2002).

Employability is widely claimed to be built on a set of attributes and skills (for example, Iles, 1997; van der Heijden, 2002). Studies have identified high education levels and high job-related skills predict high perceived employability (Berntson, et al., 2006). Research has identified a positive relationship between employability, work engagement, life satisfaction (De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, De Witte, & Alarco, 2008) and career success (Lips-Wiersma & Mcmorland, 2006; van der Heijde & van der Heijden, 2006; Van der Heijden, et al., 2009). There is increasing evidence

individuals now focus on their own capital value and employability (Sullivan, 1999) as a result of changes in organisational structures and reduced job security. The new requirement is that individuals take control of their own careers (Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle, & Collins, 2001) and aim to remain employable across organisations (Sullivan, Carden, & Martin, 1998).

Focus on individuals' employability incorporates both internal and external job markets (Forrier & Sels, 2003). Internal employability may refer to the internal labour market in an organisation (for example, van der Heijden, 2002) or to maintaining a job or surviving organisational change (Berntson, et al., 2006). Employability may refer to the external labour market (for example, McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall, 2007) and re-entry into the job market after unemployment. As a result, employability could be seen as multi-dimensional depending on the angle the researcher assumes (van der Heijde & van der Heijden, 2005).

Conceptually, employability can be considered in terms of competencies (van der Heijde & van der Heijden, 2006), human capital (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007) and dispositions (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Van der Heijde and van der Heijden (2006) describe a competence-based approach to employability including five measurable components: occupational expertise; anticipation and optimisation; personal flexibility; corporate sense; and balance. Occupational expertise is a substantial element of what constitutes employability and is a significant factor for the success of an organisation. In their study of employees in a Dutch manufacturing firm, Van der Heijde and van der Heijden (2006) reported occupational expertise, anticipation, personal flexibility, corporate sense and balance all predicted income. Only anticipation, personal flexibility and corporate sense predicted promotions. As already reported, income and promotions are measures that are used to assess objective career success. Subjective career success measures were not included in Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden's study.

Rothwell and Arnold (2007) identify individual employability attributes including knowledge, skills and behaviour that lead to effective performance, resilience to respond to change, networks where contacts can provide information and support, and skills to search for a job and manage one's career. Employability is a result of both individuals and contextual determinants facilitated by human capital theory and dual labour market theory (Berntson & Marklund, 2007). Human capital theory refers to the

individual's resources such as education. Dual labour market theory suggests some individuals will find it easy to change jobs while others will not.

Fugate and Kinicki (2008) describe a psychosocial construct encompassing individual differences that prompt active adaption of employees to work environments. Instead of treating employability as a set of fragmented attitudes and skills, Fugate and Kinicki suggest employability be seen as a higher-order latent multidimensional construct. Fugate and Kinicki identify five critical dimensions of employability: openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and career identity. This conceptualisation has significant utility in the context of this research because of the strong focus on individual differences and behaviours. Thus, these dimensions and their relation to career success are described next.

Openness to changes at work

Openness to changes at work provides flexibility and adaptability in dynamic work and career environments (Fugate, 2006). Personal adaptability refers to an individual's openness to changes at work and flexibility with respect to uncertain situations and new experiences. Open individuals display a positive attitude and view a change as a challenge instead of a threat (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). This ability to adapt is determined by individual differences such as "optimism, propensity to learn, openness, internal locus of control and generalised self-efficacy" (Fugate, et al., 2004, p. 22).

Work and career resilience

Resilient individuals assess themselves in a positive light and are optimistic with respect to their work and career (Fugate, 2006). Positive self-evaluation often results in the assessment of career success, which is perceived as an outcome of personal ability and effort. Optimistic individuals have positive expectations and behave confidently with the result that they often identify opportunities and are persistent (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Optimism at work is a dimension of work and career resilience in Fugate and his colleague's initial theoretical structure of dispositional employability (Fugate, et al., 2004). Optimistic individuals are likely to perceive numerous opportunities in the workplace, view career changes as challenges and opportunities to learn, and persist in the pursuit of desired outcomes and goals.

Work and career proactivity

Proactive personality is a dimension of personal adaptability in the employability literature (Fugate, et al., 2004). Typical behaviours from individuals with a proactive personality include identification of opportunities, action, self-efficacy, self-direction, coping, displays of initiative and perseverance (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Proactive people select, create and influence work situations that enhance the likelihood of high levels of job performance and as a result they achieve greater objective and subjective career outcomes (Crant, 1995). Proactive people are more likely to actively manage their careers because they proactively gather information about the environment or information about their own career in the form of feedback (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Proactivity is positively associated with objective career success measures such as salaries and promotions and subjective career success measures such as job satisfaction (Ng, et al., 2005).

Career motivation

Fugate and Kinicki (2008) use London's 1983 definition of career motivation that it is a "multidimensional construct internal to the individual, influenced by the situation, and reflected in the individual's decisions and behaviors" (p. 620). According to Fugate and Kinicki, motivation relates to career goals and planning, and results in individuals who are more driven and persistent with respect to work (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Career motivation builds on the concepts of firstly learning goal orientation and secondly motivation control. A learning goal orientation leads to pursuit of learning opportunities for career development (Fugate, 2006). Individuals with a high learning orientation plan for their future, and pursue learning and training opportunities (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). Motivation control is the second concept on which career motivation is built. Employees with high motivation control are more motivated at work, persist when bored or frustrated and sustain effort when challenged (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997).

Career identity

Career identity, sometimes referred to as work identity, describes one's self-definition in the career context and may include goals, values, personality traits and interaction styles (Fugate, 2006; Fugate, et al., 2004). Career identity is shaped by motives and in particular, one's potential and desire to impress. Career identity may be independent of any one job or organisation (Fugate, et al., 2004). This construct is longitudinal in

nature as it connects past, current and future career experiences and aspirations (Fugate, 2006). When an individual defines themselves as employable they behave in a manner that is consistent with this self-belief (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). The importance of career identity has increased given the new career environment where individuals move across boundaries and between organisations (McArdle, et al., 2007).

Fugate and Kinicki (2008) suggest employability be considered as a higher order latent multidimensional construct, a second-order factor. Given the literature reviewed regarding both career success and employability, a further objective of this study of award winners is to examine the impact of award winners' self-reported perceptions of their employability on their perceived career success. The final research question is:

3   What impact does award winners' self-perceived employability have on their perceived career success?

Awards and employability

Employability awards for students, sometimes called skills awards, are used to encourage students to consider their own human capital and to participate in work experience and community activities (Watson, 2011). Various universities offer such awards as a form of reward and recognition (Norton & Thomas, 2009) which appears to be beneficial to students through enhanced employability and motivation (Muldoon, 2009). For example, the York Award has been running since 1998 at the University of York (Norton & Thomas, 2009). There are clear employability benefits enjoyed by award recipients. A further example includes recipients of the Derby Award at the University of Derby who experience greater commercial awareness, confidence and involvement in planning their personal development (Hutchinson & Dyke, 2008). Key benefits reported by students include access to potential employers through participation of different organisations in various aspects of awards (Norton & Thomas, 2009).

Employers believe a university award provides an indication of an individual's character, motivation, skills and experience (Muldoon, 2009), provides students opportunity to differentiate themselves (Norton & Thomas, 2009) and provides demonstrable experience and commitment to society and career (Watson, 2011). The process of applying for an award has benefits because of the reflection, self-evaluation

and articulation of relevant activities and accomplishments the nomination process requires (Watson, 2011). Some aspects of the award assessment process involve key elements of the job application process and as a result, participants benefit from having access to objective performance feedback from real organisations (Norton & Thomas, 2009).

2.9   Talented employees

Potentially related to both employability and career success, talent management has attracted research attention recently (Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Collings, Scullion, & Vaiman, 2015; Dries, 2013). Talented employees are referred to by various titles including high performers, peak performers (Oldroyd & S., 2012), high-flyers (Rhule, 2004), A-players, stars (Groysberg, Nanda, & Nohria, 2004), and high potentials (Burke, 1997; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). Researchers have argued that certain employees are more valuable than others (for example, Lepak & Snell, 1999), create disproportionate value and provide a competitive advantage through human capital (Lepak & Snell, 2002). High performers are sometimes considered a specific group with different needs, motivations and behaviours compared to regular employees (Pepermans, Vloeberghs, & Perkisas, 2003). Despite this, no difference was found in IQ or personality between star performers identified through performance ratings and merit awards and other employees at Bell Lab (Kelley & Caplan, 1993). Instead, work strategies like taking initiative and networking were responsible for star performance.

Often it is through the performance appraisal process that senior management identifies high performers (Pepermans, et al., 2003). Some challenges regarding identification of talent include the potential for bias (selecting someone similar to you), lack of diversity of individuals tasked with identifying talent, different definitions of potential and organisational politics (McDonnell, 2011). Risks of identifying talent include the potential for internal competition to develop at the expense of a team environment, demotivation for people not identified as potentials, a possible drop off in interest in challenges and more of a focus on looking important after an individual learns they are regarded as talent (McDonnell, 2011). Alternatively because the title of high performer is not guaranteed from one year to the next, some employees may feel more pressure to maintain the status of being a high performer and often feel the need to outperform, leading to greater stress (Slan-Jerusalim & Hausdorf, 2007).

Talent management is often viewed as "the attraction, selection, development and retention of so-called 'high potential' employees" (Dries, 2009, p. 1). There are several reasons for the increase in the importance of talent management. These reasons include a more complex economy that now exists requires more sophisticated talent, an increase in small and medium size businesses has resulted in more competition for the same talented people large organisations are interested in, and an increase in job mobility that has resulted from the increase in competition (Chambers, Foulton, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, & Michaels, 1998). Three distinct areas of talent management have been identified and include well-recognised human resource practices and activities, human resource planning including succession planning, and focus on talent, high performing and high potential talent (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Talent management research has mostly focused on talent at the organisational level rather than at the individual level with the result being little is known about the expectations of individuals identified as talent (McDonnell, 2011). There is significant research into talent management (for example, Ashton & Morton, 2005; Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Garger, 1999; Silzer & Church, 2009) and multiple definitions of talent exist as a result of this scholarly attention. Despite these many definitions, winning an award has not been considered an indicator of talent although awards are signals of excellence (English, 2005).

2.10   Research questions summary

The research questions identified through the review of the literature are restated here. The first research question raised after assessing the awards literature with respect to awards components and processes is:

1   What award components and processes comprise externally-granted work-related awards?

Research question 1 is addressed in Chapter 3.

Subsequent literature examined related to careers theory, career development and career success. In the study of careers, there are three career-related questions. They are:

2.1   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?

2.2   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

2.3   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

Research questions 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 are addressed in Chapter 4.

Finally, award winners' self-perceived employability and career success is considered. In the final study, the research question is:

3   What impact does award winners' self-perceived employability have on their perceived career success?

Research question 3 is addressed in Chapter 5.

Chapter III: Awards structure and processes

As reported earlier, a description and detailed understanding of awards components and processes is useful at the outset of this research. This chapter describes the creation of the awards taxonomy. In section 3.1, the justification for the study is discussed. Section 3.2 is devoted to the research methodology used in this study. Data collection involved document analysis and semi-structured interviews with awards experts. The data collection and subsequent analysis is presented in sections 3.3 and 3.4 respectively. Results of this study and the awards taxonomy is provided in section 3.5. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the findings in section 3.6. The structure of this chapter is visually represented in Figure 5.

Figure 5 Outline of Chapter 3

3.1	• Justification for the study
3.2	• Research methodology
3.3	• Data collection
3.4	• Data analysis
3.5	• Results
3.6	• Discussion
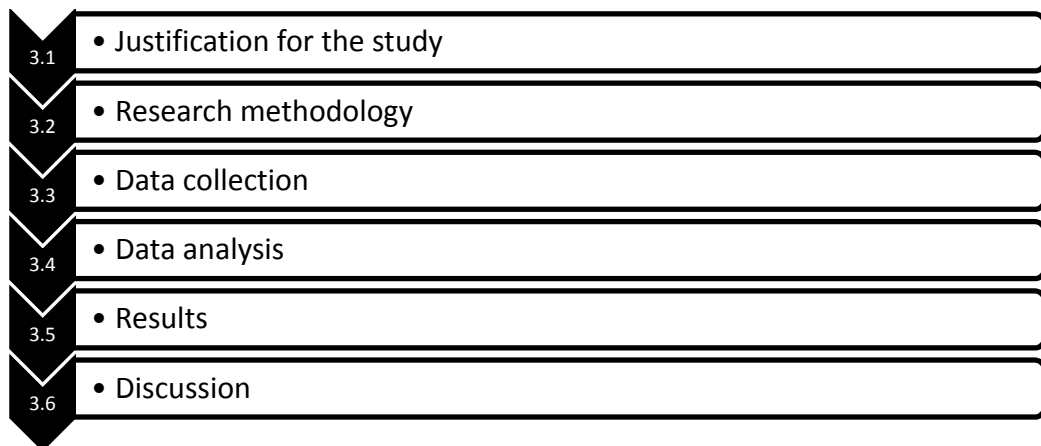
3.1   Justification for this study

As discussed in Chapter 2, the growth of awards is unquestionable. Awards in business have increased and a large amount of time and effort is expended on participation. Awards have become an incentive system that symbolically and economically rewards recipients and award issuers (Best, 2008; Frey, 2007). Individuals use awards to help stand out from their competition despite a relative lack of information about award quality or value. For recruiters and business managers looking to hire, often little is known about the quality or value of specific awards and how an individual came to win an award. In some instances, little is known regarding the nomination and submission procedures, the extent of the competition or the evaluation of nominees. While an award may be seen as a signal of performance excellence (English, 2002), in business there is

little guidance available for a reader to interpret that signal. The imprecise value of an award leads to awards that seem indistinguishable from each other. Understanding awards with a value that is to some extent a result of the reputation of the award is an important research gap to address (Gavrila, et al., 2005). In this first study, components and processes of externally-granted business awards for individuals are identified. The first research question is:

1   **What award components and processes comprise externally-granted work-related awards?**

Several boundary conditions are used for the research in this study. Awards for groups, teams and organisations are excluded and the focus is on awards for individuals. Hall-of-fame awards, lifetime awards and honorary memberships or fellowships are excluded to focus on awards bestowed to a person in the early part of their career. Awards for long-standing or lifetime achievement often occur later in an individual's career and may not be expected to impact on the award recipient's career. For this reason, awards for long-standing lifetime achievements have been excluded from this research.

In this study, award components and processes are identified and presented in an awards taxonomy. Taxonomies foster improved description and understanding of a topic (Fleishman, Quaintance, & Broedling, 1984) and facilitate identification and distinction amongst an array of dimensions (Chiang & Birtch, 2005). In their simplest form, taxonomies are systems that are used to name and organise things. In business, taxonomies fulfil different needs such as the retrieval, organisation and sharing of data, information and knowledge (Serrat, 2010). Taxonomies are useful to compare and contrast phenomena against each other (Rich, 1992).

The awards taxonomy provides a framework to allow comparison and contrast of different awards. The awards taxonomy is based on components and processes of awards for individuals in business. The taxonomy of externally-granted, national, work-related awards for individuals helps illustrates different ways in which awarding organisations typically combine components and processes such as nomination requirements and judging processes. Understanding the relative importance of different award characteristics is important for practitioners designing and implementing an award system. The taxonomy may be used by awarding organisations to model and

compare their awards and potentially to improve processes and resultant value of an award. The taxonomy is designed to provide further understanding of the increasingly important role awards play in the business sector. In the next section, the research methodology used in this study is explained.

3.2 Research methodology

In this section, the research methodology is addressed. First, the research paradigm is described and the adoption of pragmatism is justified. The research method is then outlined.

3.2.1 Research paradigm

Traditionally, two main paradigms or worldviews, positivism/postpositivism and interpretivism/constructivism, are described as being fundamentally opposed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). A positivist approach underpins quantitative research methods and uses objective and value-free inquiry. A constructivist approach favours qualitative research methods, uses subjective inquiry and inherently argues there is no such thing as a single objective reality. Research which integrates quantitative and qualitative research strategies, mixed methods research, is an alternative framework (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). The approach most commonly associated with mixed methods research is pragmatism (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Pragmatists use both quantitative and qualitative research methods for a more comprehensive examination of an idea or issue compared to using only one method (Bryman, 2006). The use of both quantitative and qualitative methods is appropriate where research is in its early stages as is the case with this research of awards for individuals in business. Therefore, pragmatism is the research paradigm adopted.

The study in this chapter uses qualitative research methods and is illustrated in Figure 6. In the next section, the research methods used in this study of components and processes of awards for individuals in business are described.

Figure 6 Research studies in Chapter 3

Chapter 3	**Awards taxonomy** Qualitative research Document analysis of 230 docs	**Awards taxonomy** Qualitative research 10 Confirmatory interviews
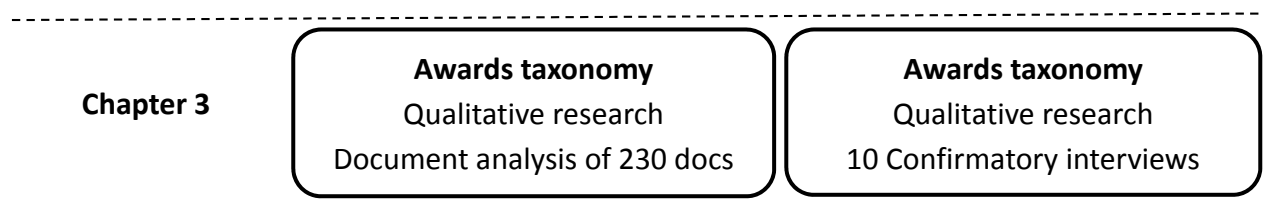
3.2.2 Research method

In this section, research methods in this first study are explained. Qualitative research methods are used and benefits and limitations of qualitative research are described. Document analysis and semi-structured interviews are then explained.

The aim of this study is to understand awards' components and processes. To achieve this aim, externally-granted awards for individuals in business are compared and contrasted. Because of the limited existing research on awards, an inductive approach is adopted and qualitative research methods are used. Qualitative methods are employed because qualitative methods are more likely to provide new insights into contemporary events in a real-life context (Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2005). Including qualitative methods as part of a research design allows the researcher to explore relationships between constructs of interest and to probe for deeper meaning and for exceptions (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). When used appropriately, qualitative research methods are thought to provide "deeper insights into the research area than is possible only using quantitative methods" (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2008, p. 650).

This study of externally-granted awards for individuals was conducted using two research methods. Using document analysis, awards data that was collected was examined. Semi-structured interviews with individuals with awards knowledge and experience running awards were conducted. These two data methods are discussed next.

Document analysis

In this section, document analysis is described and advantages and disadvantages of data collection for document analysis are identified. The systematic collection, review and evaluation of documents may serve different purposes in research including context and background information (Bowen, 2009) and may inform the generation of interview questions. Each document is considered as a container for content and is approached as a source of information (Prior, 2008).

Document analysis is advantageous because it is versatile and can be applied to a wide range of texts. Document analysis can incorporate printed and electronic material (Bowen, 2009). Further advantages of document analysis include efficiency and availability of content in the public domain and that documents remain unaffected by the research process (Bowen, 2009).

There are some disadvantages of using document analysis. Documents with insufficient detail are problematic. Documents may be available only to some

individuals such as, in this context, awarding organisations' members. In both instances document completeness is at risk and a complete understanding of the context is not gained in such a situation (Bowen, 2009). Interviews with individuals who are knowledgeable of the documents may address these limitations. These interviews are described next.

Semi-structured interviews

In this section, the use of elite interviewing is justified. Benefits and risks associated with elite interviews is presented. Then identification and recruitment of experts is reported. Finally, data collection from the interviews is described.

Elite interviewing, a technique borrowed from political and social sciences, is appropriate when interviewees should be treated as an expert about the topic (Leech, 2002). Elite interviews provide an opportunity to inform or even teach the researcher about the particular area under enquiry (Dexter, 1970). Furthermore, experts or specialists may inform and clarify findings from other studies and guide subsequent research steps (Goldstein, 2002).

Elite interviews may entail a semi-structured approach and open-ended questions (Aberbach & Rockman, 2002). Interviews in this format allow respondents sufficient latitude to articulate their answers fully. Semi-structured interviews offer flexibility because new questions may be asked or the interview focus may change depending on the context (Gibson & Brown, 2009). Flexibility is important in initial research stages.

One risk with elite interviewing is nonresponse bias (Goldstein, 2002). Nonresponse bias occurs when, for example in this context, an awarding organisation or an award expert cannot be contacted or is not willing to be interviewed (Berry, 2002). A further risk with interviews with this particular population is their potential inability to be critical of their own work. In explaining what they do, some individuals may feel a need to justify their own role. These risks are addressed in the current study by including in the analysis as much material from other sources as possible.

In summary, qualitative research methods are used to achieve the aim of developing an awards taxonomy. Document analysis and semi-structured elite interviews are two research methods employed. These two research methods are shown in Figure 7. Data collection is described next.

Figure 7 Research methods used in the taxonomy creation

Stage 1 → Document analysis

Stage 2 → Confirmatory elite interviews

Stage 3 → Awards taxonomy
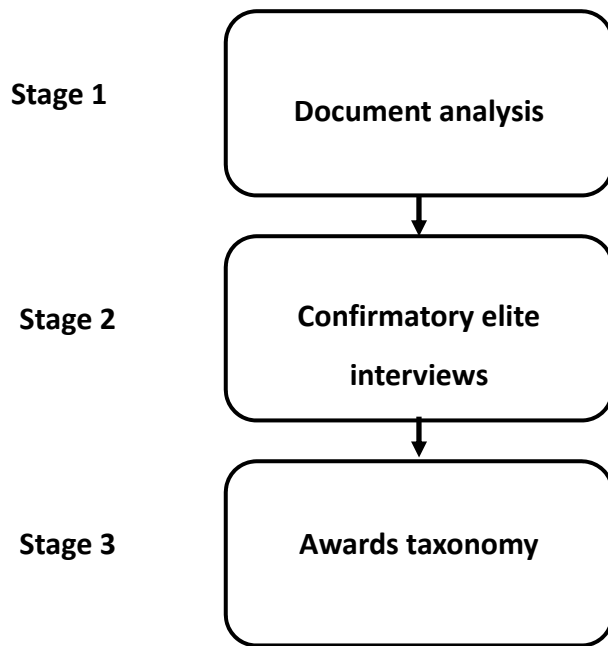
3.3 Data collection

In this section, data collection in the current study is reported. Identification of awarding organisations and awards is described first. Data collection for the two stages of research, document analysis and semi-structured interviews, is then described.

3.3.1 Identifying awarding organisations

In the absence of a comprehensive list of national awards, the first aim of data collection in this study was to identify awarding organisations for inclusion in the taxonomy. Awarding organisations that represent professionals in business were first identified. The term *professional* is the name given to those who "profess to know better than others the nature of certain matters" (Hughes, 1963, p. 656). Hughes applied the term to the professions of divinity, law, medicine and the military profession. Today the definition of a profession is broader. According to Professions Australia, the national organisation of professional associations, a profession is:

> A disciplined group of individuals who adhere to ethical standards … possessing special knowledge and skills in a widely recognised body of learning derived from research, education and training at a high level, and who are prepared to apply this knowledge and exercise these skills in the interest of others (http://www.professions.com.au)

There are 27 member organisations in Professions Australia and these professions extend beyond divinity, law, medicine and the military. Member organisations and associations of Professions Australia are presented in Table 5 as well as an indication of their inclusion in this study and the type of awards they bestow.

Table 5 Member organisations and associations of Professions Australia

- Audiological Society of Australia*
- Australasian College of Health Informatics**
- Australasian Institute of Mining and Metallurgy
- Australian Computer Society
- Australian Council of Security Professionals**
- Australian Dental Association
- Australian Dental Council**
- Australian Institute of Building Surveyors**
- Australian Institute of Radiography
- Australian Medical Council**
- Australian Nursing and Midwifery Accreditation Council**
- Australian Pharmacy Council**
- Australian Sonographers Association
- Australian Veterinary Association*

- Certified Public Accountants (CPA) Australia
- Engineers Australia
- Health Information Management Association of Australia**
- Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia
- Institute of Management Consultants**
- Institute of Public Accountants**
- Migration Institute of Australia**
- Records and Information Management Professionals Australasia
- Safety Institute of Australia*
- Speech Pathology Australia
- The Dietitians Association of Australia
- The Pharmacy Guild of Australia**
- Urological Society of Australia and New Zealand*

* **Association bestows awards for lifetime contribution, fellowship, or honorary membership**
** **Association does not bestow national individual awards**

3.3.2 Identifying national awards

Websites for the professional associations identified above were searched for information about awards. Those associations that provide awards to individuals at a

national level were identified. This information is available on the associations' websites. Of the 27 professional organisations 15 offer awards to their members.

A small sample size of this nature is not an issue in qualitative research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). However, including different awarding organisations not listed as *professional* demonstrates maximum differences which may test the validity of the initial framework (Creswell, 2009). Inclusion of diverse awarding organisations allows identification of common patterns and invites comparisons. For this reason, the definition of awarding organisations was extended to include representative bodies, publications, government organisations and not-for-profit organisations.

The additional awarding organisations included in this study are not members of Professions Australia but still meet the definition of a profession as described earlier. An additional 47 awarding organisations were identified from general media such as newspapers and industry publications. In total there are 62 awarding organisations and they are listed in Appendix 1.

Of the 62 awarding organisations there are 42 professional associations representing individuals in sectors such as engineering, architecture, human resources and marketing. There are four government organisations. Three of these organisations address health and safety in the public sector. The fourth organisation provides education and training in medicine. There are 14 media companies who publish periodicals. Cirrus Media who publish Lawyers Weekly is one example and the Australian Financial Review who publish BOSS magazine is another example. One publicly listed company, Telstra, with a long-standing and well-known awards program was included. One not-for-profit organisation, HESTA, was included. HESTA is a superannuation fund with five prominent awards schemes.

Data collection occurred between January 2013 and September 2013. Data was collected in two stages as depicted in Figure 8. In the first stage, documents from 62 awarding organisations were collected and analysed. In the second stage, interviews were conducted with ten individuals with extensive experience in awards and who were working with or for awarding organisations. Semi-structured interviews confirmed and expanded the understanding of awards' components and processes. These two stages are discussed next.

Figure 8 Data collection stages in the taxonomy creation

Stage 1

> **Document analysis**
>
> Content analysis
>
> 62 awarding bodies

Stage 2

> **Confirmatory interviews**
>
> Semi-structured
>
> 10 elite interviews

Stage 3

> **Awards taxonomy**
>
> Components
>
> Processes
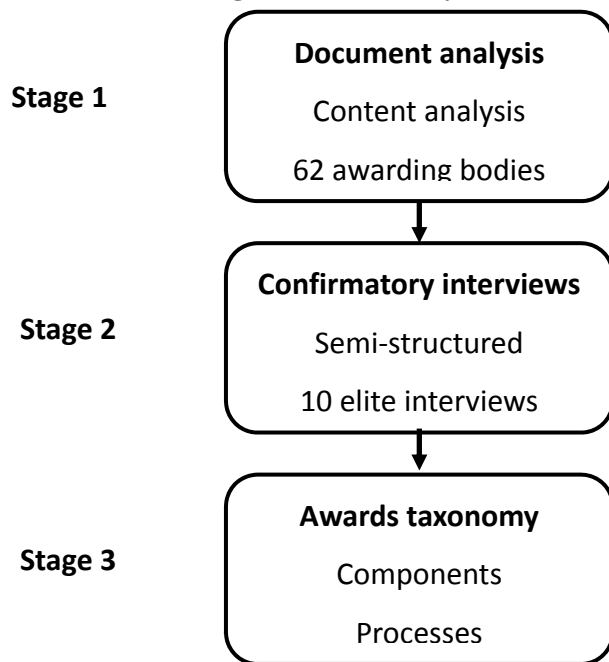
3.3.3 Stage 1 - Document analysis

Documents that described and explained awards' components, processes and management were collected. Relevant data was identified through searching each awarding organisation's website. Documents were saved to a local computer. To manage the documents, data analysis software, NVivo 10.0 (QSR International) was used. Collected documents were organised in an NVivo project and stored under the awarding organisation's name.

Documents collected included awards advertisements from popular and industry press, application information detailing eligibility criteria and application processes, nomination forms including additional requirements for supporting evidence, rules and regulations, award event programs, brochures, press releases calling for nominees, press releases after winner announcements, winners' biographies and interviews provided by awarding organisations, and other sundry marketing material. There were 230 electronic documents that ranged from one to 116 pages.

3.3.4 Stage 2 - Confirmatory interviews

In addition to the variety of data collected, interviews with experts from awarding organisations were conducted. Inclusion of interviews provides opportunity to address challenges and issues associated with the document analysis discussed earlier. Documentary research and other forms of data collection like interviews often occur in

conjunction with each other as a means to cross-validate or triangulate data or to provide further insights into the material (Gibson & Brown, 2009). In this section, recruitment of experts for the semi-structured interviews is described.

Identifying and recruiting participants

Elite interview participants were representatives from awarding organisations, organisers and judges. From the 62 awarding organisations identified in the document analysis, ten long-established awards were identified and experts in the awarding organisation were approached by telephone or e-mail. Ten individuals who were considered experts because of their involvement and intimate knowledge of awards were interviewed. Table 6 lists participants included in this stage. Organisations and interviewee names have been replaced with organisation and identifier codes respectively for confidentiality and anonymity purposes as per the university's research ethics procedures. Although a small number of interviews were conducted, qualitative methodology is known for its ability to create in-depth knowledge from a relatively small sample (Patton, 2002).

Table 6 Elite interview participants

Organisation code	Identifier code	Expert's role
Org01	Elite01	Awards Consultant
Org02	Elite02	Award Convenor
Org03	Elite03	Director, National Public Affairs
Org04	Elite04	Patron and Judge
Org05	Elite05	Executive Officer
Org06	Elite06	Director, Communication and Marketing
Org07	Elite07	Communications and Events Manager
Org08	Elite08	Human Resources Manager
Org09	Elite09	Awards Director
Org10	Elite10	Associate Editor

Interviews

There were ten semi-structured interviews conducted with participants who were geographically dispersed around Australia. Four participants were located locally and interviews were conducted face-to-face. The remaining six interviews were conducted by telephone. At the start of each interview, participants were provided with a consent

form (see Appendix 2) as per Macquarie University's research ethics procedures. Interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured. Interviewees were asked for permission to record the dialogue to provide accurate recollection of information.

The aim of the interviews was to understand the awards' components and processes from award organisers' perspectives. Questions focused on each step in the awards process. Where questions had been addressed in the document analysis these answers were confirmed and checked for understanding. An example of such a question is "Who judges the applicants?" Documents from an awarding organisation's website typically do not include information about how judges are selected. Appendix 3 lists starter questions used to guide elite interviews in this study.

3.4   Data analysis

In this section, analysis of qualitative data in this study is outlined. Qualitative data analysis in section 3.4.1 provides an overview of the analysis conducted. Preparation of the interview data is described in section 3.4.2, and data storage and organisation is explained in section 3.4.3. Subsequent data coding and analysis is then reported in section 3.4.4.

3.4.1   Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis can be thought of as assembling a jigsaw puzzle (LeCompte, 2000). Analysing qualitative data has been described as a demanding and repetitive exercise and requires the researcher to be intuitive and creative and to be able to think, reason and theorise (Buchanan & Jones, 2010). The aim of data analysis is to find meaning in the information collected by way of systematic arrangement and presentation of information. Searching for ideas in the data involves iterative key steps including organising the data, immersing in the data, identifying items of interest, coding, discovering themes, developing propositions, refining themes and propositions, and reporting findings (Richards, 2009).

3.4.2   Interviews

Both in preparation for and as a part of analysis, interview data was transformed through transcription. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) describe transcription as an "interpretive qualitative process" (p. 177) and as such can be considered a part of the

analysis process. Each interview was played back to review and edit transcriptions for accuracy and to remain as true to the conversation as possible (Bazeley, 2007). This step to ensure accuracy provides the added advantage of reliving the interview and allows "the social and emotional aspects of the interview situation [to be] present or reawakened" (Bazeley, 2007, p. 180).

3.4.3 Data storage and organisation

NVivo 10.0 (QSR International) was used to organise, group and retrieve interview transcripts and the content from documents collected from awarding organisations' websites. Electronic storage of data allows easy access for both analysis and the use of quotes to provide further empirical support. Software such as NVivo is beneficial in the process of data analysis as it allows greater accuracy and transparency (Welsh, 2002) and faster and more comprehensive inquiry into the data (Basit, 2003). However, using software does not remove the need for researchers to do the analysis themselves. Researchers are still required to decide how to code and conceptualise the data (Bourdon, 2002).

3.4.4 Data coding and analysis

Directed content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) was used in this study and guided the way data coding was conducted. Directed content analysis can be used to validate or extend conceptually a framework or theory. Existing research helps focus the research and related coding. Existing research can provide predictions about the variables of interest or about the relationships among variables (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In so doing, the initial coding scheme or relationships between codes is determined.

Existing research of awards and associated frameworks (for example, Adamczyk et al., 2012) were used to identify key concepts or variables as initial coding categories. Coding of data in documents and interview transcripts used these initial coding categories. Examples of these codes include terms related awards processes such as *nomination* and *judging*. Where data could not be coded at one of the initial coding categories the data was identified and analysed later to determine if the data represented a new category or subcategory. An example of a new code is *judges' recruitment* for the way judges were engaged by award organisers.

Analysis of data that did not fit initial coding categories was descriptively coded (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To ensure coding was inclusive, rich examples were coded

to more than one category. An example of this coding was the inclusion of information about judges in codes for both judging information and judges' recruitment.

Coding proceeded while new data was still being collected and new themes and concepts emerged. Analysis of qualitative data is not separate from the process of collecting data, and integrating these two processes is one of the strengths of qualitative research (Richards & Morse, 2007). Patterns and possible themes emerged from the beginning and informed subsequent data collection. An example of a new theme that affected data collection was the decision to include awards from industry publications. Although data collection had started, the decision was made to include awards from publications. The aim of including an industry publication was to provide variation beyond the professional industry organisation where professionals traditionally receive awards. After all data was collected, a final coding pass provided the opportunity to deliberate and assess similarities and differences of awards, scope and variety, and the structure of the taxonomy.

3.5   Results

The aim of this study was to develop a taxonomy to describe externally-granted business awards for individuals. The taxonomy provides a means with which to study, measure and compare awards. Further, the taxonomy may assist the study of the impact of winning an award. Results are presented next. First, types of awarding organisations and awards included in this study are described. The role awards play and the benefits to the awarding organisation are presented. Then, the taxonomy is provided to identify components and processes which distinguish awards. Results from the document analysis are attributed to awarding organisations because this information is publically available. Results from elite interviews are de-identified as per Macquarie University's research ethics procedures.

3.5.1   Awarding organisations

As described earlier, awarding organisations in this thesis were professional associations (44), media companies (11), government organisations (4), one publicly listed company (Telstra), and one not-for-profit organisation (HESTA). Professional associations have self-selected fee-paying members who are professionals in a particular sector or discipline. Often, these associations are independent and not-for-profit. Some associations have independent branches in each state or territory while

others are managed from a central location. The aim of many associations is to develop, maintain or promote a professional practice at a national level with objectives such as developing knowledge and providing standards or codes of practice. Professional associations may offer programs of activities such as conferences, workshops, publications, industry programs, training courses, networking opportunities and awards for individuals, teams or organisations. An example is the Australian Institute of Architects.

Other awarding organisations may be media companies. These media companies publish daily, weekly or monthly newspapers and magazines whose target readers are from a specific profession or industry. An example is media company IDG Communications whose market is the information technology sector. IDG's publications include CIO and Computerworld.

Some government departments or agencies monitor the operation of different federal Acts of Parliament and offer similar programs to those offered by professional associations. These types of government authorities address health and safety in the public sector and bestow annual awards. An example is Comcare Australia, a statutory authority.

Two additional organisations in this research are Telstra, Australia's largest telecommunications and media company, and HESTA, an industry superannuation fund. Both organisations conduct national awards programs that are well known in their respective industries. These organisations have been included to demonstrate maximum differences. Including diverse awarding organisations may test the validity of the initial framework (Creswell, 2009), allows identification of common patterns and makes comparisons possible.

Most awards are bestowed annually. In some instances, awards are made every two years. In some industries awards have a long history. The oldest awards in this study were bestowed by Records and Information Management Professionals Australasia and began in 1967.

Reasons awards exist

Awarding organisations claim to establish and use awards programs for different reasons. There are 18 awarding organisations that identify education of the participating individual or a wider audience as a reason for the award. Awards are an opportunity to "learn from positive initiatives" (SeaCare), "challenge concepts of the current and future vision of the industry" (Association of Sales and Merchandising Companies Australasia), "cultivate the skills of the future generations of executives" (National Retail Association) and "develop high public awareness and understanding of the importance of the challenges facing architects" (Australian Institute of Architects). One awarding organisation expert believes awards are for "broadening the scope" of what their professionals have always done historically and encourages them to "think outside the box" for long-term benefit for the profession (Elite03)[1].

Awards may exist for the benefits provided to awarding organisations. For some organisations, awards are an important event and a "multi-million dollar line item" in their financial reports (Elite06). Tangible benefits include an increase in membership and member activities. Conversely, awards may be used at a strategic level. Organisations use awards to position themselves:

> [The industry] as a profession tends to be traditional and it's the people who do exceptional things we like to recognise.... It is about broadening the scope from just [working the traditional way] to breaking out of the box and doing things that we in the profession believe will benefit the profession long-term because it broadens the scope of what we do.… It helps us professionally with our members if we are seen to be giving something back to them.… The awards also position us as being the custodian of standards… by giving us credibility as a custodian of standards and protocols and gives us credibility with [stakeholders]. We look at standards, we look at protocols and good ways of doing business for [industry] outcomes and not just our own pockets" (Elite03).

Other organisations use awards in order to be recognised as an industry leader and as "being relevant" (Elite09). Elite06 also spoke about *relevance* and use judges to be seen as relevant and to stay abreast of industry changes.

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[1] See Table 6 for identifier codes for award expert interviewees.

Besides building relevance or importance, awards are marketing and public relations tools. Org01 gets "very good public relations hits" (Elite01) from awards. This same organisation uses awards to assist stakeholder management and client relations. Elite07 believes the awards are a key opportunity to engage with the sector. In contrast, Elite04 does not use awards as marketing tools:

> We have never really highlighted it [the awards] as a part of a membership drive [to attract new members]. I think the feeling is that we don't want to sully the awards, to downgrade it and make it tacky.

A further benefactor of awards programs are awarding organisations' sponsors: "Our sponsors love it [the award] because not only is it good exposure for them – not just 'look at our [products]' kind of exposure but also that we are helping the profession" (Elite03). Org06 also benefit from sponsors and finds that sponsors are:

> Becoming increasingly difficult and the expectations about what they receive for that sponsorship is changing … The market is tighter so getting cash sponsorship is getting harder and harder. They are wanting to get closer to the projects and the winners themselves. We have recruitment companies who sponsor the excellence awards and they see that as a way to become recognised within the profession.... An average sponsorship can be anything from $10k - $50k in cash (Elite06).

In recent times, there is less money from sponsors for such events (Elite09). As a result, awards programs have themselves become more competitive.

Awards programs are not only about benefits. Some awarding organisations have been too successful. For Elite06, their awards have become "a bit of a beast for us in terms of resources … we've become a victim of our own success." Org06 has in excess of 300 awards for individuals and projects and employ at least five full-time staff to manage the administration. Another organisation at risk of being victims of their own success is Org07. Nominations increased from 300 to 400 applications to more than 600 after using mainstream media to advertise. Their judges have asked for a review of judging processes because of the number of applications to consider.

Professions and their awards evolve over time. An example is the Association of Financial Advisers that introduced individual awards where previously only team awards were bestowed. Some changes in awards have occurred because of changes in the awarding organisation. One example is the Pharmaceutical Society of Australia that

historically recognised only work completed in Australia. The Pharmaceutical Society of Australia now recognises international work because the society has a global reach.

Awards and award criteria may change because of changes in society. One example is the Australian Institute of Architects who in 2013 included awards for sustainability in response to greater community awareness regarding environmental sustainability and climate change.

Processes for selecting a winner may change. Awards run by Org08 were state based with winners from Victoria, for example, competing with winners from other states and territories. Elite08 reported that winners from smaller states were sometimes not as "good" as the second or third place finalist from a larger state. For this reason, Org08 changed from a state based award to a national award structure and saw "a real change in the quality" of finalists (Elite08).

The role awards play

Awarding organisations make claims regarding the reason awards programs have been created. However, the resulting role awards play may not be the same as awarding organisations expected at the outset. Awards play different roles for individuals which are identified here.

Awards allow individuals to be acknowledged for their work. Elite10 said awards "bring to light things about these individuals that may not be obvious in their day-to-day life ... things like their contribution to the profession" which others, even the award winner's employer, might not know.

Awards give winners an opportunity and a mechanism to be seen. Elite09 felt the reason for awards is "to give this talent pool the opportunity to shine in front of their peers, in front of their employers, their potential employers, to really show the industry what they have to offer". Awards highlight best practices (Elite04) and outstanding achievements (Elite01) in the profession.

Awards are there to inspire (Elite09) and "sometimes motivate people to pursue their dreams" (Elite05), or do "things that are outside the square" (Elite03). Awards "enhance your reputation" (Safe Work Australia). Winning an award may be a "career defining moment" (Human Resources Director Magazine). Awards are valuable for the winner's career:

It is a great boost for their [award winners'] careers, especially the young [role], it's a huge step for them. They get offered very good jobs … Big [organisations]

want them, researchers want them, industry want them. So it [the awards] might

motivate them (Elite10).

Awards may be useful in industries that have flat hierarchical structures. Elite09

is from such an industry and believes people do not aspire to receive a promotion. For

individuals in this industry, the projects they work on are important and bring kudos.

Awards are used to recognise people and have "replaced promotions" (Elite09).

Awards might be used to demonstrate the value a profession brings to

Australian businesses. Elite08 reported awards are seen as a "service to the profession".

3.5.2 Awards taxonomy

The awards taxonomy consists of four stages. The four award stages are presented here

(Figure 9) as discrete stages but in fact their boundaries may not necessarily be distinct.

First, the *pre-award* stage includes promoting and marketing awards and the

eligibility criteria that may be barriers to participation. Second, the *compete* stage

includes nomination and judging processes including judges and their role. Third, the

celebrate stage includes the winner announcement and prize. Fourth, the *post-award*

stage include activities such as publicity, and the winner's role, if any, after the

celebration. The four stages of the awards process are each presented next.

Figure 9 Award stages

Pre-award

Pre-award activities include awarding organisations' efforts to identify and engage

stakeholders including potential nominees and other people who may influence

nominees to get involved. Activities include promoting and advertising awards. Pre-

award activities include eligibility criteria, which are a potential barrier to participation, and determines who participates in the awards. These two activities are presented next.

Promoting and advertising

Awarding organisations advertise awards to attract nominees. Award organisers in this study use multiple marketing streams. Some awards and awards programs are advertised in industry publications. Industry publications are often available in both print and electronic formats to reach the widest audience possible. Org03 uses this type of advertising. Elite03 explained their promoting and advertising activities:

> We do a fair bit of internal marketing on it [awards]. We say "get your nominations in, hurry up"…. We have a monthly journal that goes out to all our members … so we advertise in that. We have a fortnightly electronic newsletter and we advertise in that. Also, every branch has weekly meetings for CPD [continuing professional development] and often they will talk about it [awards] there and say "don't forget to nominate". We don't go out in the mainstream media. We keep it [advertising] in-house but it's print and electronic and word-of-mouth.

Awarding organisations promote their awards on their websites. Promotion on awarding organisations' websites attracts nominees and promotes the winner announcement event. Some awarding organisations create dedicated awards websites. One example is the Association for Data-driven Marketing and Advertising and their awards website at http://www.acandeawards.com/.

Three organisations advertise their awards in mainstream media including television and radio. One organisation advertise for nominees six to nine months before their awards are judged. Their award organiser raised concerns about what she called *award fatigue*. Award fatigue describes the result of too much news about awards with little or no break between announcing winners and advertising for nominees, for example. Elite05 suggested too many awards dilutes the value of awards. Org05 has one award and one scholarship in their awards program and they have no intentions to expand their program.

In advertisements, awards and award characteristics are described using language that indicate prestige, excellence and exclusivity as shown in Table 7. Awards described in such a manner may be expected to demonstrate prestige, excellence and exclusivity in their award components and attributes. Another example of setting high

expectations is from Lawyers Weekly awards: "The lawyers who will be recognised by these awards will be the leaders of tomorrow". How awards are conducted might indicate the veracity of these suggestions.

Table 7 Awards descriptions indicating excellence

- Australia's most prestigious awards … the pinnacle of success (The CEO Magazine)
- Awards are unmatched in terms of integrity and prestige (Mortgage and Finance Association of Australia)
- The most prestigious national competition of its kind (National Retail Association)
- Esteemed awards program (Australian Computer Society)
- The pinnacle of achievement for the very best (Association of Financial Advisers)
- Something to aspire to (Australasian Compliance Institute)

Eligibility criteria

Award organisers use eligibility criteria and award categories to restrict and target award nominees. Some examples include age, membership and past participation. Early career awards require nominees to be in a particular age range at a particular date. Sometimes the number of years of experience are used such as "at least five years of work experience" (BOSS magazine) or "less than three years' experience" (Australian Human Resources Institute). Some eligibility criteria require accomplishments to have occurred between a range of dates.

Eligibility criteria may require the nominee to be a member of the awarding organisation where membership is possible, or to become a member before the nomination closing date. Sometimes a nominee must be employed in a particular industry, sector or company for a minimum time before nomination is allowed. Awards such as the Australian government's Information Communications Technology awards require nominees to have a particular residency or citizenship status.

Eligibility criteria may address nominees' past participation and not allow previous award winners to enter again. Alternatively, re-entry may be allowed but only in a different category or with a different initiative, solution, or contribution. Some criteria include a timeframe in which entry is limited so winners may not enter within five years of participating, for example. Usually these restrictions are limited to the award winner although one awarding organisation, Dietitians Association of Australia, does not allow either winners or nominees to re-enter.

Compete

As identified in the document analysis and elite interviews, the second stage of the awards taxonomy consists of compete activities that include nomination and judging processes. In this section, rules and requirements for nomination are addressed first. Then the judging process is presented. The judging process consists of several components including judges and how they are selected, their roles, judging criteria and the steps in the process. Nomination and judging processes are presented next.

Nomination

Nomination is required for an individual to compete for an award and individuals are competing from the time they submit their nomination. The origin of the nomination may be self or other-nominated. There are 56 awarding organisations that allow self-nomination. All organisations accept nominations from a third party. These third party or *other* nominations occur when a manager, peer, customer or an anonymous party initiate the nomination process. When nominations are initiated by a third party the nominee may still be required to complete the application. In some instances, nominees may never know they were nominated:

> So it's not like an investment that you can pay someone back. Because if they don't win and they don't know that they were nominated, no one says a word. You aren't going to tell me that 'I nominated you for an award' when you didn't get it because then I'll be upset because I didn't win it … we seldom have disappointed losers (Elite04).

The number of nominees may be a result of the award advertisement's reach and effectiveness. Data regarding nominee numbers is not available in awarding organisations' documents. One award organiser (Elite07) reports having in excess of 600 nominees for a single award. More nominees increase the size of the competition pool and the competitiveness of the award.

However, some awards attract a smaller pool of nominees. Elite09 extends the submission date and uses public relations activities to get more nominees involved if

necessary. "The show must go on," she reported. Elite09 feels an obligation to make an award each year. She said not awarding would be unfair to those who had made an effort to nominate.

Participation in an award may require employer support or employer nomination. In some instances, employers may be required to endorse participation, either through a written endorsement or reference, or through financial support of the cost of entry. Some awards require a nomination to be endorsed by two or three people.

The cost to enter awards, referred to by one awarding organisation as "the cost of adulation" (Association for Data-driven Marketing and Advertising), varies. In 2013 entry fees ranged from no entry fee to AUD$660 (Australian Human Resources Institute) per individual application. One awarding organisation calls the cost an "investment" and justify the "modest" fee as "tremendous value in terms of the lasting effect it has on morale, as compared with buying meals, throwing parties or having evenings out" (LearnX). In 2012, one awarding organisation, Australian Teleservices Association, charged a fee of $55 for the provision of a "feedback report". This fee is an addition beyond the fee to participate.

Time to complete nomination applications may be considered a cost and may impact the number of nominees. Although the cost is low when the nomination is "scribbled off" (Elite03), other applications may take three or four days or even weeks of work (Elite01). In instances where the nominee does not know they have been nominated, they may not know about the extent of work involved in their application.

The effort involved in submitting a nomination may be considered a cost and may impact the number of nominees. Elite08 commented "We do find that the awards that require more contribution and assessment… it can be a deterrent ... it can be a bit of a hurdle for some people ... we could get more [nominations] if the bar were lower". One awarding organisation has nominees register their interest first and later submit an essay. In this example, it is not unusual to have in excess of 300 registrations but just 50 essays submitted. Awards manager Elite04 reflected "a lot [of potential nominees] don't have the internal fortitude to sit down and write on the research topic". This barrier to participation appears to limit applicant numbers.

96

Judging

There are multiple aspects related to the judging process that are reported next. Judges' identity, the number of judges, and how judges are selected is presented first. What is judged and how judging occurs is then presented.

Judges. Judges play a critical role in the assessment process. One awarding organisation, Mortgage and Finance Association of Australia, has outsourced submission and judging processes to an external awards convenor, Awards Absolute, to ensure impartiality. All other awarding organisations use judges and an internal judging process of varying complexity.

Judges are sometimes referred to as the jury, evaluation committee or panel. Judges may be members of the awarding organisation, leading industry practitioners, experts, academics, sponsors, or nominees' peers. Some awarding organisations describe their judges as "distinguished" (Lawyers Weekly), "well–regarded", "well-respected" (Human Resources Director Magazine), of the "highest calibre" (Australian Computer Society) and having "vast experience" (CEO Magazine).

Judges may bring kudos to the awarding organisation (Elite05). Other interviewees echoed this sentiment. Yet, names of judges are seldom included in awards marketing material. Interviewees reported judges could not confirm their involvement and "may have to pull out at the last minute" (Elite04). Those awarding organisations that list their judges might include judges' job titles, employers, biographies, photos and their judging code of conduct or agreement.

Some awarding organisations believe being a judge is an honour. One awarding organisation declares "Being accepted as a judge at the event on a night of such magnitude and exposure is prestigious in itself" (CEO Magazine). Elite04 spoke of the "privilege of being a judge". In some instances a specialist may be included to judge. One example is judges at the Australian Institute of Architects who may obtain expert advice to assist judging of nominations in specialised areas such as heritage structures.

Selection of judges. Judges may be state-based, regional or international (such as the Australian Human Resources Institute). There may be a desire to use experienced and well-regarded individuals as judges. Org07 use their judges to stay relevant and keep up with industry changes. They rotate or *refresh* their judges every three years. Judges may come from varying levels of seniority. In some industries, a judge who is too senior may be seen as "out of touch" (Elite01). Org01 has turned the selection of judges into a type of competition. This organisation has their members nominate judges

and states, "Make sure you do your utmost to get the industry's hottest talent onto the panel of judges" (Elite01).

Judges are appointed formally or informally and most judges volunteer their time when they are not employed by the awarding organisation. Judges might be approached because of their expertise:

> When you've got someone putting a case forward for their particular project, you need subject matter experts to be able to critically review whether in fact they have (been) innovative and demonstrated excellence (Elite06).

Some awarding organisations attract judges by suggesting there are mutual benefits to volunteering, for example, judges have opportunity to "to share their valuable knowledge and experience" (Australian Computer Society).

Number of judges. Awarding organisations in this study engage between one judge and a panel of 82 judges (Australian Reseller News). Awarding organisations may employ different judges for different categories. In some instances, some awarding organisations employ a facilitator to confirm consistency across judging categories.

Org02 uses industry leaders on their judging panel. Judges for awards from Org02 have doubled in number in recent years. Elite02 joked there is now a "frontbench" and a "backbench" of judges. Elite02 suggested judges participate because of the networking opportunity and are so keen "you couldn't get them off the judging panel with a bull-dozer".

Role of judges. Some awarding organisations provide detailed descriptions of judges' roles and responsibilities. One organisation, Australian Institute of Architects, has a publicly available 17-page "Jurors' Handbook" with sections for roles and responsibilities, behaviour expected during on-site visits ("be punctual and call ahead if running late"), adjudication criteria and guidelines. Judges often have to sign contracts covering codes of ethics, declarations of interest and non-disclosure. One awarding organisation (Australian Institute of Architects) offers to publish a report of the "jury's thinking and decision-making as an additional accountability mechanism" and demands strict adherence by judges to award guidelines regarding winner selection.

What is judged. Award criteria are the activities or behaviours a nominee must display to be considered a winner of an award. Award criteria vary between vague subjective criteria and well-defined, measureable, objective criteria. Most awards in this study provide limited information about award criteria. Some award criteria are ambiguous as shown in Table 8.

Table 8 Examples of ambiguous awards criteria

The nominee must:

- [Show] improved productivity and/or safety using new technology, innovative processes or techniques (Australian Mining magazine)

- [Have] visionary leadership (Planning Institute of Australia)

- Use contemporary best practice approaches (Career Development Association of Australia)

- [Have] fully integrating sustainability principles and practices into operational activities at all levels and reducing the organisation's footprint (Banksia)

- [Have] quality results (Logistics and Materials Handling Magazine)

- [Have] the X factor (Association of Financial Advisers)

- [Be] worthy of being an ambassador (Association for Data-Driven Marketing and Advertising)

Most awards in this research are for past performance, achievements or behaviour in the nominee's work career. Judges may identify a single achievement such as a nominee's creative input to an advertising campaign (Association for Data-driven Marketing and Advertising). Alternatively, judges look for a significant sustained performance, for example, setting up and facilitating a new role for pharmacists in primary healthcare clinics in Australia (Pharmaceutical Society of Australia).

Nominees may be asked to provide a résumé and references for review in the judging process. These documents may be required without identifying data so judging is "blind". Blind judging is difficult to orchestrate in some industries. Awards for a piece of architecture or an advertising campaign, for example, may make it almost impossible for nominees to be anonymous to awards' judges.

Types of evidence required by awarding organisations include papers written, testimonials, references, diagrams, graphs, reports, surveys or images. Evidence may be provided verbally in telephone references, written in Word or PDF documents, in video format or as images. Evidence ranges from subjective self-report to objective photographs or models. Evidence is specific to the profession or industry. For example, awards in architecture may require photographs and drawings as evidence. Engineering awards may require site visits. One interviewee told of judges hiring a plane to fly four hours to "the middle of no where" (Elite10) for a site visit. Although in a different

industry, Elite01 emphasised the importance of site visits by comparing these visits to operating on a patient who appears healthy and "only by operating on them is cancer discovered".

While site visits might be useful and even essential in some instances, they are not always required. Required evidence varied from self-report to a more rigorous assessment:

> Everything has to be peer-reviewed. The nominations have to have citations from [senior people] and things. Every word that is written has to be examined and cross-checked. In that respect the nomination process is quite robust. You can't just write anything (Elite03).

Awards for real time activities, like athletes competing in a sport, were identified in two examples. In the first example, the award is described as "a competition for the attention of the industry". This award was the only one to refer to the award as a competition. This organisation challenges nominees by having them research and write an essay displaying industry research and knowledge. Behaviours or accomplishments from the nominee's work place are not considered. Nominees are judged in a tribunal-type process where they present their findings and then take questions from the panel of judges. The organiser of this award, Elite02, compared their awards to an international sporting event:

> In the end, it's a test match between the Springboks and the Wallabies. Someone has got to win and someone has got to lose and it doesn't mean that you don't come back and have another test match next year. To me it's character. If you try once and you don't make the final, then you have another go next year, isn't that the way competitions always are?

In the second example, BOSS Magazine determine winners through the process of a one-off behavioural assessment role-play. This process allows the evaluation of behaviour to occur in real time.

Judging process. Some interviewees highlighted the importance of a comprehensive robust judging process. Elite06 reflected:

> I think what we are conscious of, is to make sure whatever we do with these awards that we maintain the integrity that I think we have achieved through a very robust judging process. We have been very careful in looking after the brand of the excellence awards and that's something we will continue to do very

heavily because that's not something you can just manufacture … it's very much a peer review process and they [the judges] are involved also in framing the criteria and the shape of the awards which have evolved over time.

Judging sometimes commences with a research stage to verify nomination information. Alternatively, verification may be conducted only later in the process and for finalists' details. Organisations such as the Association of Sales and Merchandising Companies Australasia reported using a scoring system where each score is weighted according to some predefined criteria such as industry "best practice", previous years' responses or judges' feedback. Meetings and Events Australia sum separate submission and interview scores and the average is used to determine the winner. Judges for the Australasian Legal Business awards cast votes on a *3-2-1* basis, with three representing first preference. Where criteria are listed, there may be multiple categories with different weights in one award. For example:

Each Young Achiever Award Entry will be judged on its own merits, with possible marks for each of the categories adding-up to a final score out of 100:

• added value to the company /20

• demonstrated innovation /20

• quality of results /20

• completed projects /20

• demonstration of initiative /20 (Process and Control Engineering Magazine).

When multiple judges are involved, judging may be by consensus after discussing nominees or voting for a preferred winner (Elite02, Elite09). By comparison, judges from Meetings & Events Australia and Mortgage and Finance Association of Australia are not allowed to discuss submissions or share their opinions or scores. Judges may not know who the winner is until the announcement at the gala function. For several awarding organisations, a winner may not be declared if the judges are not satisfied with the standard or quality of the received nominations.

In another awarding organisation, the criteria are intentionally left broad by asking for excellence and achievement in the industry. Judging was explained by Elite07:

Then they debate it. They talk about it, they talk about what they've [nominees] achieved, how they've achieved it, what it means for the profession, they

> [judges] all have a personal view … it is quite subjective in some parts because we don't have any strict objective criteria … the industry guy will talk about 'what he did, did it really have an impact on the way industry looks at doing things', and the [person from the profession] might say 'yea, but that didn't really have that much of an impact'. So they balance it out. There's a bit of argy bargy. They come to a decision.

The suggestion to create stricter criteria has been considered. However, some organisers have rejected the idea:

> As soon as you put criteria in you might eliminate people who might be worthy. We're trying to broaden it [the profession] and we are trying to generate some excitement. We are breaking away from the [traditional] and you might preclude some of the really good stuff … some of the diversity that we are looking for … we'd lose some of the diversity out there that we are trying to encourage (Elite03).

Celebrate

Celebrate activities include the winner announcement and prize. The winner announcement is sometimes the industry highlight of the year. Prizes in this study vary between a paper certificate and international study tours. The winner announcement and prizes are presented next.

Winner announcement

The winner announcement and celebration is sometimes used to attract the attention of the field. Awarding organisations need to be "seen to be doing this [awards gala dinner] by the industry" (Elite09). Elite08 spoke of a dual benefit from the awarding event: an opportunity to celebrate achievements and a chance for the professional association to highlight their awards.

Announcement of winners may occur on-line before the awards presentation ceremony or at the awards presentation ceremony. Some award recipients are notified prior to the event to ensure their attendance (for example, Australian Institute of

Management). One awarding organisation (LearnX) requires attendance as a winning criteria and winners may forfeit the award if absent from the award function.

The winner announcement event may be in one of several formats including a gala cocktail evening, awards dinner, breakfast, annual general meetings or national conferences. These events have been described as "a spectacular event", "an exciting celebration", "glittering night", "unparalleled networking opportunities, live entertainment, keynote speakers, full dinner and free-flowing wines, this is a night not to be missed".

> The event may be at a distinguished venue such as Parliament House.
>
> We always deliver a premium event and that's proven to be a very expensive exercise…The expectation is a black-tie event at Parliament House and that has a certain degree of sophistication and that comes at a price (Elite06).

Other venues include casinos, ballrooms, conventions centres and university halls. The announcement and celebration may include celebrity emcees, cocktail or black tie dress codes and themes such as "A night of stars – celebrating a year of stars". By contrast, a small number of awarding organisations include awards ceremonies in their Annual General Meetings or members meetings. Some awarding organisations pay for travel and accommodation for finalists to attend the awards function.

Awards experts commented on the importance of the awards function. "We have the big presentation and they [winners] get very excited. Then we have the president's reception before the gala dinner where they [winners] are re-introduced. Previous winners come in with all their medallions. It very Mason-like but it's fun" (Elite03).

Prize

All awarding organisations in this study provide a prize. Tangible prizes such as cash are offered by 12 awarding organisations. Eight of those awarding organisations specify the money is for professional development and two stipulate the money be used to reimburse costs to attend a conference. These professional development or educational grants ranged between AU$1,000 and AU$10,000. Elite03 shared his view of the value of such an award:

> It rewards them professionally, personally and financially in the long term. They get a $9000 study grant to use as they want really but it is usually used to attend conferences or to extend an area of interest. They get peer recognition which is more valuable than the money especially in this profession.

Other organisations offer international study tours worth up to $17,000. In one instance, winners have the opportunity to work alongside world-leading professionals in New York for a week:

> The value is huge…. If someone is going to take you to New York so you can be introduced to the industry gurus, to the people you aspire to be, and you spend a week there, really, that's high value. And when it comes back to their [the winner's] career path, their professional life, it's the way they are going to be viewed by their peers, their employers (Elite05).

Additional tangible benefits include airfares and accommodation to attend an international conference, publication of a feature article in an industry journal, complimentary membership or conference registration, tickets to the awarding function, certificates or trophies. Three awards earn individuals Continuous Professional Development points, which contributes to ongoing registration in their profession. Other prizes include the right to use the winner logo on publicity material and stationery, newspaper coverage or opportunity to present at an industry conference.

Post-award

Pre-award > Compete > Celebrate > Post-award

Some awarding organisations have no post-award activities. Where post-award activities were reported they included media coverage and other activities like feedback and benchmarking opportunities. Finally, because for every winner there must be at least one non-winner, the topic of non-winners is addressed. Post award activities are presented next.

Media coverage

All awarding organisations make use of media to report names of award winners. Media coverage usually extends to publications in the particular industry. In some instances, winners are asked to provide their own statement to summarise their entry and contribution. Where individuals are reported in the media, their personal profile or brand may benefit because they "can tell their own stories" (Elite06). Several awards

experts shared anecdotal stories of large international organisations approaching winners with potential job offers after their award win and as a result of their media profile.

Few awards are reported in the national press. One award, HESTA's Nurse of the Year Award, is sometimes reported nationally on breakfast television news. Where an awarding organisation or sponsor is also a media outlet, media coverage of the awards event and winners is often extensive. Some organisations such as HESTA have a public relations agency to promote their awards. Their media campaigns begin with the awards nomination process when a "call for entries" is made. Press releases are made before closing of nominations, with the announcement of finalists, and before and after awards presentations. Further press releases with finalists and winners' detailed biographical information are often made later.

Other activities

Several interviewees expressed an interest in having award winners play a larger role in the awarding organisation after winning. When asked about award winners' roles, Elite01 said:

> Not a big enough role in the past. But this year we're changing that. We want them to be ambassadors for us. For us to be able to use them as spokespeople like the young [role] of the year, if there is something that involves young [roles] we would like her – and they are quite happy to do this – to be a spokesperson for us …we haven't used them effectively in the past … but this year we are really going to try focus on using them as a marketing tool, as a showpiece.

Both Elite08 and Elite10 spoke about plans to create an alumni group to connect previous years' winners. Both interviewees feel this would be beneficial to winners who would have opportunity to network. An alumni group would help awarding organisations because "it's about profile, and to promote the awards" (Elite08).

Feedback. Individuals, both winners and non-winners, may be interested in feedback. Receiving feedback was offered by eight awarding organisations. Some organisations provide feedback if requested only. One expert, Elite02, commented on the rarity with which feedback is requested by non-winners and winners. Other organisations discourage or even forbid feedback according to award rules or award terms and conditions.

Benchmarking. Benchmarking, or comparing an individual's performance with other nominees, is a benefit identified by several awarding organisations studied. One example is the award process which "will provide the entrants with a benchmark against their peers and competitors" (Mortgage and Finance Association of Australia) and "to benchmark against other professionals" (National Retail Association). Elite interviewees support the suggestion that awards allow an individual to see how good they are and how they compare with other nominees: "Let me see how good I am in comparison … I think I'm good but I haven't worked with that many people before, maybe I am not as good as I think. Maybe I'm better" (Elite05).

Career development. Some awarding organisations identify career and self-development as potential outcomes from awards. Awards are said to be an opportunity to develop or "enhance their [winners'] careers immeasurably" (Association of Sales and Merchandising Companies Australasia) and to "reflect and assess growth opportunities" (Mortgage and Finance Association of Australia). One award expert believes awards assist individuals in their careers and "often people will move on quite quickly after winning an award" (Elite08). There appears to be greater expectations of the winner:

> The moment you win something it's like getting straight As when you were in school, everyone expects you will do it again and it's really hard to do it year after year. There will be expectations placed on you to perform. There could also be pressure to volunteer (Elite09).

These influences are considered again in the next chapter where the study of the career impact of winning an award is reported.

Non-winners

The issue of there being more non-winners than winners at the end of an awards event was not a concern for any interviewees. Elite10 believes being a finalist is an achievement in itself and finalists should add this status to their résumés. Other organisations make a further effort to ensure non-winners are not disappointed. Org02 fly finalists to Sydney where they are collected in a limousine. Org02 adopt a "VIP approach" to the finalists: "we try do that 'once in a lifetime' proposition, so that even if you don't win, you walk away feeling like you've really been an important person for a period of time" (Elite02). Both Org07 and Org08 award trophies to finalists. At Org07, finalists receive their trophies on stage: "The way we see it is that all finalists are really

winners in themselves" (Elite07). In addition to recognising finalists, Org07 send certificates of recognition to all nominees after the event.

This study covers the full life cycle of an awards process. The resulting taxonomy consists of four stages and is presented in Table 9. A discussion of these findings follow.

Table 9 Awards taxonomy

Stage	Component or process	Description of component or process	Range
Pre-award			
	Promoting and advertising	Occurs prior to the award. Notification of the contest through advertising, marketing, announcements	Online; offline; mixed; industry specific; national; word-of-mouth; multiple media types
	Eligibility criteria	Criteria to meet to be eligible to participate in the award	Years of experience; membership of the awarding organisation; no past participation in the award or not a previous winner
Compete			
	Nomination	Number of nominees in the competition	Few nominees relative to possible field; large number of nominations; use of screen or preliminary awards such as state winners or finalists or short lists
		Person responsible for nomination or application	Self-initiated; self-nominated; other initiated; other nominated; known; unknown
		Nominee's employer involvement and support	No employer involvement; employer unaware; employer endorsement (written or financial); employer responsible
		Entry costs	No cost; nomination fee charged; time and effort to enter
	Judging	Selection of judges	State-based; regional; international; seniority; experience
		Number of judges	One; multiple; panel
		Judges' role	Informal or formal; defined roles and responsibilities

Stage	Component or process	Description of component or process	Range
	Judging (continued)	What is judged	Variable criteria; standardised criteria; one-off event; ongoing sustained performance; real time tournament
		Evidence	None; résumé review; references; peer review; demonstrated performance (in a real time tournament, for example)
		Process of judging	How decisions are made: Tribunal; democratic decisions
Celebrate			
	Winner announcement	Event at which the winner is announced	Part of a more significant event; event dedicated to awards
	Prize	Reward the winner receives	Certificate; trophy; title; cash prize; entrance to an event
Post-award			
	Media	Media coverage and publicity	No media coverage; Coverage in national press; use of public relations organisation
	Other activities	Winners' participation Feedback	Roles and responsibilities: None; ambassador; alumni group. May include feedback for winners and non-winners regarding their performance and why the winner was chosen
		Career impact	No impact; self-development; promotion
	Non-winners	There are more non-winners than winners	One to many.

3.6 Discussion

This study identifies awards' components and processes that comprise externally-granted national work-related business awards for individuals. Results from the document analysis and elite interviews contribute to the study of awards for individuals in business. Relevant components of the taxonomy are described and discussed next. Reference is made to relevant well-known awards included in the literature review earlier. The four award processes are presented here as discrete stages although their boundaries are not necessarily as distinct in actuality.

Pre-award process

In the pre-award process, awarding organisations make concerted efforts to motivate potential participants through promoting and advertising awards. Awards have increasing numbers of nominees, which may lead to an increase in the quality of nominees. From awarding organisations' perspectives, awards with a large and growing number of applicants increases the attractiveness of an award. Growing awards are attractive because they are often high profile and attract media attention (Hartley & Downe, 2007). Most exemplar awards like the Nobel Prize and Academy Awards are high profile and attract considerable media attention.

The ratio of winners to non-winners, referred to as the *exclusivity* or level of uniqueness of an award (Straface, 2003), is improved only when there is one winner and many nominees in any year. The Nobel Prize for Physics in which thousands from around the world are eligible for nomination maintains its exclusivity because there is just one winner. A larger ratio where winning becomes scarcer because of increased competition may result in increased legitimacy and credibility of the award. In such a case, the title of "Best in the Country" may be more accurate. Therefore, an award may be more valuable when there are a large number of nominees.

Increasing activities to advertise and promote awards is one means to increase the number of nominees. Allowing self-nomination may lead to an increase in the number of nominees. However, a nomination from a third party may be more prestigious or valuable if the third party is respected. Allowing successful applicants to reapply after a few years may lead to a heightened level of excellence at the expense of a wider distribution of recognition of excellence (Jackson, 2006).

An easy nomination process is critical to increasing the nomination pool. However, awards that take time and effort to participate have a high barrier to entry. A high participation barrier may discourage nominations although arguably only serious entrants nominate when a high barrier exists. Effort required to apply for an award may not be commensurate with the value of the award, which may discourage nominees. If the "bar were lower" as suggested by one interviewee, there may be an increase in nominee numbers.

Intuitively a larger pool of nominees is preferred. However, when there are more nominees there are more non-winners or losers. An increase in non-winners may result in diminished interest in future participation. Exclusivity or enhanced prestige resulting from more nominees may result in subsequent reduction in nomination numbers if people feel their chances of winning are too remote to justify entering. An awarding organisation may consider taking precautions to appease non-winners. Precautions some awarding organisations take such as awarding finalists with trophies and all nominees with certificates of recognition may help to keep people interested.

Other means to appease non-winners is through the competition structure that determines the number of winners. Some awarding organisations run competitions at the state or territory level first. Each state or territory announces a winner who then competes for a national title. Where there are multiple winners, awards may be seen as an inclusive award with fewer disappointed people at the end of the selection process (Jackson, 2006). At the same time, some exclusivity is maintained because there is a single final national winner. An exemplar award that uses structure to acknowledge more than one winner is the Man Booker Prize for English literature where organisers announce a long and short list of finalists months before the winner is identified.

Conversely, a national competition may result in a more competitive program. If awarding organisations select state winners to compete in a national program, there is a risk a state winner from a small state may not be as good as nominees who are not selected in a larger or more competitive state. Instead, an award structure with a national focus whereby nationally selected finalists compete may result in an increased quality of nominees.

Compete process

All stakeholders should perceive award criteria as fair (Hartley & Downe, 2007). However, there are several potential issues with respect to award criteria. Objective and

simple success criteria are likely to be easier to manage because they prevent confusion and discouragement. However, creating and measuring award criteria to evaluate quality may be difficult. Award organisers may deliberately use vague criteria. Awards for vaguely defined achievements (Frey & Neckermann, 2013b) is not new. There are benefits of having vague criteria when, for example, a nomination is considered worthy of recognition despite not completely meeting the criteria.

Awards criteria have been used to encourage others to behave in a particular way (Duguid, 2007). Professions may use award criteria to move away from traditional values and behaviour. Diversity and richness of applicants and their accomplishments may be lost if standardised award criteria are used.

Most criteria identified in this study were difficult to measure, which raises questions about rigour in particular. For example, an award criterion of *improved productivity* is difficult to assess if adjudicators are not measuring initial levels of productivity. An outstanding initiative by an individual or their innovative process, for which they win an award, may be a development or practice implemented locally as directed by a multinational's head office. In this instance, nominees may have followed instructions from senior management and may not have shown any initiative or innovation of their own. An individual's visionary approach may be apparent in a small organisation and imperceptible in a large business. When a criterion is an "X factor", as one awarding organisation calls it, the vagueness fosters a suspicion about the award's objectivity and accuracy (Menges, 1996).

Legitimising recognition could occur by adding validity and reliability to award criteria through the operationalisation of the award or selection criteria. Ideally, characteristics for criteria ought to be relevant and reliable (Brogden, 1946). Selection criteria used to decide the award recipient must use reliable measurements of relevant constructs (Viswesvaran, 2001). One option is to use criteria from recruitment and selection procedures to identify high performers in business. Employment of stringent assessment techniques in both award eligibility and judging criteria provides accurate measurement and process for ordering and evaluating individuals on an agreed construct (Guion, 2011). If criteria demonstrate face validity then when others identify the criteria there is satisfaction the criteria measures what it is said to measure. Use of assessment techniques may help increase rigour in the evaluation of individuals and the awards process. The extensive literature on performance assessment may prove useful in the context of awards.

Where substantial evidence is required from nominees, there may be a perception of more stringency in judging processes and the award may be perceived as more valuable. Use of a variety of sources of evidence and a mix of self-report and other-report contributes to perceived thoroughness of an award. Although appearing to be more thorough, evidence may be independent of an individual's behaviour on the job. For example, some organisations judge nominees on their interview or presentation alone. Although judges are instructed to assess presentation content and not the performance, there is a risk winners are selected because they interview or present well.

If award criteria used the same stringent criteria demanded by measures of job performance and related criterion measures (Viswesvaran, 2001) the award may be considered more valuable and useful. After all, what is award-winning performance? A further question is whether performance metrics should and could be used in evaluating nominees. Using academics as an example, the number of scholarly journal publications may show relative success (Jackson, 2006). However, this addresses just one possible means of identifying high quality individuals or teachers.

Further, judging processes impact an award's credibility. Judging processes should be valid so the best is selected as the winner (Hartley & Downe, 2007). Design and execution of judging processes determines the consistency and accuracy of the judges' assessments. Process and criteria subsequently affects the fairness and final selection of the winners. Judging criteria and guidelines may provide clarity to the process, yet judging remains a qualitative endeavour with elements of subjectivity (Edelheim, et al., 2011). Although judges commit to spend time studying applications and fairly and critically assess applications, judges are seldom trained in selection techniques. Offering training to judges may assist maintain standards and associated award credibility.

Judges often have different backgrounds, ideas and expertise and they provide different opinions. Judges may be selected precisely for their diversity. Awarding organisations may expect different judges to assess different award criteria. These differences between individual judges may cause divergent thinking (Guilford, 1956) which may result in a lack of agreement regarding the selection of a winner. Convergence of thinking by judges may be required to agree a winner. Where multiple judges are used, the issue of inter-judge reliability is questionable and may affect winner selection. Inter-judge or inter-rater reliability refers to the extent to which different raters, or judges, agree in their assessment of an individual's performance

(Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1996). Where rater-specific variance exists, perhaps due to judges' different roles and experience, the sets of ratings are not necessarily parallel (Viswesvaran, 2001) and inter-rater reliability is low, which may account for different results in judging.

There is variation in nomination and judging processes and award criteria, which offers opportunity for improvement and potential to increase award quality. Other possible means of enhancing the value of the awards experience include feedback for nominees from awards organisers. On reflection, feedback and the lack thereof appears to be a missed opportunity for individuals and their respective professions. However, individuals competing for an award may be high achievers already and feedback may not be helpful or may not be required. Yet the value of feedback to an individual's career is well documented (for example, Jawahar, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Feedback from awarding organisations may inform a nominee on how to improve both their nomination and behaviour and may encourage re-nomination in later years (Borins, 2000). The quality of future nominees may increase and the award may become more prestigious. The profession stands to benefit too.

Post-award

The life cycle of an award could extend beyond the event at which the award is bestowed. The industry, profession and individual stand to benefit from post-award activities. Of surprise was the number of awarding organisations that have little interaction and engagement with winners beyond the award ceremony. For awarding organisations, ongoing activities may help develop a reputation for the awards.

Awarding organisations may be interested in generating ongoing publicity, which has been identified as important to ensure increased awareness of industry values by others (Carusetta, 2001). Awarding organisations may benefit from having the winner represent them or act as their ambassador. For individual winners, further involvement with the awarding organisation or sponsor may provide opportunity for winners to enhance their skills, reputation and visibility in the industry.

One useful way to maintain engagement with individual winners is through an alumni organisation. Creating an alumni group where winners engage with prior and subsequent winners may be valuable for both individuals and awarding organisations. Creation of an alumni group or club for winners could signal their recognition is enduring rather than transitory (Jackson, 2006). Awards become more than one-off gala

dinners. Using winners as ambassadors, presenting at award functions, contributing to award organisations' communications such as newsletters or on websites or acting as a mentor to other members provides long-term benefits for both individual winners and awarding organisations.

Given that non-winners outnumber winners, consideration of non-winners experiences is noteworthy. An ideal outcome is that both winners and applicants enjoy benefits from the awards process. Rejected applicants should not be discouraged from applying in the future.

3.6.1 Implications for theory

This study is descriptive and extends the literature regarding awards for individuals in the business sector. The creation of an awards taxonomy extends earlier research regarding awards frameworks (Adamczyk, et al., 2012; Dong, 2013; Svinicki & Menges, 1996). Earlier frameworks were created for innovation contests, teaching and journalism. The taxonomy is a framework that describes components and processes found in externally-granted national work-related awards.

The taxonomy is a view of the awards process. Although each step in the process is included, there is much we still do not know about these processes. This study contributes to signalling theory wherein signals convey value which may be hard to identify (Spence, 1973). Awards as signals indicate ability or motivation. Awards components and processes contribute to the signal which indicate the winners' success and accomplishments.

3.6.2 Implications for practice

The taxonomy provides potential value to several stakeholders. Awarding organisations could use the taxonomy as a framework to assess and improve award components and processes. Awarding organisations could use the framework to compare awards with those in other industries because the components and processes are discrete units thus simplifying and assisting comparison efforts. Furthermore, awarding organisations could use the taxonomy to guide efforts potentially to improve awards and the quality of an award. As an example, organisers may decide to enhance their post-award activities. One such method could be through feedback to participants. Organisers may decide that they do not offer feedback or their feedback could be improved and award winners and other participants could find such feedback valuable.

By comparing awards, recruiters and talent managers could find the taxonomy useful. The taxonomy could help distinguish one award from another. Knowing how awards compare could be useful to individuals who may want to decide between multiple awards opportunities.

3.6.3 Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. The list of awarding organisations in this study is not a complete list and compilation of such a list is considered outside the scope of this research. Without a complete list of awarding organisations and their awards it is difficult to determine the extent of the awards industry included in this study. For this reason, findings from this study may not be generalisable.

The decision to include confirmatory interviews with award *elites*, the officials involved in the awards process, proved to be a challenge because gaining access to elites is often a problem facing researchers (Aberbach & Rockman, 2002; Goldstein, 2002). Elites are often busy senior professionals who are widely sought after and therefore difficult to meet. Elites who were interviewed were selected because of their availability and accessibility. Convenience sampling where participants are selected for their availability may mean the characteristics of the sample differ from the population and results may not be generalisable. The issue of accessibility meant only a few elites were included and this results in the challenge of finding a balance between breadth and depth of interviews.

One further challenge with interviewing these elites in this study was that they were often answering questions about what they do, and as such, justifying their role and the value of the awards. One means to address this conflict is the interviewing of multiple sources of this award. Although this was not undertaken in this study, the use of multiple awards documents may have addressed this conflict.

3.6.4 Future research

This research regarding awards structures and processes is mostly descriptive and sets the context for the studies in this thesis. Given the descriptive nature of the taxonomy there are several possibilities with respect to further research. In this research, the majority of awards and awards programs were bestowed by professional organisations. Future research might include an assessment of the impact of winning an award from a government organisation with an award from a professional association to understand to

what extent awards' values differ depending on their organiser. Investigating awards in different geographies and industries is another option and any resulting contributions to the taxonomy would enhance the value of the taxonomy. Extending the award type to include sporting awards and grants or scholarships would add further components to the taxonomy. There is scope for a more comprehensive study where taxonomy dimensions are empirically assessed. For example, the impact of award advertisements on the number of nominations and the subsequent level of competition may provide opportunity to improve standards of winners. A further question is whether the type and size of the prize affects who and how many nominate for the award with a larger nominee pool meaning more competition. Overall, the research findings have implications for theory regarding the use of awards as signals where different awards may provide signals of different strength. From a practical perspective, research findings provide awarding organisations ideas for improving award quality and value.

Given the investment that some organisations make to provide awards and the growing popularity of awards, it is important to investigate how recruiters, hiring managers and promotion committees perceive awards. Further, investigating the extent to which awards facilitate career enhancement is important and is addressed next.

A more in-depth study including awards organisers may help to expand and elaborate the taxonomy developed here. Awarding organisations' objectives may influence the structure of awards and how awards are managed. An in-depth study of awards objectives and the resulting structure of awards offers the opportunity to elaborate the taxonomy.

The impact of awards' structure on individual nominees or potential nominees may be useful to consider in an attempt to enhance the value of awards. Understanding what attracts nominees to an awards program and what motivates participation may assist awards organisers to create an awards program that is well respected and valuable to all nominees.

3.6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has reported the initial stage of research aimed at identifying and framing the processes of participating in individual awards. The aim of this initial study was to identify stages, components and processes involved in awards in business to create a taxonomy for awards. The exploratory study included document analysis and elite interviews and results have led to the creation of the awards taxonomy. The

taxonomy is based on the stages, components and processes involved in the granting of awards. The taxonomy is a framework for assessing and comparing externally-granted individual awards and award components and processes have been described.

Previous literature identifying awards schemes focused on industries or professions other than business (e.g., teaching, acting). While these studies are important, the processes involved in awards and award programs in business is largely unknown. No theoretical framework exists to explain the role awards play. This study provides a unique contribution to the literature on awards by identifying award components and processes and creating a taxonomy for awards. The resulting awards taxonomy of externally-granted individual award types in the business sector offers a system to compare and contrast awards. Award structure has potential to alter the value of an award and the subsequent impact an award has on award stakeholders including winners and other nominees.

Chapter IV: Career impact of winning an award

In the second study, the career impact of an award win is examined. Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted with 42 individuals who had won national career-related awards. In the first section, objectives of this current study are provided. Then, the research methodology is discussed and reasons for the adoption of qualitative research are outlined. Data analysis, and specifically thematic analysis, is then described. The study results are presented and then discussed. Figure 10 visually represents the structure of the chapter.

Figure 10 Outline of Chapter 4

4.1	• Objectives
4.2	• Research methodology
4.3	• Data analysis
4.4	• Results
4.5	• Discussion
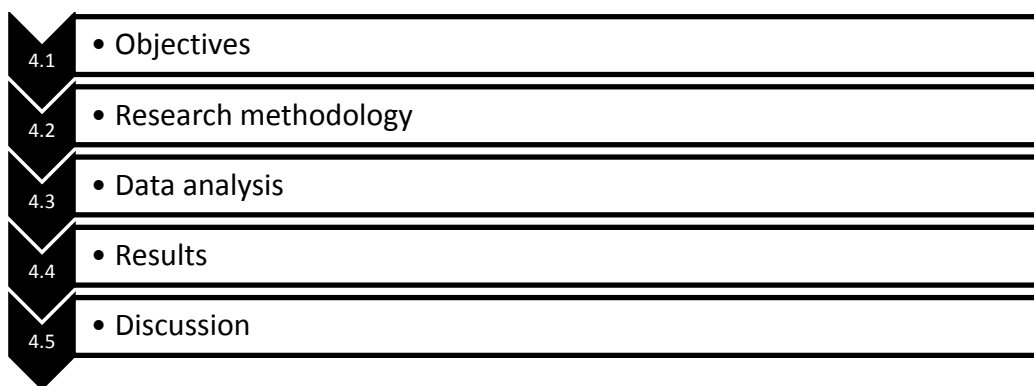
4.1 Study objectives

Careers as long-standing relationships between individuals and organisations have changed in the last 20 years and are now more contemporary transaction relationships (Baruch, 2004). Career development depends on various factors like mentoring and training. However, some factors that influence career progression are unplanned or unpredictable (Bright, et al., 2005) and an award win may be such a factor. The career impact of winning an externally-granted national work-related award has not been studied. The first objective of this study is to explore the impact winning such an award has on an individual winner's career orientation. Using career theory, an award win may be expected to act as a catalyst for a change in career direction with an individual winner transitioning from a traditional career to perhaps a boundaryless or protean career. To recap, the first research question in study two is:

> **2.1 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?**

Career success is the positive psychological or work related outcomes or achievements an individual accumulates as a result of their work experiences (Judge, et al., 1995). Objective career success might include salary growth or career progression via a promotion (Dries, et al., 2008). An award win may be perceived as an indicator of objective career success. Therefore, the second research question in this study is:

2.2   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

There is growing recognition of the importance of subjective measures such as career satisfaction (Dyke & Murphy, 2006). Subjective career success is measured through self-perception of achievements and success (Dries, et al., 2008), for example. The third research question is:

2.3   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

In summary, objectives of study two explore the changes in career orientation and impact on objective and subjective career success measures for winners of national work-related awards. To address these questions 42 award winners were interviewed. This chapter reports the results of this study. Next, the research methodology used in this study is explained.
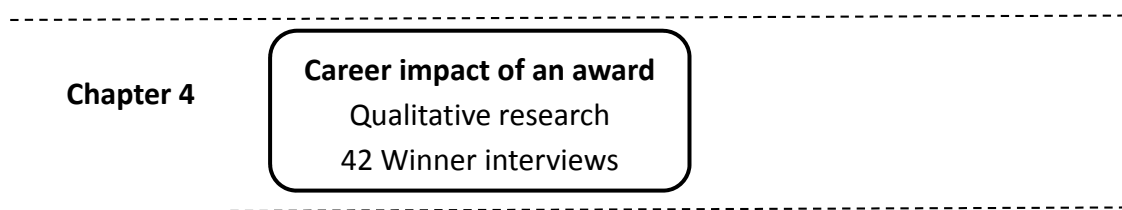
4.2   Research methodology

In this section, the research methodology is presented. First, the research paradigm is described and adoption of pragmatism is justified. Then, the research method is explained. Finally, steps to collect the data are described.

4.2.1   Research paradigm

As described in earlier chapters there are two main research paradigms. The first is positivism/postpositivism and the second is interpretivism/constructivism. These are traditional paradigms and have been described as being at "war" (Feilzer, 2010) with each other. A positivist approach supports quantitative research methods. A constructivist approach favours qualitative research methods. An alternative approach to these two traditional philosophies, that integrates quantitative and qualitative research strategies, is pragmatism (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

Adoption of pragmatism as a philosophical worldview is a multi-paradigm approach (Creswell, 2009) used to create a deep understanding of an eclectic world and the phenomenon under study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatists use both quantitative and qualitative research methods, which is appropriate where the phenomenon under study has not been well researched such as in the case of externally-granted national work-related awards for individual. This chapter includes the second qualitative study where the career impact of an award is examined (see Figure 11). In the next section research methods used in this study are reported.

Figure 11 Research study in Chapter 4

Chapter 4

Career impact of an award
Qualitative research
42 Winner interviews

4.2.2   Research method

In this section, research methods used in the investigation of the career impact of an award are explained. Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative research are described. Use of qualitative research as it pertains to the current research is then addressed.

This thesis uses multiple research methods. As described in Chapter 3, in the first study qualitative research techniques were used to compare and contrast externally-granted awards for individuals in business. In the study reported in this chapter, to explore the career impact of winning a national work-related award an exploratory and inductive approach was adopted. Qualitative methods were employed because qualitative methods are more likely to provide new insights into contemporary events in a real-life context (Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2005).

Qualitative research is often conducted when understanding people's perceptions of their situations is sought (Richards, 2009). Qualitative research "honors the voices of participants" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 7) and allows the researcher to "get under [their] skin" (Richards, 2009, p. 11). In this manner, the researcher is able to find out what really happens and what can be perceived from the inside only, from the view of the people involved (Gillham, 2000). In qualitative

research the sample of participants studied is small in number, however the study is intense and usually provides a large amount of information (Creswell, 2009).

To achieve the aims of this exploratory research, interviews were used to develop an understanding of impacts and experiences of award winners. Interviews provide opportunity to explore such a career event and the different experiences and perspectives of individuals (Veal & Ticehurst, 2005). Interviews permit rich data to be collected directly from participants. Interviews allow exploration of a phenomenon rather than finding answers to a strict set of questions. Interviews are a flexible tool to uncover subjective and individual experiences that may be lost in other data collection methods. Interviews have been criticised as a research method because of their perceived subjective nature and their viable use only for exploratory means (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000b). However, these characteristics are what makes interviews an appropriate tool in this study.

In this section, the research methods for study two are reported. In the next section, selection of individual winners for inclusion in the current study is described. Associated data collection techniques are explained. Use of multiple sampling techniques and semi-structured interviews is reviewed.

4.2.3 Data collection

In this section, data collection in the current study is reported. Sampling techniques as they relate to the current study are explained. Identification and recruitment of award winners is then addressed. Finally, semi-structured in-depth interviews are described.

Sampling

Some data collection techniques and specifically sampling techniques are unique to qualitative methods. While random sampling is used in quantitative research, purposive sampling techniques are used in qualitative research to ensure the phenomenon of interest is included (Patton, 2002). Individuals included in this study were identified using purposive, convenience, and snowball sampling methods. These sampling methods will be explained next.

In purposive sampling subjects are selected because they have a key characteristic (Patton, 2002). An example of such a characteristic is an award win. Purposive sampling is typically used in in-depth investigations in a small number of communities (Bowen, 2009). Purposive sampling is a means to increase the range of

data to ensure divergent examples are included, thus facilitating comparisons. In this research, the key characteristic subjects share is a national work-related award win for an individual contribution.

The list of awarding organisations from the first study was used as a guide to identify potential participants. In most instances, names of award winners are available on the awarding organisations' web site and these individuals' names were added to a list of winners. To identify further suitable participants, LinkedIn, an online business-oriented social networking service that provides an individual's career history, was used. LinkedIn provides an unobtrusive method to identify potential participants and understand individuals' backgrounds. In this manner, an informed approach to interviewing is used (Richards, 2009).

Convenience sampling methods were used to identify individual winners to include in the sample for interviewing. In convenience sampling the sample is selected because participants are easily accessible. Initially, winners of awards from awarding organisations in the first study were selected because these organisations were familiar and names of award winners were published on the organisations' websites. Two award organisers who participated in the semi-structured interviews in the first study provided a list of winners' names. One award organiser from the first study approached winners to determine the award winners' interest in participation in the current research. Four award winners were recruited in this manner.

Snowball sampling makes use of a referral process and is particularly useful for studying select populations (Collis & Hussey, 2009). In snowball sampling, initial participants are identified and they are then used to locate others who many possess similar characteristics. At the end of each interview, participants were asked if they knew of other winners of the same or another award who could be approached to participate in this research. A further three award winners were recruited using snowball sampling.

Identifying participants

Participants who had won awards two or more years prior to this study were identified as potential participants in this study. Because the aim of this research was to identify the career impact of winning an award, potential participants who were in earlier stages of their career were included. Individuals who won awards in later stages of their careers are often awarded a lifetime award for achievements or industry contributions.

In these instances, an award may not be expected to impact winners' career. Individuals who were entrepreneurs and worked for themselves at the time of winning their award were excluded from the study because their career path is different.

Recruiting participants

Winners were contacted directly by email or telephone at their employer or via an *InMail* that is LinkedIn's version of an e-mail. There were 11 award winners contacted by telephone who all agreed to participate in this research. There were 36 award winners approached via email. Five winners did not respond to the email invitation. The lack of response may have been because they did not receive the communication or were not interested in participating. The final list of winners were selected purposefully and opportunistically according to their suitability regarding their career stage and their availability.

Interviews

To ensure a systematic and comprehensive approach an interview guide listing interview questions was prepared (see Appendix 4). Following an interview guide helps ensure the same basic lines of inquiry when interviewing different people (Patton, 2002). By asking the same question of each participant, the interviewer's judgement in the interview is reduced. By following the same pattern, data analysis is easier because it makes it possible to find and compare each participant's answers to the same questions faster.

The interview guide contained a range of questions about the award and the participants' career history before and after winning the award. Winners were asked why they entered the award, what was involved in the nomination process and what happened after the nomination. Winners were then asked about how they learned they had won the award and how they felt about winning. Using the awards process and a chronological flow to guide the sequence of questions facilitated comparison of answers across different awards and participants. Answers to questions were followed up with a probing question: "What else?"

Interviews were either face-to-face or via telephone for geographically dispersed award winners. Advantages of telephone interviews were reduced travel cost and time (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). One disadvantage of telephone interviews is the lack of visual cues, which has potential to undermine interview quality. Regular validation or

reinforcing key discussion points to verify understanding was used to overcome a problem of this nature.

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with 42 award winners. Interviews were conducted between November 2012 and May 2014. There were 24 (57%) female award winners and 18 (43%) male award winners. These individual award winners had won awards between 2006 and 2012 and between one and five years had elapsed between participants winning their award and participating in this research. Table 10 presents demographic details of interview participants including their gender, awarding organisation type, year in which the award was won and how the winner was nominated. In the interviews, winners were asked about their career history prior to and post winning their award. Answers to these questions about the winners' career were used to determine the career stage at the time winners won the award and their career stage at the time of the interview. Career stage is labelled as traditional, boundaryless or protean and is presented in Table 10.

Interviews lasted between 40 and 60 minutes. To conform to Macquarie University's ethics requirements, at the start of each interview, confidentiality and anonymity was assured. Interviewees were asked for permission to audio tape the dialogue to provide accurate recollection of information. No interviewees refused to be taped and they quickly lost any inhibitions about being recorded once the initial questions about their background were asked.

In this section, data collection steps were outlined. In the next section, steps to analyse the data are provided. These steps include coding and thematic analysis.

Table 10 Individual winner demographics

Pseudonym	Gender	Year of award	Type of awarding organisation	Nomination	Career stage	Career type at award win	Career type at interview
Bea	Female	2011	Professional organisation 1	100% other[1]	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Craig	Male	2008	Professional organisation 1	100% other	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Neil	Male	2009	Professional organisation 1	100% other	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Sharon	Female	2010	Professional organisation 1	100% other	Establishment	Linear	Boundaryless
Christine	Female	2010	Professional organisation 2	Many[2]	Exploration	Linear	Boundaryless
Roxanne	Female	2011	Professional organisation 2	Many	Establishment	Protean	Boundaryless
Sybil	Female	2010	Professional organisation 2	Many	Maintenance	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Merrick	Male	2011	Professional organisation 3	Many	Establishment	Protean	Protean
David	Male	2008	Industry publication 1	100% other	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Ingrid	Female	2008	Industry publication 1	100% other	Exploration	Linear	Linear
Nicholas	Male	2009	Industry publication 1	Many	Establishment	Linear	Linear
Rowan	Male	2010	Industry publication 1	Self[3]	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Delia	Female	2012	Professional organisation 4	Many	Exploration	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Leon	Male	2008	Professional organisation 4	Many	Establishment	Linear	Protean
Rachelle	Female	2009	Professional organisation 4	Many	Establishment	Protean	Linear
Raoul	Male	2011	Professional organisation 4	Many	Establishment	Protean	Boundaryless
Sarah	Female	2009	Professional organisation 4	Many	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Alice	Female	2008	Industry publication 2	Many	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Ellen	Female	2007	Industry publication 2	Self	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Larry	Male	2012	Industry publication 2	Many	Establishment	Linear	Linear
Racheal	Female	2011	Industry publication 2	Many	Establishment	Linear	Boundaryless
Pat	Mark	2010	Professional organisation 5	Self	Maintenance	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Jeanette	Female	2010	Other – Corporate host 1	Many	Maintenance	Boundaryless	Boundaryless

Jackie	Female	2012	Other – Corporate host 1	100% other	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Laura	Female	2009	Other – Corporate host 1	100% other	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Bob	Male	2009	Professional organisation 6	Self	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Peter	Male	2008	Professional organisation 6	Self	Establishment	Protean	Protean
Kim	Female	2010	Professional organisation 6	Self	Establishment	Linear	Linear
Jonas	Male	2010	Industry publication 3	Many	Establishment	Linear	Linear
Candice	Female	2009	Other – Corporate host 2	Self	Establishment	Linear	Linear
Andy	Male	2011	Other – Corporate host 2	100% other	Establishment	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Leanne	Female	2009	Other – Corporate host 2	Self	Establishment	Linear	Linear
Lisa	Female	2011	Professional organisation 7	100% other	Exploration	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Penny	Female	2007	Professional organisation 7	Many	Establishment	Boundaryless	Entrepreneur
Yolanda	Female	2008	Professional organisation 7	Self	Exploration	Boundaryless	Protean
Albert	Male	2007	Professional organisation 8	Many	Establishment	Boundaryless	Entrepreneur
Carson	Male	2011	Professional organisation 8	Many	Establishment	Boundaryless	Entrepreneur
Claudia	Female	2006	Professional organisation 8	100% other	Exploration	Boundaryless	Boundaryless
Brian	Male	2010	Government organisation	100% other	Maintenance	Linear	Linear
Naomi	Female	2009	Government organisation	Many	Maintenance	Linear	Linear
Philip	Male	2011	Government organisation	Self	Maintenance	Protean	Linear
Verity	Female	2008	Government organisation	Many	Maintenance	Protean	Protean

[1] Winner was not involved in their nomination.

[2] Winner was involved in their nomination after a third party initiated the process. More than one person was a part of the nomination.

[3] Winner self-nominated.

4.3   Data analysis

In this section, analysis of qualitative data in the current research is outlined. Interview transcription is explained. Thematic analysis is described and how such analyses was conducted in this study is addressed.

4.3.1   Qualitative data analysis

A qualitative research approach is able to generate in-depth knowledge and understanding from a relatively small sample (Patton, 2002). "[T]hick description" (Geertz, 1973, p. 3) of data provides the reader with an opportunity to both understand the phenomenon under study and to determine their own interpretations regarding meaning and implication (Patton, 2002).

The aim of qualitative data analysis is to decontextualise the data into collections of related categories or themes before then recontextualising the data to make sense of the phenomenon under study (Richards, 2002). This approach involves a process of data reduction and refinement to allow communication and connection with the data followed by facilitation of comprehension of the phenomena (Basit, 2003).

Thematic analysis is a means to identify, analyse and report patterns or themes in data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is considered theoretically free which is appropriate in this early research into awards. A benefit of thematic analysis is its flexibility and usefulness to provide a rich and detailed account of the data while maintaining the complexity of qualitative data analysis. Thematic analysis followed the step-by-step guide from Braun and Clarke (2006) and is described next.

Phase 1: Familiarising yourself with the data

Audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed because transcription is a part of the "interpretive qualitative process" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 177). Each interview was played back twice to review and edit the transcriptions for accuracy to remain as true to the conversation as possible (Bazeley, 2007). Transcripts were read several times to help ensure accuracy. This step provided the added advantage of reliving the interview allowing "the social and emotional aspects of the interview situation [to be] present or reawakened" (Bazeley, 2007, p. 180). Initial ideas were noted.

Interview transcripts were loaded into QSR NVivo version 10 to perform data analysis and assist with organising and storing of data. NVivo is beneficial in data

analysis as it allows greater accuracy and transparency (Welsh, 2002). NVivo offers faster and more comprehensive inquiry into the data (Basit, 2003). Finally, Nvivo assists with the management of ideas and the search for patterns in the data (Bazeley, 2007).

Phase 2: Generating initial codes

Thematic analysis was facilitated in NVivo where initial codes were created. A code is a "word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data" (Saldaña, 2009, p. 3). Coding provides a means to connect with data, to identify core meanings (Patton, 2002) and facilitates comprehension of the phenomena (Basit, 2003). Coding involved both inductive and deductive process where some codes such as *promotion* or *career satisfaction* were determined by theory (i.e. deductively) and other codes were data driven such as *recognition*. Data was coded in a consistent manner across the entire data set and data related to each code was collated.

Phase 3: Searching for themes

Themes or patterns in the data were identified in an inductive or *bottom up* approach. An inductive approach means the themes identified are strongly linked to the data themselves (Patton, 2002). Identification of themes occurred from reading and thinking about the interviews and interview transcripts and creating links between themes/threads, concepts and ideas. These themes were grouped together and then checked for patterns and for variability and consistency. In summary, thematic analysis involves searching across the interviews of award winners to find repeated patterns of meaning (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Phase 4: Reviewing themes

As is common amongst qualitative data researchers, findings were analysed by switching between data and concepts (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). Initially, descriptive or first-level coding was employed (Richards & Morse, 2007) and data was coded according to award events (for example, nomination process) and actions (for example, winner announcement). This first-level coding included identification of a few words or sentences with sufficient surrounding text to provide the context in which the word or theme was used.

Topic or thematic coding was the second type of coding and included collection of material by concept or theme. Examples include different experiences winners spoke about such as surprise or increased confidence. Searching for similarities and differences between interviews provided a further means to identify themes (Richards & Morse, 2007).

Phase 5: Defining and naming themes

While coding, both lumper and splitter techniques were used (Bazeley, 2007). For example, in an early iteration of coding, all comments about career success were coded (lumped) at a node defined as *career success*. In subsequent rounds of coding, sub-nodes were identified and developed. This allowed further refinement of the node and naming of themes. One example is the nodes for *pay* and *promotion*. A sample of coding used in this thesis is provided in Appendix 5.

Techniques of qualitative research are sometimes considered looping or cyclical because the researcher learns from the data and is required to revisit earlier steps that were engaged before the researcher's understanding developed (Richards, 2009). In practice, this meant when new themes were identified in later interviews, the first interviews needed to be processed and coded again with these new themes and codes from the later interviews in mind. These early interviews were treated as new and coded afresh. Because of the time between first coding of early interviews and later re-coding, this step provided an opportunity to check for researcher consistency between early coding and later coding.

NVivo software was critical in allowing the review of all content already coded to a particular topic. NVivo allowed the review of the context of the coding by returning to the original document. Coding in this manner with NVivo allows ideas and issues to emerge freely without restrictions of fitting data into established categories. The software permitted relatively easy reporting and reflection. Detailed memos with reflections about awards, individual winners, award processes, and winner experiences were developed and maintained throughout coding. These types of memos are recommended by a number of qualitative researchers (for example, Bazeley, 2007; Saldaña, 2009) to document and reflect on the coding process and themes and sub-themes as they develop.

As discussed above, coding proceeded while new data was collected and new themes and concepts emerged. Analysis of qualitative data is not separate from the

process of collecting data and the integration of these two processes is one of the strengths of qualitative research (Richards & Morse, 2007). Results from this analysis are presented next.

4.4 Results

Findings from the qualitative interviews with award winners are presented in this section. There were three research questions. They are:

2.1 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?

2.2 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

2.3 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

There were 42 semi-structured interviews that followed a similar pattern. The result was a detailed account of winners' award history and their experience of winning an externally-granted national work-related award, generating a large volume of rich and descriptive information. First, further information about the award winners is provided. Then, findings are organised and presented with objective measures of career success presented before subjective measures of career success.

4.4.1 Background to the awards won by interviewees

In this section, information about the awards won by the interviewees is provided. The awarding organisations are presented first. Findings are then presented using the award taxonomy developed in the first study in this thesis. Specifically, from the pre-award stage, eligibility criteria are reported. From the compete stage, both nomination and judging are presented. Winner announcement from the celebrate stage together with post-award activities are presented. Results in this section are not attributed to individual winners to ensure confidentiality and anonymity are maintained.

Awarding organisations

Award winners received their awards from one of 14 different organisations. There were four different type of organisations: Professional organisations, industry publications, corporate hosts and government organisations. First, professional organisations are typically non-profit organisations and aim to further a profession. Awards from eight different professional organisations are included in this study. Second, industry publications are serial or periodic publications that focus on a specific industry or industry segment. Awards from three industry publications are included in this study. Third, some industries are represented by a single corporate organisation who host awards. Awards from two corporate hosts are included in this research. Fourth, independent government statutory bodies or agencies work at the national level to develop and regulate industry policies. These organisations recognise individuals' contributions. Awards from one government organisation is included in this research. Individual winners were selected from each of these organisations and are identified in Table 11. Most individual winners included in this research had received their awards from professional organisations.

Table 11 Awarding organisations and individual award winners in this study

Awarding organisation type	Number of organisations	Number of winners
Professional organisation	8	23
Industry publication	3	9
Other - Corporate host	2	6
Government organisation	1	4

Eligibility criteria

Awards included in this research had a variety of qualifying criteria to limit who may be nominated. Some awards included requirements about a nominee's employment status. An example is the type of company the individual works for or the individual's role. Some awards exist specifically for individuals in the early part of their career and include limitations related to a nominee's age. For example, an award nominee must be 35 or under at the time of the award ceremony. In this study, 22 (52%) of the participants won awards with such criteria. The breakdown of these participants by

132

award criteria are presented in Table 12. Beyond age or experience, further eligibility criteria were industry or award specific.

Table 12 Number of award winner interviewees where age is a criterion

Awarding organisation type	Age criteria	No age criteria
Professional organisation	15	8
Industry publication	5	4
Other - Corporate host	2	4
Government organisation	-	4

Nomination

Depending on the awarding organisation's rules, award winners may be self-nominated, nominated by another person entirely or have some involvement after the nomination has been initiated by a third party. The third party may be a person in the winner's human resource or marketing department, their manager or some other senior person, a client, a peer or colleague.

Of the 42 award winners in this study, nine (21%) nominated themselves and 12 (29%) were not involved in any way with their award nomination. The remaining 21 (50%) award winners were involved in their nomination after a third party initiated the process. Table 13 presents a summary of these figures.

Table 13 Nomination process initiation

Awarding organisation type	Self nominated	Other person (100%)	Both self and other
Professional organisation	5	6	12
Industry publication	2	2	5
Other – Corporate host	1	3	2
Government organisation	1	1	2

Employers' involvement in the nomination process varied. One winner's employer had both their marketing department and a public relations expert involved in the preparation of the award submission documentation. In contrast, other employers had no knowledge of the award until after the award announcement. Similarly, where

there was a cost to participate in the award the cost was borne by employers in some instances and by individuals in other cases. Cost to participate varied and AUD$660 was the highest entry fee.

Judging

Winners seldom knew details about the award judges. Most winners were unaware of how the judges were selected or the number of judges involved in selecting the winner. In some instances winners knew the identity of some or all of the judges. Most winners reported no awareness or only a vague awareness of the judging process. The few winners who reported knowing the judging process had either participated in the award before (three participants) or had friends or colleagues who had participated (four participants).

Winner announcement and post-award activities

All awards in this study announced the winners either at a gala function specifically to announce award winners or at an industry conference. Winners' involvement with the awarding organisation subsequent to the award varied. Some winners had no involvement. Winners who were involved reported attending industry events hosted by the awarding organisation, or speaking, writing or blogging on behalf of the awarding organisation.

Throughout the rest of this chapter a number of verbatim power and proof quotations have been included to illustrate the findings (Pratt, 2008). The value of verbatim quotes is that the data is presented in its original form and the influence of a researcher's interpretation is limited. However, bias is not completely eliminated because the researcher still decides which quotations to include. Quotations included may be longer power quotes and are included because they are so eloquent they cannot be paraphrased without losing their full meaning. These quotes have been selected because they illustrate the thoughts and feelings of the participants or the specific details of an individual winner's experiences. Proof quotes may be shorter and illustrate the prevalence of findings (Pratt, 2008).

In the forthcoming results, to maintain anonymity, power and proof quotes are followed by a pseudonym and a code to identify each participants. There are three parts to the code. First, the code includes the awarding organisation type. Professional organisations are abbreviated "Prof". Industry publications are abbreviated "Publ". A

corporate host is abbreviated "Host". A government organisation is abbreviated "Govt". The number after the abbreviation indicates which awarding organisation. Second, the code indicates whether the award criteria are limited to young or early career individuals or whether the award was open to all (Ltd or All). Third, the code includes whether the winner was self-nominated (Self), had no part to play in their nomination (Other) or were nominated or suggested to nominate and subsequently completed the nomination themselves (Many). An example of an identifier code is Bob (Prof6-Ltd-Self). In this instance, Bob is a winner of an award from professional organisation where the award criteria required he be of a particular age. He self-nominated for this award. These identifying codes are used next where results related to winners' career orientation are reported first followed by winners' career success experiences.

4.4.2   Career orientation

At the time of winning, there were 22 participants with boundaryless career types, 13 with traditional or linear career type and seven with protean career types (see Table 10). Between winning their award and participating in this research 11 participants changed their career orientation. Of these 11, only three reported the award played a role in their career transitions. One winner, Leon (Prof4-All-Many), with no formal higher education before his award, credited the award for his decision to study an MBA. He believed having the award helped him qualify for the MBA programme because he had less than the required minimum of three years of management experience. His career developed from a traditional linear career in hospitality to a protean career in consulting and research. A second winner, Bob (Prof6-Ltd-Self), changed from a linear traditional career to a boundaryless career with the help from a reference from one of the awarding judges. A third winner, Raoul (Prof4-All-Many), with an early protean career in tourism and banking, said his career changed after he was approached by a recruitment company who identified him through the award. He moved to a similar role in a different organisation and his career would now be considered boundaryless.

These changes to winners' career orientation address the first research question in study two, which is:

2.1   How does winning an external work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?

The first major finding was the general lack of impact of the award on the winners' career orientation with few exceptions. Other than the three instances where award winners reported the award played a role in their career transitions, award winners did not report the award had a significant impact on their career. However, there were several ways the award contributed to winners' career success measures and these are presented next.

4.4.3   Objective career success measures

Career success is the individual's real and perceived achievements as a result of their work experiences. Traditional measures of career success include compensation and organisational position or promotion. Compensation is a traditional objective indicator of career success. In this section, compensation includes salary or wage changes, bonuses from employers, and prizes the winner might receive from the awarding organisation. Findings regarding the award winners' performance appraisals are included because objective career success indicators such as pay increases and promotions may be discussed in performance appraisals.

Performance appraisals

The award win was discussed in subsequent performance appraisals of 11 award winners. For two award winners, Kerryn (Prof6-Ltd-Self) and Kareena (Prof7-Ltd-Many), their managers reluctantly addressed their award win. Of these two winners, one had nominated herself for the award she won and her manager felt the award was an "inconvenience". The second winner had been nominated by a third party outside of her employer's organisation and her manager felt the work for which she had won the award was a distraction from her role at work.

Some award winners discussed the similarities and differences between the award process and performance appraisal process. Martin (Prof3-Ltd-Many) compared an award with a performance appraisal:

They [performance appraisals] can be as long or as short as you make them. The amount of rigour that goes into those depends on the quality and ability of your manager and the time they have…. there was more self-reflection going on in the awards than in the 12 monthly review. A lot of the time those reviews [with your manager] are tied to bonuses so you want to be reflective but not too reflective.

136

Several winners likened the award process to a more intensive and encompassing performance appraisal. They reported finding this process valuable. Richard (Prof4-All-Many) thought the award made him look at his career and his achievements in a different way when compared to the performance appraisal process. He saw the award process as an opportunity to examine critically a person's career and achievements. Richard thought the award was less risky and there was no downside. He believed that irrespective of the outcome from participating in an award the individual would still have a role to return to at the end.

Employer-provided salary or wage

Most award winners reported no change in their employer-provided compensation because of the award. A small number of winners (Neil (Prof1-All-Other); Isabel (Publ1-All-Many); Rowan (Publ1-All-Self); Mark (Prof5-All-Self)) believed their award might have made a small contribution to their subsequent salary increase. Martin (Prof3-Ltd-Many) successfully used the award and associated press coverage in a business case for a pay rise. Jan (Host1-All-Winner +1) took on a role in a new not-for-profit organisation and received a commensurate salary increase. Susan (Prof2-All-Many) attributed her next salary increase to the work she had done for which she won the award. These examples were the exceptions with most award winners not receiving any salary increase as a result of winning.

> Some award winners were actively discouraged from discussing the award in relation to their salary:

> I had my manager both before and after winning the [award name] make the point several times to me … saying to me "if you happen to win, don't hit me up for a pay rise when it comes to your end-of-year review. Don't even think about it" … I had been told very explicitly that I was not to use it as leverage to try and grab any extra pay (Richard (Prof4-All-Many)).

Another winner, Samantha (Prof4-All-Many), found her manager felt she deserved the recognition but the award was not worthy of a pay increase:

> Yes, it was a case of "congratulations, you deserved the recognition". As far as a pay review … just because you've won an award does not mean you deserve more money … that was a little bit of a sticky point.

Bonuses from employers

Only two award winners reported receiving a bonus from their employer as a direct result of winning the award. Verity (Govt-All-Many), who had been nominated by her manager, received a AUD$500 gift card. Penny (Prof7-Ltd-Many), who had been nominated by a peer, received a AUD$10,000 bonus to fund an international work-related trip.

Jackie (Host1-All-Other) explained the lack of a bonus or reward: "It's not like the Olympics where you win a gold medal and get $70,000". One other winner, nominated by her human resources department, received a gift from her employer in the form of an engraved pen (Rachelle (Prof4-All-Many)). Most award winners did not receive a bonus as a result of winning.

Prizes from awarding organisations

Prizes or rewards from the awarding organisation were most often in the form of a trophy or certificate. Only one winner reported not receiving anything. Philip (Govt1-All-Self) indicated somewhat cynically that the more substantial the trophy the more valuable it is: "Now when I brought this award back, it came in a suitcase, it was that big. You know, it weighed a ton. It's one inch of glass, so it's [a] really prestigious award".

Fifteen (36%) award winners received prizes in addition to a certificate or trophy from the respective awarding organisations. Of the 15 award winners who received prizes, 12 were recipients of awards for young achievers. Seven of the awarding organisations in this study offered prizes beyond certificates or trophies. The prizes are listed in Table 14.

Table 14 Award winners' prizes from awarding organisations

- A week-long all-expenses paid trip to New York to meet and work with industry leaders (Bea (Prof1-Ltd-Other); Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other); David (Publ1-All-Other)).
- $2,000* for travel to an industry conference or for professional development (Christine (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many)).
- $10,000 cash (Jeanette (Host1-All-Many)).
- $5,000 cash and $5,000 towards further education (Jackie (Host1-All-Other); Laura (Host1-All-Other)).
- All expenses paid international study tours traveling to the UK and USA to meet and work with international industry leaders. Estimated cost $15,000 - $20,000 (Bob (Prof6-Ltd-Self); Peter (Prof6-Ltd-Self); Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self)).
- $5,000 worth of prizes including an iPad and executive coaching (Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many)).
- An education grant to the value of $8,000 (Albert (Prof8-Ltd-Many); Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many); Claudia (Prof8-Ltd-Other)).

* Values are in Australian dollars

Three awarding bodies, Prof1, Prof6 and Publ1, offered international work or study tours. Only winners from one organisation, Prof6, had used the award and undertaken the overseas tour. David (Publ1-All-Other) exchanged his prize for cash which he used to fund a temporary move to another country. Bea (Prof1-Ltd-Other) exchanged her prize for paid post-graduate study. Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other), who won her award in 2010, had postponed her trip on multiple occasions.

Aside from prizes, some awarding organisations pay for finalists and their partners' travel to and from the award function destination. All awarding organisations except for one provide finalists and their partners with complementary tickets to the award event. The one exception requires the winner to attend the award event or potentially forfeit the prize.

Organisational position or promotions

Internal promotions. Thirteen winners were promoted in their organisation after winning their award. For those award winners who reported a promotion after winning the award, four believed the award played a role in their promotion. Of these four, Pat

(Prof5-All-Self), reported the award provided evidence of his "eminence" in his field, which was a criterion in his promotion requirements. Bob (Prof6-Ltd-Self) credited an accelerated succession plan and two subsequent promotions to the relationships he formed because of the award. Leon (Prof4-All-Many) felt his promotion application was harder to reject because of the award. Finally, Naomi (Govt1-All-Many) credited the award with the change in her contract role to a permanent position. Some participants such as Delia (Prof4-All-Many) and Pat (Prof5-All-Self) reported an increase in confidence, which they believed contributed to subsequent promotions.

Expanded roles and responsibilities. Some award winners have taken on coaching or mentoring roles for nominees in subsequent years (for example, Sarah (Prof4-All-Many), Delia (Prof4-All-Many) and Peter (Prof6-Ltd-Self)). The new roles meant the award winners had to broaden their skills to coach and mentor others through their award submission and presentation preparation. These winners had to learn how to consult on topics related to the award.

Subsequent employer changes. One award winner who is a human resource manager identified an award as a useful event to initiate the process of looking for a new role with a different employer. An award win is a good time because people had heard your name and know who you were. Although 24 winners changed employers after winning an award, no one felt the new role was entirely the result of the award. Both Larry (Publ2-Ltd-Many) and Peter (Prof6-Ltd-Self) felt the award distinguished them from non-winners. Table 15 shows how awards were used.

Table 15 Award use in subsequent employer changes

- To distinguish the winner from other potential candidates in the recruitment process
- To identify winners who were then contacted via head-hunters through LinkedIn records or other means
- As a topic of discussion in the recruitment process and in interviews in particular
- By employers who identified winners as someone they would like to recruit and approached them directly for other roles.

Some winners commented that finding a role at a new employer was harder than they expected (Craig (Prof1-Ltd-Other); Christine (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Raoul (Prof4-All-Many)). These individuals had expected the award would

lead to automatic interest from potential employers and a smoother or easier process. In some instances, the award was not mentioned or recognised at all which surprised and disappointed some winners (Christine (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many)).

Some winners who changed employers (Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many); Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self); Neil (Prof1-All-Other); Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other)) were introduced to staff in the new organisation or clients as being a national award winner. Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many) felt this type of introduction was a double-edged sword. On the one hand, the winner benefits from immediate credibility but at the same time becomes a "target" because they are seen as ambitious and aggressive.

Both Leon (Prof4-All-Many) and Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self) realised there were different opportunities available to them they had not considered before their award win. As reported earlier, Leon (Prof4-All-Many) decided to study for an MBA and changed industries and careers. He credited the award with the idea of an MBA. The award helped him qualify to enter the MBA program. Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self) studied and wrote a paper on strategy in her industry as a part of the award process. This study resulted in her identifying a new interest in strategy together with the realisation that roles in strategy exist in her industry.

Some award winners' employers use the award for their own purposes. For example, in marketing campaigns (Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self)), tenders for new business (Lisa (Prof7-Ltd-Other)) or to attract and recruit talent (Neil (Prof1-All-Other)).

These changes to the winners' objective career success measures address the second research question in study two, which is:

2.2   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

In summary, results from interviews with award winners regarding their objective career success revealed winning an external work-related award has little impact on objective career success measures. Promotions and changes to winners' roles and responsibilities subsequent to their award win were limited. Award use in subsequent employer changes was also limited. Most award winners received no salary increase or bonus. Besides objective extrinsic career success, career success may be subjective and intrinsic. Subjective career success is presented next.

4.4.4 Subjective career success measures

Although an individual's career success is often measured by traditional indicators and objective measures, there is growing recognition of the importance of internal or subjective measures. These measures include the individual's feelings about their accomplishments. Award winners reported changes in their career satisfaction, the recognition they received, their confidence, credibility and in expectations regarding their performance. These findings are reported next.

Career satisfaction

Irrespective of the award, participants reported experiencing career satisfaction as a result of different things including the work they do (Jeanette (Host1-All-Many); Jackie (Host1-All-Other); Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many); Rachelle (Prof4-All-Many); Larry (Publ2-Ltd-Many)), the results they get (Neil (Prof1-All-Other); Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many)), the team's performance (Sarah (Prof4-All-Many)), and customer feedback (Candice (Host2-All-Self)).

When asked how participants felt when their name was read out at the awards event, all indicated some sense of satisfaction. Examples in Table 16 illustrate the prevalence of winners' pleasure.

Table 16 Award winners' reported reactions

- "Pretty amazing" Craig (Prof1-Ltd-Other)
- "Really chuffed" Neil (Prof1-All-Other)
- "Delighted" Sybil (Prof2-All-Many)
- "Very surprised and a little bit speechless" Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many)
- "It was great, it was exciting" David (Publ1-All-Other)
- "I was stoked" Nicholas (Publ1-All-Many)
- "I was pleased" Rowan (Publ1-All-Self)
- "I was very humbled. Embarrassed at the same time and excited at the same time." Delia (Prof4-All-Many)
- "I was speechless, absolutely speechless… I was beside myself" Leon (Prof4-All-Many)
- "I was shocked. It was a brilliant feeling" Rachelle (Prof4-All-Many)
- "Nervous, happy, and like I wanted to vomit all in the one go" Sarah (Prof4-All-Many)
- "Delighted. Obviously" Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self)

- "Pretty good. Pretty good" Larry (Publ2-Ltd-Many)
- "It was fantastic" Pat (Prof5-All-Self)
- "A little taken aback… elated" Bob (Prof6-Ltd-Self)
- "Awesome. Ecstatic" Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self)
- "I was amazed" Naomi (Govt1-All-Many)
- "It's a phenomenal feeling" Philip (Govt1-All-Self)
- "Blown away. I couldn't believe it" Verity (Govt1-All-Many).

With respect to the impact of winning an award on career satisfaction there were different experiences and outcomes. For some participants career satisfaction resulted from changes after the award rather than the award itself. For example, Sarah (Prof4-All-Many), Bob (Prof6-Ltd-Self) and Peter (Prof6-Ltd-Self) had taken on coaching and mentoring roles and reported career satisfaction from these activities rather than the award. Similarly, because of her award, Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many) had the opportunity to work in other parts of the business and Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self) had been able to take on board roles. Both these women reported satisfaction resulting from these additional activities.

For one individual, the award had far-reaching results in terms of her satisfaction with her career choice. Prior to winning, Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self) had felt disappointed with her decision to work in the industry she chose. The award turned these feelings around:

> It's greatly impacted my satisfaction. That was the point that I stopped feeling ashamed to be working in [industry name]. The award made me quite proud of the industry I work in. And after winning that, I no longer look outside [the industry]. I don't think I've considered another career path. I've certainly thought about jumping ship from [employer] and working for other businesses but I don't consider myself anything other than [an employee of this industry] because of it [the award] which is quite satisfying.

For some, the career satisfaction was short-lived. Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self), Delia (Prof4-All-Many) and David (Publ1-All-Other) felt satisfied at the time of winning only. For Peter (Prof6-Ltd-Self) the award was forgotten the next day or even "by the afternoon it was kind of just yesterday's news" (Nicholas (Publ1-All-Many)).

Career satisfaction also stemmed from other feelings. Some winners valued the recognition they received after winning their award. Others felt validated, more confident and more credible because of the award, which resulted in enhanced career satisfaction. These findings are provided next.

Recognition

Several interviewed award winners believed the award is recognition of a range of things. Some winners felt the award was recognition of the passion they felt for the work they do (Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other); Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self); Albert (Prof8-Ltd-Many); Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many)). For example, Leanne commented, "the award is recognition of what I love, not reason to love what I do". Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other) appreciated the recognition of her hard work on the broader "industry stage" rather than just in her business unit. For Christine (Prof2-Ltd-Many) the award was national recognition for her individual contribution to the industry. David (Publ1-All-Other) felt the award was recognition for achieving particular results or excelling at something. Sybil (Prof2-All-Many) felt the award indicated her work is important, valuable and of interest to others. Jeanette (Host1-All-Many) thought it was the practices and processes that had been inspected by an outside organisation and chosen as the best in the field that had been recognised.

A number of participants felt winning their award said or signalled something about them to others. The award indicated the winner was good at what they do, an expert and an achiever. Table 17 presents messages or signals some participants believed the award communicates.

Awards also send signals to the winner. Winners see the award as a signal of acceptance and belonging as it serves as a "red stamp of approval" from the industry (David (Publ1-All-Other). The award indicates the winner is a part of a "circle of winners and accepted by the [profession] community" (Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self)). The award places the winner "in a group of [profession] leaders who are considered to be amongst the brightest and the best in Australia" (Sybil (Prof2-All-Many)). Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many) had a background in elite sport and she likened the award to being picked for an Australian team.

Table 17 Signals an award sends to others

- You are obviously good at what you do (Bea (Prof1-Ltd-Other))
- You're the best in your field. That you are worth listening to (Craig (Prof1-Ltd-Other))
- You're an expert (Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other))
- [This person has] attained that level of eminence (Pat (Prof5-All-Self))
- [The award is] an official certification that you are an achiever (David (Publ1-All-Other)).

Recognition from others. Participants reported receiving recognition from peers and colleagues and many felt this recognition was the most satisfying and valuable outcome from the award. Some reported the "celebration" at work the day after their win (Christine (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Laura (Host1-All-Other)) and "balloons at my desk" (Leon (Prof4-All-Many)). One winner, Penny (Prof7-Ltd-Many)) returned to work to find her colleagues had photo copied the newspaper article reporting her win "about 800 times" and her office was covered in these copied announcements. Some award winners were recognised by CEOs and managers with emails announcing the individual's award win being sent to all staff. One participant, Christine (Prof2-Ltd-Many), who worked for a large multinational finance organisation at the time of winning her award received a phone call from the CEO of the company to congratulate her and this was, even years later, a highlight of the award win. Award winners received recognition from clients (Pat (Prof5-All-Self); Jackie (Host1-All-Other)), the community (Laura (Host1-All-Other)) and peer organisations (Naomi (Govt1-All-Many)).

A few award winners spoke of the recognition they received from their family as being particularly valuable. David (Publ1-All-Other) reflected:

> When an older brother would call up and say "David, you are in the newspaper".... So, that to me, was, I think, the thing that stands out the most. Not that when you Google and still see your name listed on a publication. I think that [recognition from family] adds real satisfaction to my personal life.

Some award winners who had found it difficult to explain their role and the work they do to family and friends used the award as evidence of their success. Kim

(Prof6-Ltd-Self) recounted the impact of the award on the way her mother recognised her:

> I went to an all-girls Catholic school and my mother was quite certain that I was going to be the first person in her family to go to university. She was quite embarrassed at the fact that I worked for [an organisation type] and that I gave up uni to do that. So winning the [award name] she finally stopped feeling - whatever you want to call it, I don't know what the word is - disappointed in her daughter. She spent many years whinging that her extremely intelligent daughter could have been so much more.

Winners valued being able to share the excitement of the award with friends and family.

Benefits of recognition. Awards are a form of evidence, a "proven fact that no one can take away from you" (David (Publ1-All-Other)). Starting in a new role is one instance where a recognised award may be useful in setting others' expectations and ensuring others see the winner as an expert. Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other) was able to command attention and respect because of the recognition she received when the award was mentioned in introductions:

> If I had come into [company name] and no one knew much about me, they just knew that I had worked at [previous employer] for seven years, I probably would have had to prove myself before they started to listen to me. But because my entry into [current employer] was "this is the winner of the Young [Role Name]", they were kind of like "ah, you're good at this sort of thing, [and would ask] what do you think?"

Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many) found that subsequent to his award win he was taken more seriously at work and people were more responsive to him and his requests.

In some industries, an award affects the organisation and the people the winner works with. Jeanette (Host1-All-Many) went on to receive seed funding for the work she was doing. She later received government funding for the work. Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many) felt the award played a role in him securing meetings with state departments. However, both Jeanette and Carson were careful to highlight it was the work they had done that helped them secure interviews with government parties rather than the award.

Problems with recognition. Not all winners celebrated their award the next day. Albert (Prof8-Ltd-Many) found himself back at work the next day doing "what got you

146

the award in the first place". The experience of receiving public recognition and specifically being in the spotlight in front of her peers at the awards function was "daunting" (Delia (Prof4-All-Many)) and "overwhelming" (Rachelle (Prof4-All-Many)). Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many) did not like being called "the golden boy" although he found the award useful to get what he wanted. Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many) felt the award made her a target, which echoed Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many) who found people reported anything he had done or said and if other people disagreed they would speak up:

> I was at an international conference this year. I was presenting on some of the work we had done. A lady who I'd never met before, but obviously knew who I was, came up and basically in a public forum, during question time, had a real go at me, suggesting that what I was doing was basically ruining the profession. She had obviously thought about that for a long period of time. She would not have known who I was or what I was doing unless I'd been recognised by the award nationally.

Too much recognition. Too much recognition was an issue for some. Craig (Prof1-Ltd-Other) said: "We down played it [his winning the award] on purpose because there were a lot of people who didn't get nominated who were just as good a [role name] as I was at the time". Craig and his manager did not want to upset his colleagues. The associated attention Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self) received after winning her award resulted in the breakdown of the relationship between her and her manager. Her manager found the additional opportunities such as presenting at an industry function was an inconvenience. Another individual, Neil (Prof1-All-Other), felt the award highlighted his successful career to his wife who was disappointed with her own career progress. This disparity created conflict in their marriage.

Too little recognition. Some award winners recounted a lack of recognition on their return to work. Neil (Prof1-All-Other) found it "a bit hollow when people around you don't recognise it (the award)". He was conscious he could not raise the topic of his own award without being seen as bragging, which he felt is against the Australian culture: "You don't brag about yourself no matter (what). It's the tall poppy thing – you get cut down very quickly". Consequently, he made a concerted effort to recognise subsequent winners. Philip (Govt1-All-Self) was disappointed in his manager's lack of interest in his national award:

When I went to get the expense sheet signed for going down to the awards by myself, he [his manager] just said, 'oh, yeah, how did you go?' and I said, very well, thank you. And I walked out, I didn't even show him [the award]. It was disappointing … in the end I thought 'bugger it', I didn't really want to stand there and drink French champagne with [his manager] or anybody. But that was disappointing.

Philip ascribed this lack of recognition to jealousy as his manager had submitted an unsuccessful nomination for a different award from the same awarding organisation. Philip thought the situation might have been different if the award was an organisational award rather than an award for an individual.

Validation

Some participants felt that the award validated the work they had performed was good. Participants felt their hard work and sacrifices were worthwhile. Some winners reported the award provided assurance of some kind. For Rachelle (Prof4-All-Many), the award was evidence she was "maybe" good at her job. Both Claudia (Prof8-Ltd-Other) and Penny (Prof7-Ltd-Many) felt their resolve had been strengthened with respect to their career choice and the importance of the work they were doing. Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self) felt accepted by the profession and community. One winner, Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many), reported the award came at a "pivotal" time:

I feel a great sense of misfit in this position. So what it did do is confirm that the way that I think and do is perhaps a desirable way of thinking and doing. So, it may have been the catalyst for me to stay in the profession for a little bit longer than I would have otherwise.… It became a confirmation if you like that the skillset that I have or the type of work and the way that I work is actually desired.

Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other) felt the award gave the winner "kudos that you know what you are talking about". For a select few, the award confirmed their selected profession or industry was the right choice (Craig (Prof1-Ltd-Other); Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self)). The award confirmed the winner's skills and abilities are desirable (Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many); Naomi (Govt1-All-Many)) and valuable (Sybil (Prof2-All-Many); Raoul (Prof4-All-Many)). Both David (Publ1-All-Other) and Racheal (Publ2-Ltd-Many) felt the award defined them as achievers.

For some award winners it seemed to be important that the validation was from an external source (Bea (Prof1-Ltd-Other); Delia (Prof4-All-Many); Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self); Racheal (Publ2-Ltd-Many); Jeanette (Host1-All-Many); Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self)). For Delia the external organisation validated what she was hearing internally, within her employer organisation. Racheal had been with her employer for more than ten years and was no longer certain if she was successful because of her network or because she was genuinely good at what she did. The award provided her confirmation she was a success beyond her network.

Confidence

A number of winners credited the award with new or renewed confidence at work. The external recognition led 22 winners to greater confidence in themselves and their abilities because a third party, the awarding organisation and their judges, has identified them as a high achieving and successful individual. For example, Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self) recalled the reason the external recognition was good for her:

> When I became the CEO of [association name] in 2003, I had no experience in a role like that and I really needed to work on my confidence in terms of "can I do this?", "will I rise to the challenge?" And that took some time. So getting that external recognition really helped me to believe much more in my capacity to do the job and to do it well. And to understand that maybe other people thought the same.

Both Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many) and Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many) reported the award provided assurance in times of self-doubt. For Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many) the award reassured him that "someone else thinks I am reasonably special as well so I am going to back myself, stand my ground and be confident". Pat (Prof5-All-Self) reported the award provided him with comfort and increased confidence to "chase" the promotion and subsequent career satisfaction. The award Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other) won gave her the confidence to make a "big jump" in her next career move.

In some instances, confidence came from the affirmation the winner was doing a good job. Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other) realised the recognition meant there were qualities and skills others see in him that he cannot easily identify. Roxanne (Prof2-Ltd-Many) felt the award had taken her from a person with very low self-confidence to a "normal

level of confidence". Leon (Prof4-All-Many) had no higher education and thought he would not have had the confidence to start his MBA if he had not won a national award.

Credibility

Some award winners (Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other); Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other); Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self); Jonas (Pub3-Ltd-Many)) believed there was an issue given the disparity between their youth and the senior position they held. For these individuals, winning an award provided credibility or legitimacy that despite being young they were worthy of their role. Some winners were in a position to compete and win awards with titles such as "Young Marketer of the Year" or "Young Engineer of the Year". To compete in these awards nominees must be under a particular age (for example, 35 or younger) or with a limited number of years of experience (for example, within 5 years of having graduated). These young winners use the award as evidence of the extent or level of their skill and abilities despite their youth.

For Sharon (Prof1-Ltd-Other) the award provided "legitimacy" and "validity of my experience even though I have had less experience because I am younger". Sharon believed the award equated to two years of experience: "Say a job description that asked for ten years of experience and I only have eight, but I have won the award, that gives me the extra two years that I don't have". Sharon found this credibility was particularly useful when working with a new manager. She valued this credibility when she started at a new company.

Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many), another young winner, identified the value of "street cred" the award provided. This credibility was of particular value when starting at a new company. Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other) was another young award winner. He used the award as credibility in his role as a leader of people who are older than he is. The award was useful credibility when he was managing people who "have more experience than I've been alive in some cases". Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other) was conscious he had no formal higher education. Although he did not believe the award was a substitute for education, he did feel the award provided credibility and allowed him to compete with others who had degrees.

Another young award winner was Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self). She was "young and in a senior role" and used the "validity" from an external industry organisation to support her position to people in her head office. Leanne thought the award would give

them some comfort knowing she won the award and "I know what I am doing". She used the award to build her confidence and resolve at work.

Another example of a young winner was Jonas (Pub3-Ltd-Many). Jonas was considered young for his level of seniority and tried to ignore or avoid conversations about his age. The irony of being recognised and lauded as a young winner was not lost on him. The award left him feeling uncomfortable.

David (Publ1-All-Other) spoke about the award as a "certification" the winner is an achiever who can do what is asked of them and that this leads to a level of trust. He felt this trust creates a level of engagement that builds a relationship and develops credibility. Young winners, Albert (Prof8-Ltd-Many) and Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many), also reported the award provided them with credibility.

The period an award provides credibility varies. Rowan (Publ1-All-Self) felt the value does not hold credence after a period. He felt the value of an award is "fleeting" and its "currency wanes". In contrast, organisations where Ellen (Publ2-Ltd-Self) has been employed have used her award win in marketing and promotional communications four and five years after the award win. She felt the award was especially valuable because she could take it with her when she moved to another organisation.

Performance after winning

The majority of winners interviewed did not believe the award win resulted in any changes in their performance. Some felt they were already high performers and working hard (Neil (Prof1-All-Other); Merrick (Prof3-Ltd-Many); David (Publ1-All-Other); Leon (Prof4-All-Many); Yolanda (Prof7-Ltd-Self); Carson (Prof8-Ltd-Many)). Award winners said they aimed, as always, to do their best every day (Ingrid (Publ1-All-Other); Laura (Host1-All-Other)).

Some award winners spoke of an increase in their performance. Kim (Prof6-Ltd-Self) believed her confidence had increased after the award, which had led to better performance. Another winner, Sybil (Prof2-All-Many), felt her frame of mind had changed and she reported an increase in confidence from winning. This confidence helped her to take her performance to the "next level" and to "step even more confidently into a leadership space". Alice (Publ2-Ltd-Many) used the award to expand her role to a broader business role. One winner, Leon (Prof4-All-Many) commented on feeling an increased drive to keep working.

Increase in pressure to perform

Some winners spoke of an increase in the pressure they felt to perform. Leanne (Host2-Ltd-Self) declared, "You work harder when you've got something sitting on your desk that people are asking about. You want to make sure that you live up to that". For Raoul (Prof4-All-Many) the award encouraged him to improve his performance:

> It probably forced me to lift my game and work even harder… I think you needed to prove that you, you know, you continued to deserve that award because the company wasn't going to recognise you for doing that. But I think at my peer level and to the management you needed to show that you are still worthy of that title to an extent, I think I felt that pressure and that expectation.

Nicholas (Publ1-All-Many) felt the need to ensure other people thought he was deserving of the award. Pressure to perform was also felt by Andy (Host2-Ltd-Other) who said he spent more time on preparation and felt he could not afford to make a mistake.

These changes to the winners' subjective career success measures address the third research question in study, which is:

2.3   How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

In summary, all winners reported pleasure and some excitement at hearing they had won their award. Although all winners reported some level of career satisfaction irrespective of the award win, several experienced increased career satisfaction that they attributed to their award experience. Some individuals found value in the increased recognition they experienced. However, in some instances there was either too much or too little recognition. Several winners claimed the award validated what they were doing. Most awards contributed to increased confidence and credibility in the award winner while some reported feeling an increase in pressure to perform. All award winners experienced some impact to their subjective career success.

4.5   Discussion

The aim of this second study is to identify the career impact of national, work-related awards won by individuals. One objective is to determine how winning an external work-related award may impact an individual's career orientation. The second objective

152

is to explore the impact an award win has on an individual's career success. Discussion of the findings is presented next. The impact of an award win on objective career measures is discussed first followed by the impact on subjective career success. Theoretical contributions and practical implications are explained. The discussion concludes with limitations of this study and future research suggestions.

Objective career success measures include observable, measurable and verifiable achievements such as pay, promotion and occupational status (Dries, et al., 2008). Information to assist in decisions regarding pay and promotion is often collected in performance appraisals (Beer, 1982). A reasonable expectation may be that an award win is discussed in a subsequent performance appraisal. If the award is a significant achievement bestowed by an industry-recognised body, an employee or manager may be expected to include this phenomenon in the performance appraisal process or discussion. Yet this was not the case unless the winner made a point of including the award win. The reluctance of winners' managers to discuss the award in performance appraisals was unexpected and may have been the reason so few award winners received any compensation or even a bonus. The variation in value between the two winners who did receive a bonus – one was AUD$500 and the other was AUD$10,000 - was remarkable and surprising. Most prizes from the awarding organisations were for young achievers, which is noteworthy. When accepted, prizes such as study tours and opportunities to work with some of the best in the world may be more valuable than the dollar value suggests, especially for an individual in their early career.

The absence of any promotion subsequent to winning an award may be expected. Promotions are made based on the individual's readiness to move to a next higher job (Jawahar & Ferris, 2011) and the individual is judged to be performing at the more senior level (Jackson, 2006). However, awards are often based on the winner's achievements at their existing rank. Typically, awards are historically focused with no view on future performance. Despite this, the limited number of promotions, salary increases or bonuses associated with work-related awards is unanticipated because some form of tangible reward might reasonably be expected. That the award appeared to have little impact on changes to winners' career or their employer was unexpected and a disappointment for some individuals. The award win did not appear to signal the winner was any different from the non-winners they may have been competing with for a new position. The potential long-term benefits of awards may yet be recognised (Frame, et al., 2006).

153

The parallel award winners draw between the performance appraisal process and participating in an award, and specifically the nomination process is worthy of consideration. The award nomination requires broad reflection on the individual's career and achievements beyond just the previous year as may be the case in a performance appraisal. An award is a more encompassing reflection of the individual's career and at a higher level. The award process is less risky because the reviewer or judge is external to the organisation. Non-winners may also benefit from a reflective exercise although further research is required to assess this suggestion.

Awards are used to signal success and can be a "succinct summary" of the winner as one participant called it. The award allows other people to determine that what the winner is doing is valuable and important. An award is an indication the winner is a high-achiever. Awards are useful when the role or work being recognised is specialised or difficult for others to understand. An award may be beneficial when starting in a new role because the award is a reference point for others to understand who the winner is and what they bring to the role. In this manner, awards have a strong signalling function (Frey, 2007; Frey & Neckermann, 2010). An award as a signal may help other people understand what the winner's role is or what the winner does all day. However, these other people may be no wiser about what the winner does even though the award assures others the winner is doing what they do well.

Awards provide the winner with more than just a signal to others. When asked what they received from the award, winners used words such as confidence, credibility, gravitas, kudos, encouragement, motivation and said they felt the award indicates they are the best in their field and worthy of attention. Winners' increased career satisfaction may have been because winners felt the award was recognition of the work they were doing. Award winners valued the recognition they received which led to increased confidence. Awards validated winners' work or skills. Some winners seemed to value external third party validation because it was independent. Some winners reported feeling an increase in their credibility because of their win. Credibility was of importance to those winners who were in a more senior role than would be expected given their age and experience.

The lack of recognition some winners experienced when returning to work is counterintuitive in particular when someone in the same employer initiated the nomination. As may be expected, the lack of recognition resulted in disappointment. However, not all recognition was good. Recognition at a national level or from an

impartial external organisation is unique to an award win. However, not all award winners liked being in the spotlight. Some winners reported discomfort at being the centre of attention. However, all these winners had played a role to some degree in their nomination. Some winners spoke about problems that resulted from too much recognition they received. Yet others were disappointed when there was too little recognition. Finding a balance between too much and too little will be different for each winner and may depend on the source of the recognition.

Although an award is enduring because no one can take away the award, there does appear to be a limit to the benefits. Many award winners spoke of what they felt they could or should have done after winning their award to further the benefits of winning the award. Some said they should have leveraged the award more than they had. Examples where winners had leveraged their award win included taking the opportunity to speak at industry engagements, writing for industry magazines and blogs, participating in expert groups or networking.

There appears to be a disconnect between the level of subjective career success such as satisfaction, confidence and credibility, and the paucity of objective career success. Even though winners were disappointed at the lack of objective success such as a pay rise or promotion, winners still reported a sense of subjective career success. This disconnect might be explained by considering subjective success outcomes as intrinsic rewards and objective success outcomes as extrinsic rewards. For award winners, intrinsic rewards appear to be more valuable than extrinsic.

While the award was a useful opportunity for reflection, most winners commented on the opportunity for reflection which occurred when they participated in this research. Participating in a semi-structured interview process provided time for winners to reflect on the award value. Winners had an opportunity to consider what the award means to them and the doors that may have opened as a result of winning.

The elation winners still felt about winning after the passing of time and even when their expectations were not met subsequent to the award was surprising. Although some winners expected recognition and success to happen automatically after winning, it may be predictable that those individuals who proactively or deliberately took action would have better success. Winners who proactively worked their network by expanding the number of contacts they had, learning from them, and asking for assistance spoke of greater benefits from the award. Other proactive actions include the

creation of a business case to justify a salary increase and the expansion of roles and responsibilities.

Some changes that were expected did not emerge. More winners were expected to have a change in their career orientation because of the award win. An award win often results in publicity that a winner might use to their advantage in seeking a new role. The endorsement from an objective third party is an opportunity to stand out from the crowd. There appears to be no difference in career impact if the award won is for an early career or young winner. How the winner came to be involved in the award does not appear to make any difference to the career impact of winning an award. There is no effect from nomination type on career orientation or reported career success. There are no apparent gender differences in career impacts of awards. Neither career type at the time of winning an award nor at the interview appeared to have an impact on award winners' careers.

4.5.1   Implications for theory

Theoretical contributions made by this study include the use of awards as a signal to other people of the winners' excellence and high-achievement. This contribution supports earlier findings that awards have a strong signalling function (Frey, 2007; Frey & Neckermann, 2010). Awards signal competence and success and are especially useful when a role is complex or hard to understand. Furthermore, awards are signals to those who receive the award. Winners see an award as acceptance to an elite group and provides a sense of belonging.

This study contributes to career theory and offers insight into an additional factor that has potential to alter an individual's career. Furthering one's education, for example, has the opportunity to enhance an individual's career or alter their career direction or type (Judge, et al., 2010). Considering winners through a careers theory lens might suggest winners with existing boundaryless or protean career attitudes would be more likely to promote their award win than those with traditional career attitudes. Drawing on signalling theory (Spence, 1973), the signal of winning a national, externally-granted award can be a catalyst for a change in career direction for some award winners. The signal of an award could lead to either an acceleration in a traditional career trajectory or a transition from a traditional to a boundaryless or protean careers mindset in some winners. Awards can usefully be included in career

156

development theory as a career development factor. Individuals hoping to develop their career could deliberately employ awards via self-nomination.

Awards are signals used by individuals to communicate the individual's condition or status (Spence, 1973). Frey and Neckermann (2009) suggest academic awards serve as a sign or message to an outsider that the research is of significant value. The signal of winning an academic award means the outsider does not need to read the research or be a subject matter expert to know that the award winner has performed well. In conditions of uncertainty, an award may provide a definition of success as well as recognition of the achievement of success (Duguid, 2007).

This research extends human capital theory. Human capital theory posits individuals invest in human capital by way of training and education (Aryee et al., 1994), for example. Human capital theory could be extended to include the investment people make when they decide to participate in awards. Winning an award may increase an individual's human capital and therefore an award is an investment in human capital.

This study extends the literature regarding career success. There is little evidence to show objective career success measures change as an outcome of having won an award. Most winners reported no change in their pay or hierarchical position. However, there is evidence subjective career success measures can, in some cases, be improved. Winners report increased recognition and career satisfaction from an award win. For some award winners, the award win is the beginning of a positive experience and enhanced career satisfaction. This research supports the notion that careers are organic and shaped by complex interactions (Arthur, et al., 1999). By describing careers as organic the neglected subjective side of careers can be reconsidered.

4.5.2   Implications for practice

Practical implications for managers nominating high performers for an award include the need to address potential negative impacts highlighted in this study. Employers who nominate individuals for awards have presumably identified these individuals as above average performers. If the award also signals that the winners are high performers, as an award appears to do, employers would probably want to retain these individuals. Employers could use this data, like performance appraisal data, to make decisions about promotions and pay increases (Jawahar & Williams, 1998).

Employers who recognise an individual's win may be a useful means to improve the award winner's job satisfaction. The resulting decrease in career satisfaction a

157

winner may experience if the award win is not recognised should direct managers'
behaviour. An award win may be discussed in the performance appraisal as a
noteworthy achievement. Individual award winners may decide to adopt deliberate
efforts to benefit from an award win. The allocation of time to prepare a submission for
an award might be carefully considered.

4.5.3   Limitations

This study has limitations that restrict interpretation. Award winners may have
experienced career success without the award win. When an award recognises skills, the
individual's career success may be a result of the award or a result of the skills they had
that led to the award. In theory and in practice, those receiving the award already
possess the skills to be successful. In other words, an award win may be a cause or
effect of a successful career.

The interviewed award winners were selected opportunistically according to
availability and willingness to be interviewed. Participation in this study was voluntary
and this may have impacted the representativeness of the data if only those individuals
with a story to tell made themselves available (Gillham, 2000).

This research included award winners only. Non-winning nominees may benefit
also by participating in the award process. Questions about the impact of participating
in an award and not winning may be useful and important because there are more non-
winners than winners in awards programs. Future research is discussed next.

4.5.4   Future research

Future research might include investigation of other impacts of winning an award such
as changes to winners' motivation and identity. Furthermore, winners had little
knowledge about award judges despite awarding organisation indicating judges are
carefully selected. This disconnect between award organisers' actions in terms of
selecting judges and award participants' understanding of the process is a possible
avenue for exploration.

Future research might include the perspective of award winners' managers. The
reluctance to reward individuals, even in the form of a one-off bonus, is unexpected.
However, managers' may not have the authority to offer further compensation. Without
speaking to employers or award winners' managers, speculation only is possible.

Further research may provide insight into the experience of non-winners. Given the investment that some organisations and individuals make to provide or participate in awards, and their growing popularity, there may be value in investigating how recruiters, hiring managers and promotion committees perceive awards.

4.5.5   Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the impact of winning an externally-granted national work-related award on an individual winner's career orientation. An award win may be perceived as an indicator of objective career success where objective success measures include salary growth or career progression. An award win may contribute to subjective career success as measured through self-perception of achievements and success.

Contrary to expectations, and counterintuitively, winning an award appears to have little impact on either career orientation or objective career success measures. However, winning an award has several effects on subjective careers success, which is enhanced through increased recognition and career satisfaction. In the subsequent study, award winners' career success and employability is investigated.

Chapter V: Award winners' employability and career success

In Chapter 3, awards' components and processes were identified and used in the creation of the awards taxonomy. In Chapter 4, individual award winners were interviewed to determine the career impact of winning an award. In this chapter, the employability and career success of winners of externally-granted national work-related awards for individuals is investigated. From the earlier review of the literature, the research question is:

3   What impact does award winners' self-perceived employability have on their perceived career success?

The proposed hypothesis is:

H1: Award winners experience a positive relationship between their perceived employability and their experienced career success.

There are eight sections in this chapter. Section 5.1 presents and justifies the research design and methodology. Section 5.2 presents the research population and sample selected for this survey study. In section 5.3, the data collection process is described. Section 5.4 explains the survey design and content and introduces the independent and dependent variables. In section 5.5, data preparation steps are presented. Data analysis and results follow in sections 5.6 and 5.7 respectively. The chapter concludes with the discussion in section 5.8. Figure 12 is a visual presentation of the chapter.

Figure 12 Outline of Chapter 5

5.1	• Research methodology
5.2	• Research population and sample
5.3	• Data collection
5.4	• Survey design
5.5	• Data preparation
5.6	• Data analysis
5.7	• Results
5.8	• Discussion
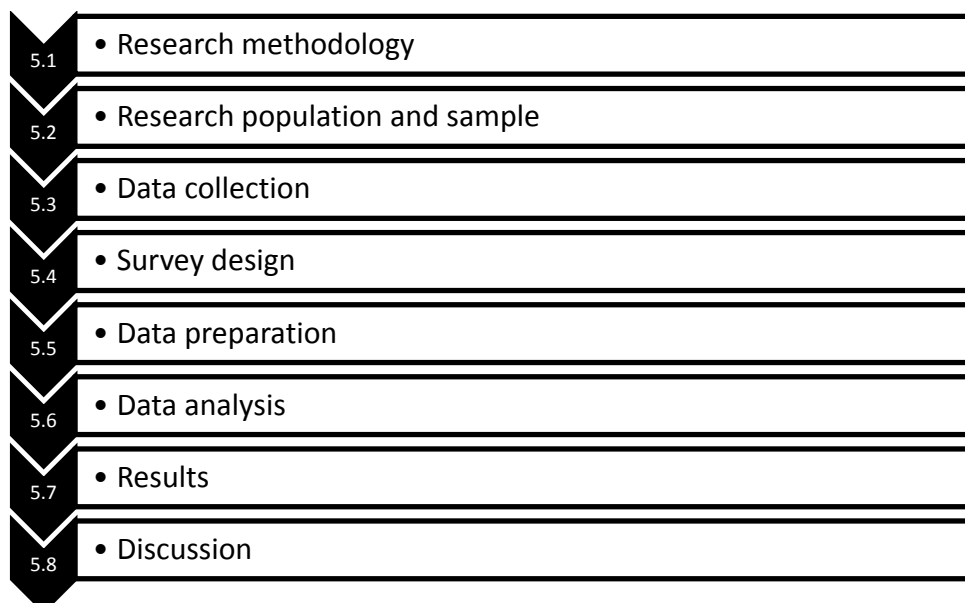
5.1 Research methodology

In this section, the research paradigm is described and the adoption of pragmatism is justified. Then the research method is explained.

5.1.1 Research paradigm

As discussed in Chapter 1, pragmatism is the research paradigm used in this thesis. Pragmatism is a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies and is "real-world practice oriented" (Creswell, 2013, p. 6). This thesis consists of multiple studies as presented in the research design in Figure 13. The earlier studies reported in chapters 3 and 4 adopt a constructivist paradigm using qualitative research methods. In contrast, in this final study, a positivist approach is adopted. The self-perceived employability and career success of winners of externally-granted national work-related awards for individuals is investigated. In the next section, research methods used in this study are reported.

Figure 13 Research studies in this thesis

Chapter 3	**Awards taxonomy** Qualitative research Document analysis of 230 docs	**Awards taxonomy** Qualitative research 10 Confirmatory interviews
Chapter 4	**Career impact of an award** Qualitative research 42 Winner interviews	
Chapter 5	**Employability and career success** Quantitative research 184 Winner surveys	
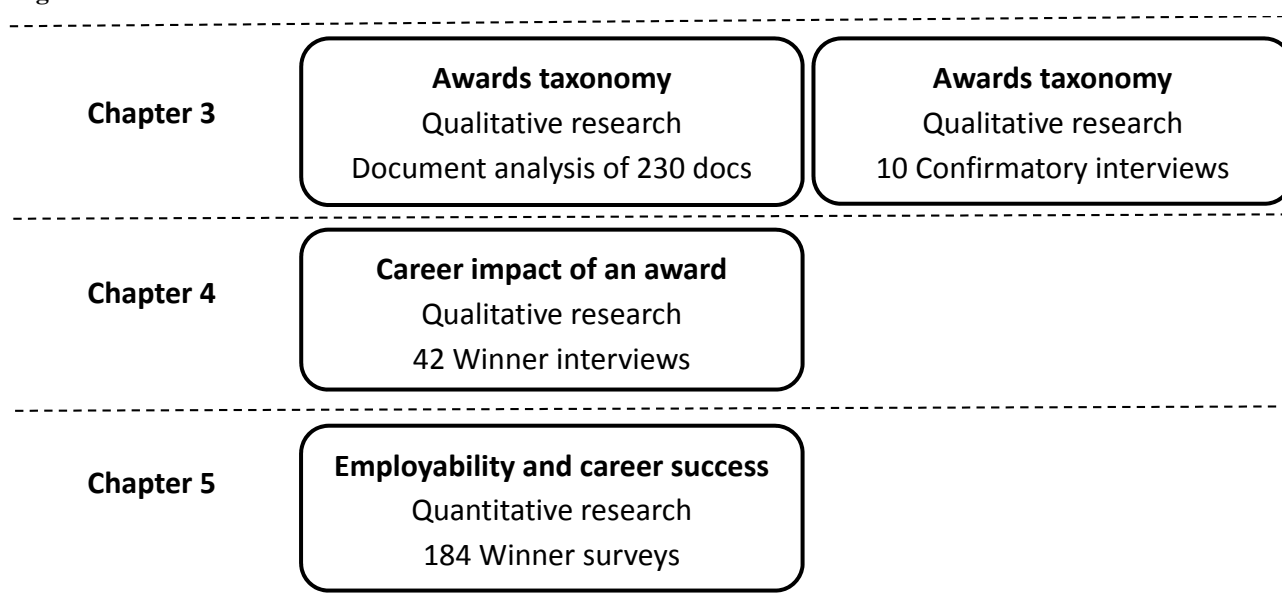
5.1.2 Research method

In this section, research methods used in this study are explained. Advantages and disadvantages of quantitative research are discussed. Quantitative research as it pertains to the current study is then addressed.

In this third study, a quantitative approach is adopted using deductive processes (Locke, Silverman, & Waneen, 2009). Quantitative research as a method uses numeric,

quantifiable data and specifies the relationship between variables of interest under investigation (Howe, 2010). These variables are measured in prescribed ways and results are unbiased. Using quantitative data allows statistical analysis and theoretical generalisations to be made.

Online survey data from individual award winners was collected. A survey is a popular method of collecting data and is especially suitable for quantitative methodologies (Collis & Hussey, 2009). An online survey was chosen for several reasons. First, resources required to create and administer an online survey is relatively inexpensive (Chuah, Drasgow, & Roberts, 2006; Knapp & Kirk, 2003; Pettit, 2002). Second, compared to pencil-and-paper surveys, online surveys are more economical and efficient (Wood, Nosko, Desmarais, Ross, & Irvine, 2006). For example, survey data may be downloaded into statistical analysis programs with no additional time required for data entry and no clerical errors. Third, studies have shown data collected via the internet and pencil-and-paper surveys are equivalent with respect to their reliability, validity, and response rates (Chuah, et al., 2006). Finally, the population of award winners in the business sector may be assumed to have easy access to the internet (Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004). Identification of the research sample is described next.

5.2 Research population and sample

The study population was individual winners of professional, external, national work-related awards. In the absence of a centralised list of individual award winners and their contact information, a record of individual award winners was created for this research.

At first, awards for professionals were identified from industry-specific and popular media such as newspapers. Awarding organisations' websites were searched for award announcements and information about past and recent winners. Award winners' names and details were saved in a spreadsheet. Data collected included the awarding organisation, award name, year in which the award was won, and any information to assist contacting the winner such as their employer details. Each year new winners were identified and added to the list of winners.

To use this list of individual winners as the sample frame - the list of the accessible population from which the sample is drawn - current contact information was required. This contact information was collected from publicly available sources such as award announcements, company websites, the telephone directory and LinkedIn, a

163

business-related social networking tool used for professional networking. Contact details were not available for 56 award winners. There were 72 winners who were identified as entrepreneurs and therefore excluded from the study.

The remaining list of individuals was segmented according to awarding organisation and the award won. A stratified sampling procedure was adopted where a random sample of winners was selected from all segments or strata to form the research sample. This sampling procedure mitigates coverage sampling errors where not all members of the population have an equal chance to participate in the survey (Dillman, 2000). While every attempt was made to identify an appropriate sample, one remaining limitation in this research is the lack of an all-encompassing awards database from which participants can be identified.

5.3 Data collection

5.3.1 Ethical considerations

Research approval was obtained from Macquarie University's Human Research Ethics Committee prior to the collection of data. A plain language statement was provided to all participants starting the survey and included information regarding the purpose, methods and risks of the research. This statement is available in Appendix 6.

Participants were informed that by participating in the survey they were providing their consent for their data to be included in the research. Participants were advised of the voluntary nature of their participation, confidentiality of the information they shared, and the opportunity for them to withdraw from the research at any time. No potential risks to the participants were identified. There were no personal benefits to participants. All procedures concerning data collection in this thesis were reviewed and approved by the Macquarie University Research Ethics Committee.

5.3.2 Approaching participants

Data was collected between March 2012 and July 2013. This relatively long window of data collection was appropriate given the specialised population (Kaplowitz, et al., 2004) and recruitment requirements. The recruitment of individuals from the population was initiated by a phone call to the winner. The individuals were told the call was about a particular award they had won, later called the target award. Using the term target award helped differentiate between any other awards the individual may have won prior or subsequent to the award identified at the outset of the call. The reason for the call

was outlined and the method adopted to find individuals' details was explained. Respondents who agreed to participate provided their email address where a personalised email was sent. Emails included directions to the consent form and online survey. An example email is included in Appendix 7. Voluntary and anonymous participation beyond the consent form - the first page on the online survey - indicated the respondent's consent to participate. No incentives were offered to award winners to encourage participation. A follow-up email was sent a week later. All respondents who participated in the research did so voluntarily and were free to withdraw from the study at any time.

5.3.3 Sample size

The sample size required for analysis depends on the intended statistical analysis technique. Where models are more complex a larger sample size is required to reliably estimate model parameters (Holmes-Smith, 2011). The major statistical analysis techniques used in this study are factor and path analysis of structural equation modelling (SEM). Some statistical algorithms employed by SEM programs are not reliable with small samples (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham, 2006). Therefore, SEM generally requires a large sample relative to other multivariate approaches.

Opinions regarding minimum sample sizes differ. A study can fail to be significant because the sample size is too small (Aron &Aron, 1994). However, sample sizes as small as 50 have been found to provide valid results when using maximum likelihood estimation, a common SEM estimation procedure (Hair et al., 2006). Minimum sample sizes of 100 to 150 are recommended to ensure stable maximum likelihood estimation solutions. To ensure enough valid responses 255 award winners were approached to participate in this research.

5.3.4 Respondents

There were 255 award winners who were approached to participate in this study. There were 198 valid responses and a response rate of 77.6%. There were 110 (55.6%) female respondents and 172 (86.9%) respondents who worked full-time. Mean age was 39.81 years (range = 25-70, SD = 10.13). Table 18 presents respondent demographics. There were 26 (13.1%) respondents in executive level roles, 37 (18.7%) in upper-level management, 52 (26.3%) in middle-level management, 25 (12.6%) in lower-level

management, and 44 (22.2%) in non-supervisory roles. There were five (2.5%) respondents whose highest education qualification was high school year 10 or below, 13 (6.6%) with high school, 27 (13.6%) with vocational qualification or diploma, 65 (32.8%) with an undergraduate degree and 74 (37.4%) respondents with post-graduate qualifications.

Table 18 Respondent demographics

Item	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	75	37.9
Female	110	55.6
Missing	13	6.5
Employment status		
Working full time	172	86.9
Working part time	11	5.6
Retired or not currently employed	2	1.0
Missing	13	6.4
Rank		
Executive	26	13.1
Upper-level manager	37	18.7
Middle-level manager	52	26.3
Lower-level manager	25	12.6
Non-supervisor / non-manager	44	22.2
Missing	14	7.1
Level of education		
High school year 10 or below	5	2.5
High school graduate	13	6.6
Vocational qualification or diploma	27	13.6
Undergraduate degree	65	32.8
Post graduate qualification	74	37.4
Missing	14	7.1

Respondents had won awards between 2007 and 2012. Most respondents had won awards between two and three years prior as identified in Table 19. There were 80 (43.5%) respondents who reported having won a major award prior to winning the target award. These respondents reported winning between one and 'more than four' awards (see Table 19). There were 42 (22.8%) respondents who reported having won a major award subsequent to winning the target award. These respondents reported winning between one and "more than four" awards (see Table 19).

Table 19 Number of years between the award win and interview

	Frequency	Percentage
Years between the award win and interview		
6 years (2007)	8	4.3
5 years (2008)	22	12.0
4 years (2009)	27	14.7
3 years (2010)	53	28.8
2 years (2011)	63	34.2
1 year (2012)	8	4.3
Missing	3	1.6
Prior awards won		
1 award	38	20.7
2 awards	20	10.9
3 awards	7	3.8
4 awards	2	1.1
4+ awards	13	7.1
Total	80	43.5
Missing	104	56.5
Subsequent awards won		
1 award	25	13.6
2 awards	5	2.7
3 awards	5	2.7
4 awards	1	.5
4+ awards	6	3.3
Total	42	22.8
Missing	142	77.2

Nomination process

Award winners became involved in the awards through a number of different means. For example, they may have nominated themselves ($n = 25$; 13.6%), their manager or some other person may have asked them or suggested they nominate ($n = 139$; 75.5%) or they may not have known who nominated them ($n = 20$; 10.9%). Examples of other people who may have suggested the individual nominate included someone from human resources or marketing departments, a client or supplier.

5.4 Survey Design

5.4.1 Survey format

An online survey, created in Qualtrics, was used to collect data. Qualtrics is a robust survey tool that simplifies online research. The survey took 15 minutes to complete.

In the absence of the researcher to clarify questions, survey items that are confusing may be answered incorrectly or left blank (Nosek, Banaji, & Greenwald, 2002). Measurement errors occur when questions are worded poorly or are presented in a manner that is vague, inaccurate or hard to interpret (Dillman, 2000). Attempts to limit measurement error included reviews by knowledgeable colleagues ($n = 8$) and a small pilot study with award winners ($n = 6$). Respondents were asked to comment on the general format of the survey, its readability and clarity, and to check all functionality was working. Minor alterations were made to the wording of some questions to provide a clear context.

5.4.2 Rating scales

Likert-type scales were used. Likert-type scales are popular fixed format scales that are often employed when measuring respondents' opinions and beliefs (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Using Likert-type scale allows a numerical value to be provided to an opinion. It is often reflected as a number (e.g. $1 - 5$) or in word format (e.g. *strongly agree – strongly disagree*). A Likert-type scale is an ordinal scale; it has an order where a larger number represents a larger amount of an attribute or ability that is being measured and therefore a numerical value can represent an opinion (Collis & Hussey, 2009)

5.4.3 Survey content

The survey had three sections relating to the characteristics of the target award, behavioural questions relating to the respondent and demographic variables respectively. Where possible, conceptual variables were operationalised through the use of existing scales. In selecting scales, the validity and reliability of the data was considered and the extent to which the measure has been used in the literature. All survey scales have previously been applied in large international research projects. Descriptions of the scales and sample items are provided below, including Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability estimates.

5.4.4 Reliability and validity

Reliability refers to the extent of dependability, consistency, or stability of a measurement (Pallant, 2007). A measure that is completely reliable is said to be 'free of error'. Measurement errors may occur as a result of the survey respondent, the survey administrator, the situation, the nature of the measure, what is measured, or the method

of estimating reliability. Internal consistency reliability indicates various parts of a total measure are interrelated and can be interpreted as measuring the same thing. The most commonly used statistic for the measurement of internal consistency reliability is Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Alpha values vary between 0 and 1 with a higher coefficient indicating a smaller measurement error and a higher reliability estimate (Pallant, 2007). In this study, a Cronbach alpha above .70 was employed as an indicator of sufficient internal consistency (e.g., Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Validity refers to the extent to which research findings accurately represent what is really happening or that a test measures what it aims to measure conceptually (Collis & Hussey, 2009). Reliability is necessary although not a sufficient condition for validity, that is, a measure may be reliable but does not measure the concept aimed to be measured. However, reliability and validity are interrelated because it is not possible for a measure to have high validity if reliability is not also high.

5.4.5 Measures of variables

Independent, dependent and demographic variables used in the survey are summarised in Table 20 and a complete list of survey items are in Appendix 8. Demographic variables included award items such as the year the award was won and socio-demographic variables such as respondents' age. Survey items about the award and winners' socio-demographic information were collected at the start and end of the survey respectively. Independent variables included the employability scale that consists of openness to change, work and career proactivity, career motivation, work and career resilience, optimism and identity. Dependent variables included job, interpersonal, financial, hierarchical and non-organisational success. Independent and dependent variables are described in more detail next.

Table 20 Measures of variables

Domain	Variable	Instrument or item
Independent variable	Employability	Employability scale (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008)
Dependent variable	Career success	Career success scale (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986)
Demographic variables	Socio-demographic information	Gender
		Age
		Educational level
		Job status
		Industry
		Years in current role
		Year of win
		Prior awards won
		Subsequent awards won
		Nomination type (self or other)
		Years of experience

Measures of independent variables

Employability is measured using a 25 item employability scale developed by Fugate and Kinicki (2008) who defined dispositional employability as "a constellation of individual differences that predispose individuals to (pro)active adaptability specific to work and careers" (p. 503). Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with each of the statements using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The employability scale adopted by Fugate and Kinicki (2008) had six dimension initially that were later collapsed to five. Early scales included work and career resilience and optimism as separate dimensions. However, these two dimensions were conceptually similar and optimism is a characteristic of resilience. Therefore, Fugate and Kinicki decided to reduce the two dimensions to one although no individual items were deleted. In the interest of comprehensiveness, the employability scale adopted in this study uses all six of the original dimensions. Work and career resilience and optimism are used as separate dimensions to ensure the assessment in this study is exhaustive and thorough. The six dimensions include openness to changes at work, work and career proactivity, career motivation, work and career resilience, optimism at work, and work identity. Further information about each of these dimensions is provided next.

Openness to changes at work: Individuals who display openness to change and new experiences are adaptable to dynamic work requirements and as a result are more employable. Five items are used in the openness to change scale and an example of an item is "I feel that I am generally accepting of changes at work".

Work and career proactivity: Work and career proactivity facilitates identification and realisation of career opportunities. The work and career proactivity scale consists of three items and one example is "I stay abreast of developments relating to my type of job".

Career motivation: Career motivations is the extent to which an individual displays a learning orientation at work and a willingness to change to meet the demands of the situation. There are three items in this sub-scale and "I have participated in training or schooling that will help me reach my career goals" is one example.

Work and career resilience: Individuals with work and career resilience often display attributes such as feelings of control over the future of their career, and/or feelings they make valuable contributions at work. Five items are included in this factor and an example item is "I feel I am a valuable employee at work".

Optimism: Individuals perceive numerous opportunities at work. They view a career change as an opportunity to learn and a challenge. These individuals are persistent in the pursuit of their goals. An example of one of three items included in this scale is "I always look on the bright side of things at work".

Work identity: Work identity provides motivation to career-related efforts and supports employability. The work identity factor includes six items. An example is "I define myself by the work that I do". The scale is shown in Appendix 8.

Measures of dependent variables

Career success is measured using Gattiker and Larwood's (1986) multidimensional subjective career success (SCS) scale. This is a 23 item scale and has two components: Organisational and non-organisational success. Organisational success includes dimensions for job success, interpersonal success, financial success and hierarchical success. Non-organisational success refers to life satisfaction. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with each of the statements using a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Further information about the five dimensions is provided next.

Job success: Individuals who display job success are offered opportunities and responsibility at work. There are eight items used in the job success scale and one example item is "I am fully backed by my management in my work".

Interpersonal success: Interpersonal success refers to the relationships an individual has at work with their peers and manager. There are four items used in the interpersonal success scale. One example is "I am respected by my peers".

Financial success: This scale relates to the income an individual earns relative to their peers and their own perceived worth. There are three items in the financial success scale. An example of an item in this scale is: "I am earning as much as I think my work is worth".

Hierarchical success: An individual who displays hierarchical success experiences promotions or promotional opportunities. There are four items related to hierarchical success and one example item is "I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far".

Non-organisational success refers to an individual's happiness in their private life and overall life satisfaction. There are four items and an example item is "I am enjoying my non-work activities". The scale is shown in Appendix 8.

5.5 Data preparation

There were 198 valid responses. Preparation for data analysis started with the downloading of responses into an electronic format. Data was imported directly into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), a statistical analysis program. The availability of data in an electronic format is a clear benefit of online surveys (Wood, et al., 2006). SPSS and the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) program version 22.0 (Arbuckle, 2010) was used for all statistical analysis. Before analysis started the data was prepared and cleaned. These activities are described next.

5.5.1   Data cleaning

The first activity was to identify items that needed to be reverse scored. These items were re-coded. Traditionally, data cleaning has involved searching for data entry errors. However, inclusion of the data directly from Qualtrics eliminates data inaccuracies that may result from manual data entry. Therefore, data cleaning in this research was limited to checking for missing data, outliers and normality. These checks are discussed next.

172

Missing data

Examination for missing data occurred in SPSS. In the first instance, patterns of missing data were assessed. Respondents who completed the online survey in less than eight minutes were removed ($n = 17$). This decision was based on the pilot surveys where time to accurately complete the survey exceeded eight minutes.

Missing data occurs for different reasons. Some respondents did not complete every item on all the scales. Missing data may be missing at random or missing completely at random (MCAR; Rubin, 1976). Data that is missing at random occurs when the missing values of a random variable Y are unrelated only to the value of Y itself. MCAR occurs when the missing values of a random variable Y are not statistically related to the value of Y itself or to other observed variables. There are no definitive guidelines for dealing with missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The selected technique to deal with missing data depends on the pattern of missing data, how much data is missing and reasons for the missing data. The pattern of the missing data provides an indication for the cause and resolution of the incomplete data set. Where data is missing at random, deleting cases with missing items is one method of dealing with the problem. Using either listwise or pairwise options in SPSS might be considered if the sample is large. However, the resulting reduction in sample size may lead to flawed results that are biased, inefficient and unreliable (Schafer & Graham, 2002), which may be an issue with the relatively small sample size of 186 in this study. Estimating or imputing missing data is another technique for dealing with missing data (Rubin, 1976). Different methods for replacing missing data were assessed including using prior knowledge, inserting mean values, using regressions, expectation-maximisation (EM) and multiple imputations (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

On investigation, 14 records were identified as missing all items from two or more measures and the records were deleted. Using SPSS' Missing Values Analysis, missing data varied between 0% and 2.7% as shown in Appendix 9. The data were missing completely at random (MCAR), as suggested by Little's MCAR test being not significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Missing data was estimated using EM, a robust estimation technique suitable for structural equation modelling (Newman, 2003; Schafer & Graham, 2002). Given the small amount of apparently random missing data, EM methods were adopted because they offer a simple and reasonable approach to the imputation of missing data. Missing values were replaced using EM in SPSS so that

when data was analysed in AMOS there were no missing data. Table 21 provides a summary of the survey responses received.

Table 21 Statistics of survey responses

	Frequency
Invited to participate	255
Logged in to survey	217
Survey responses completed in less than 10 minutes	17
Survey responses with missing data	14
Remaining valid responses	186

Outliers

Outliers are cases whose scores are substantially different from all the other cases on one variable (univariate outlier) or on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) in a set of data (Byrne, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Outliers occur when errors are made in data entry, missing-values are coded incorrectly, a case is included erroneously or the case is genuinely unusual. Extreme values of outliers result in distorted statistics (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Because outliers may affect the model fit, detection of outliers is completed at both the univariate and multivariate levels. To identify univariate outliers SPSS's descriptive statistics (see Appendix 10) and histograms (see Appendix 11) were used to check the frequency distribution of each variable. To identify multivariate outliers Mahalanobis distance estimates in AMOS were used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Identified outliers are influential if the correlations between the variables for the responses are significantly different or abnormal compared to the rest of the data set. The test revealed three cases with a distance score exceeding the critical value (p < .001). On investigation, two individuals' response patterns were sufficiently different from the others indicating they were unrepresentative of the population; both cases were removed. The remaining individual's response patterns was not sufficiently abnormal to suggest they were an outlier and an illegitimate respondent or unrepresentative of the population from which the respondent is drawn. Therefore, this case was retained for subsequent analysis in which there were 184 valid responses.

Normality assumption

Multivariate normality is the assumption that each variable and all linear combinations of the variable are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The assumption of

normality is a fundamental assumption in structural equation modelling analyses. Detection of normality occurred at both the univariate and multivariate levels. Univariate normality was assessed using measures of skewness and kurtosis and the output is in Appendix 10. Skewness refers to the extent to which a variable's distribution is asymmetrical (Weston & Gore, 2006). Positive skewness describes a situation where most of the scores are at the low end of the scale. Kurtosis refers to how peaked or flat the distribution is compared to a normal distribution (Weston & Gore, 2006). Positive kurtosis, or a leptokurtic distribution, is peaked with short, thick tails (Hair et al., 2006). Absolute values that are greater than ten indicate there is a problem. Values higher than 20.0 are extreme (Kline, 2005).

Multivariate normality was assessed using AMOS. A moderate departure from normality was evident from examination of the levels of skewness and kurtosis. However, using Byrne's (2010) recommendation of seven as a maximum rescaled regression coefficient to indicate departure from normality, there were no items substantially kurtotic. Given that the impact of non-normality diminishes as the sample size increases (Field, 2013; Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black, 2006), a smaller sample size would be of concern.

5.5.2 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when "two or more variables are very closely linearly related" (Field, 2013, p. 879) and when separate variables are measuring the same thing and contain much of the same information. Increased collinearity between variables reduces the unique variance explained by each independent variable and their predictive power (Hair, et al., 2006). Multicollinearity diagnostics include the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance measures. A Variance Inflation Factor that is greater than ten and tolerance less than .1 indicates there are issues with multicollinearity (Field, 2013). Table 22 shows that multicollinearity was not present among these variables.

Table 22 Collinearity statisitics

	Tolerance	VIF
Employability		
Openness to change	.548	1.826
Proactivity	.691	1.448
Career motivation	.641	1.561
Resilience	.663	1.509
Optimism	.692	1.445
Identity	.873	1.145
Career success		
Job success	.795	1.258
Interpersonal success	.763	1.311
Financial success	.821	1.218
Hierarchical success	.672	1.488
Non-organisational success	.923	1.084

5.6 Data analysis

This research was designed to determine a model that best demonstrates the effects of an award winners' perceived employability on career success measures. For this purpose, a structural equation model (SEM) building approach was adopted as the major statistical method. Data was analysed using SPSS and AMOS. Initially preliminary and descriptive analysis and exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken. The aim of the preliminary analysis was to validate the survey items and subscales that represent several latent variables. A probability value (p-value) of less than .05 (p < .05) was used to show statistical significance. This section presents the analyses of the data gathered in the award winner surveys.

5.6.1   Item descriptives

Item level descriptive statistics (Appendix 10) include the number of respondents, minimum and maximum scores, the range of responses, mean and standard deviation and the variance, skewness and kurtosis for each item. Correlations between scales describes the strength and direction of the linear relationship between variables (Pallant, 2007). Correlations were checked and are reported in Table 23. Reliability of a scale can vary depending on the sample. Therefore, Cronbach alphas were calculated on all scales to check reliability. Scale reliability coefficients are reported in parentheses along the main diagonal in Table 23. The reliability ranged between .64 and .87 which put all but one – career motivation - above .70, the number suggested by Nunnally (1978).

Table 23 Descriptives and intercorrelations among variables[1]

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Employability													
1. Openness to change	4.06	.53	(.87)										
2. Proactivity	4.16	.56	.54**	(.77)									
3. Career motivation	3.80	.65	.34**	.43**	(.64)								
4. Resilience	4.14	.44	.51**	.49**	.48**	(.70)							
5. Optimism	3.71	.74	.53**	.38**	.30**	.50**	(.85)						
6. Work identity	4.08	.46	.15*	.32**	.29**	.33**	.25**	(.70)					
Career success													
7. Job success	3.88	.54	.36**	.31**	.37**	.57**	.38**	.37**	(.77)				
8. Interpersonal success	4.28	.51	.55**	.44**	.33**	.65**	.41**	.3**	.63**	(.84)			
9. Financial success	3.26	.87	.07	.03	.14*	.19*	.07	-.06	.22**	.12	(.81)		
10. Hierarchical success	3.66	.67	.29**	.25**	.36**	.54**	.25**	.13	.53**	.45**	.40**	(.74)	
11. Non-organisational success	4.22	.58	.41**	.33**	.35**	.43**	.42**	.18*	.31**	.45**	.00	.32**	(.77)

*   *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).*

**   *Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).*

[1] Cronbach alpha coefficients are in brackets on the diagonal

177

5.6.2 Exploration of the factor structures of constructs

Factor analysis is the statistical procedure for investigating relations between observed and latent variables (Byrne, 2010). Factor analysis helps identify the underlying factors or components by finding groups among the intercorrelations of a set of variables (Pallant, 2007). These groups assist in identifying what the factors represent conceptually. Covariation among a set of observed variables is examined to gather information about the underlying latent constructs or factors. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used to explore the factor structure of constructs.

In EFA, the link between observed and latent variables is uncertain and the analysis aims to determine how many and to what extent the observed variables and the underlying factors are linked (Byrne, 2010). On most occasions, the aim is to identify a minimal number of factors responsible for the covariation among the observed variables. EFAs are performed first on both the employability and career success scales.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted to test how well the measured variables represent a construct and to reduce the large number of variables to a manageable number (Hair, et al., 2006). In contrast to EFA, when CFA is employed, theory and empirical research has indicated relations between the observed variables and the underlying constructs which are then tested statistically (Byrne, 2010). A CFA provides the opportunity to assess the validity of a construct to determine the extent to which a set of measured items reflect the theoretical latent construct. CFA is therefore a tool to confirm or reject a preconceived theory (Hair, et al., 2006). A model is specified a priori which is then evaluated for its goodness-of-fit. This model within the framework of SEM is termed a measurement model. This model hypothesises the impact of employability on job, interpersonal, financial, hierarchical and non-organisational career success.

5.6.3 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

The analyses in this study adopts an SEM approach as the major statistical technique. In a simple form, SEM is an approach to examine how things are related to each other (Hair, et al., 2006). SEM is an umbrella term that incorporates various new statistical techniques and many conventional statistical analyses including factor analysis, multiple regression, and univariate and multivariate analysis of variance. SEM extends traditional multivariate statistical analyses by using simultaneous equation estimation in the assessment of both measurement issues and causal relationships in one model as well as in the use of path

analysis to both statistically and visually depict complex relationships between variables (Hair, et al., 2006).

A major advantage of SEM is the ability of researchers to account for the inherent error in the imperfect measures used to operationalise their constructs. This means relationships between variables can be measured after accounting for measurement error. As a result, SEM is considered a holistic approach to build models. The path diagram in SEM presents the direction of each effect and the correlations among all variables in one picture (Hair, et al., 2006).

In AMOS, researchers are able to use factor analysis to create constructs or latent variables from multiple observed, measured or manifest variables. The relationship between observed and unobserved variables and how each measure loads on a particular factor is defined in a measurement model (Byrne, 2010, p. 12). The factor structure of each of the constructs in the research model is separately investigated so individual survey items can be checked to confirm their appropriate contribution.

Path analysis can be used to test hypothesised relationships between constructs. The relationship between unobserved variables is defined in a structural model. Unobserved variables may directly or indirectly influence changes in other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 2010). Relationships might be covariances, direct effects, or indirect (mediated) effects.

SEM is an appropriate analysis design to adopt when the theoretical model under investigation is incomplete, when important explanatory variables have not been included (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1982). Research pertaining to awards in business is in its infancy and the research model is not complex as explanatory variables are yet to be empirically determined. This thesis omits many elements of careers and career progress such that the theoretical model might be considered simplified.

Model specification

Structural equation modelling offers a means to simultaneously determine relative variable strength and assess theoretical models. SEM consists of first the measurement model and then the structural model. The measurement model is used to specify the relationship between latent variables, being the unobserved variables or constructs, and their indicators, being the observed or manifest variables. In this way, the latent variables are measured in terms of the observed variables. The measured variables define latent constructs through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

After the CFA, a structural model is used to specify the relationship between different latent variables including the causal effects and error variance. Latent variables may be exogenous where they serve as predictors of causes for other latent variables in the structural model. By contrast, endogenous latent variables are outcome variables.

Assessing model fit

There is no single statistical test of significance to identify the correct model. The evaluation of model fit is based on multiple criteria (Byrne, 2010). There is general acceptance that researchers should evaluate fit in terms of (a) significance and strength of parameter estimates, (b) variance accounted for between observed and unobserved variables, and (c) how well the model fits the observed data as per a variety of fit indices. There are numerous measures of model fit which have been, and continue to be, proposed (Byrne, 2010; Hair, et al., 2006) and there appears to be some debate in the literature about which to use (Weston & Gore, 2006). The model fit statistics are discussed next.

A popular way of evaluating model fit is the chi-square goodness-of-fit or CMIN (χ^2) statistic (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Chi-square is non-significant when a model has a good fit. However, this statistic is sensitive to both sample size and violation of the multivariate normality assumptions. Therefore, a significant chi-square may result from more than a mis-specified model (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

The normed chi-square (CMIN/DF or χ^2/df) fit index was developed to address some of the chi-square limitations and to take a pragmatic approach to the process of model evaluation (Byrne, 2010). This statistic uses degrees of freedom in the model and therefore considers model complexity. The normed chi-square is relatively independent of sample size and values less than 5 are considered acceptable (Kline, 1998).

The Standardised Root Mean-square Residual (SRMR) is the absolute mean of all differences between the observed and the model-implied correlations (Weston & Gore, 2006). A mean of zero occurs if there is no difference between observed data and the correlations implied in the model. SRMR values close to 0 are a better result (Kline, 1998).

There are a number of incremental or comparative fit indices that compare model fit with another baseline model fit which is most often the null model (Holmes-Smith, 2011). The first is the Goodness-of Fit Index (GFI) and refers to the observed covariances accounted for in the entire model. GFI is positively associated with sample size and negatively associated with a large number of parameters (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The

Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) is the GFI adjusted for the degrees of freedom. The AGFI is sensitive to sample size and model complexity.

The Incremental Fit Index (IFI) was developed to deal with issues relating to parsimony and sample size that impacted other indices (Byrne, 2010). The IFI is another incremental or comparative fit index and is similar to the Normed Fit Index (NFI) which is sensitive to sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) is also called the Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI). The TLI can exceed a value of 1 if the model is over-specified with too many parameters and is therefore not parsimonious (Holmes-Smith, 2011). A cut-off value close to .95 indicates a relatively good fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

The Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is similar to the TLI except it is constrained to fall between 0 and 1. This index allows comparison of the researched model with another model, called a null model, which specifies no relationships between variables (Weston & Gore, 2006). The value of the CFI should exceed .95 (Kline, 1998)

Finally, the Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) has grown in popularity since its inception in 1980 and is recently recognised as an important informative criteria (Byrne, 2010). This statistic accounts for the error of approximation in the population but is sensitive to the number of parameters or the complexity of the model. A cut-off value of close to .06 or less indicates a relatively good fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Guidelines for fit

Hair, et al. (2006) recommend multiple fit indices be used to assess a model's goodness-of-fit. There is no single "magic" value (p. 758) to indicate a model is good or poor. The guidelines presented in Table 24 are used to assess model fit in the subsequent analysis.

Table 24 Summary of commonly used model fit indices in SEM

Indices	Abbreviation	Good level of fit criteria
Chi-square (X²)	CMIN	
Normed chi-square	CMIN/DF	<5
Standardised root mean square residual	SRMR	<.06
Goodness-of-fit index	GFI	>.90
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index	AGFI	>.90
Incremental fit index	IFI	>.90
Non-normed fit index	TLI/NNFI	>1.0 or <.0
Comparative-fit index	CFI	>.95
Root mean square error of approximation	RMSEA	<.05

5.7 Results

This section presents the results of the study and analysis of the hypothesised model. The research question is *What impact does award winners' self-perceived employability have on their perceived career success?* The proposed hypothesis is:

>**H1:** Award winners experience a positive relationship between their perceived employability and their experienced career success.

To examine the factor structures of the measures for both employability and career success, both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) are conducted. The structural model is then shown together with possible improvements. EFAs are conducted first followed by CFAs.

5.7.1   Exploration of the factor structures of constructs (Factor analysis)

Employability construct: Exploratory factor analysis

The dimensionality of the 25 items assessing employability of award winners is assessed with exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is conducted using principal axis factoring (PAF) and the extracted factors are rotated with the varimax method to maximise the variance and identify a clearer delineation of components. The suitability of the data for factor analysis is assessed using both Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Hair, et al., 2006). A KMO of .80 or more is "meritorious", between .80 and .70 is "middling" and between .70 and .60 is "mediocre". The KMO value is .837 indicating the input correlation matrix is adequate for exploratory factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should be significant (p < .05)

for a good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity statistical significance is less than .01 which supports the factorability of the correlation matrix (Hair, et al., 2006).

The factor analyses reveals the presence of six factors and is presented in Table 25. The factor analyses supports the multidimensionality of the employability construct (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008) and helps combat concerns that relationships are explained by common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Six factors have eigenvalues greater than one and together they explain 62.9% of the variance in the included variables.

Table 25 Employability construct: Total variance identified

Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
		Initial Eigenvalues	
1	7.619	30.476	30.476
2	2.505	10.020	40.496
3	1.724	6.897	47.393
4	1.474	5.896	53.289
5	1.283	5.133	58.422
6	1.119	4.476	62.899
7	.984	3.938	66.836
8	.927	3.710	70.546
9	.820	3.279	73.825
10	.774	3.098	76.923
11	.709	2.838	79.761
12	.635	2.541	82.302
13	.592	2.368	84.670
14	.510	2.042	86.712
15	.492	1.970	88.682
16	.448	1.792	90.474
17	.414	1.658	92.132
18	.379	1.517	93.649
19	.339	1.356	95.005
20	.300	1.202	96.207
21	.261	1.042	97.249
22	.257	1.026	98.275
23	.183	.731	99.006
24	.154	.616	99.622
25	.095	.378	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

The scree plot is recommended as a further means to determine the appropriate number of factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The scree plot is presented in Figure 14. The scree plot provides evidence of the six component solution. However, several items that might explain a separate component load strongly on more than one component. The results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 26.

Figure 14 Employability construct: Scree plot
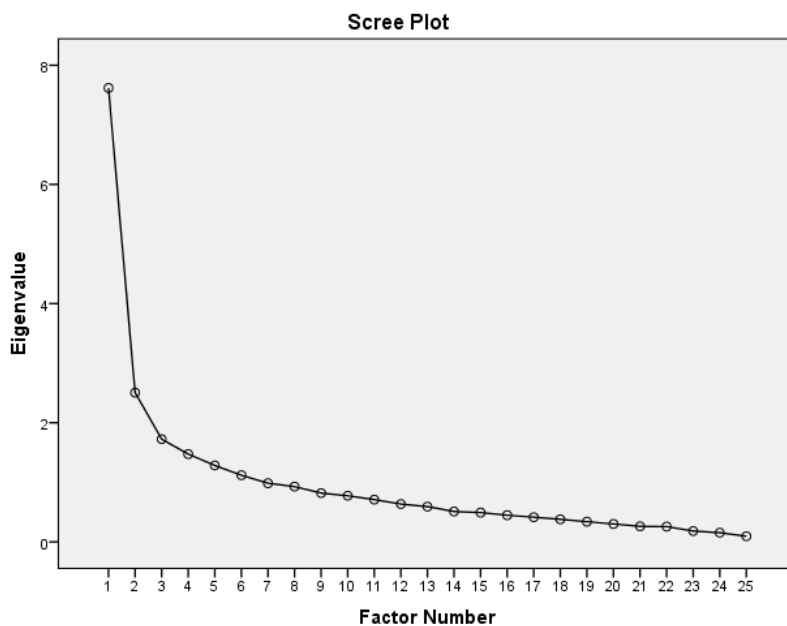
There are three final factors with three to five items and factor loadings between .511 and .826. All items for openness to change load strongly on one factor. All items for optimism load strongly on one factor. All items relating to identity load on one factor except for item 20, "I define myself by the work that I do" and item 21, "I am involved in my work". Items relating to work and career proactivity, career motivation and work and career resilience either cross-load or the factor loading is less than .4 (Ford, Maccallum, & Tait, 1986).

Although it is recommended that items with factor loading of less than .5 be excluded from further analysis, this study includes all six factors for confirmatory factor analysis, which follows next. This decision is made based on the strength of the Cronbach alphas and the exploratory nature of this research. The three factors that do not load - work and career proactivity, work and career resilience and career motivation - are used with caution in the subsequent analysis.

Table 26 Rotated factor matrix: Employability

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Openness to change						
E_O1: I feel changes at work generally have positive implications	.519					
E_O2: I feel that I am generally accepting of changes at work	.779					
E_O3: I would consider myself open to changes at work	.802					
E_O4: I can handle job and organizational changes effectively	.749					
E_O5: I am able to adapt to changing circumstances at work	.751					
Work and career proactivity						
~~E_P6: I stay abreast of developments in my company~~	~~.466~~					~~.351~~
E_P7: I stay abreast of developments in my industry						.654
E_P8: I stay abreast of developments relating to my type of job						.806
Career motivation						
~~E_M9: I have participated in training or schooling that will help me reach my career goals~~				~~.324~~	~~.397~~	
E_M10: I have a specific plan for achieving my career goals				.600		
E_M11: I have sought job assignments that will help me obtain my career goals				.646		
Work and career resilience						
E_R12: I am optimistic about my future career opportunities			.613	~~.381~~		
E_R13: I feel I am a valuable employee at work			.547			
~~E_R14: I have control over my career opportunities~~			~~.524~~	~~.332~~		
E_R15: My past career experiences have been generally positive						
~~E_R16: I take a positive attitude towards my work~~	~~.446~~	~~.358~~				
Optimism						
E_OPT17: In uncertain times at work, I usually expect the best	.605					
E_OPT18: I always look on the bright side of things at work	.826					
E_OPT19: I believe 'every cloud has a silver lining' at work	.788					
Identity						
~~E_ID20: I define myself by the work that I do~~				~~.441~~		
~~E_ID21: I am involved in my work~~			~~.301~~	~~.379~~	~~.400~~	
E_ID22: It is important to me that others think highly of my job				.584		
E_ID23: It is important to me that I am successful in my job				.708		
E_ID24: The type of work I do is important to me				.587	~~.312~~	
E_ID25: It is important to me that I am acknowledged for my successes in the job				.511		

Note: Factor loadings below .3 have not been presented. Cross-loading items and items with no factor loading greater than .5 have been struck through.

Career success construct: Exploratory factor analysis

The dimensionality of the 23 items assessing career success of award winners is assessed with exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is conducted using principal axis factoring (PAF) and varimax rotation as described above. The KMO value is .816 indicating the input correlation matrix is adequate for exploratory factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity statistical significance is less than .01 which supports the factorability of the correlation matrix (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Five factors emerge to characterise career success (see Table 27). These factors have eigenvalues greater than one and together they explain 71.0% of the variance in the included variables.

Table 27 Career success construct: Total variance identified

	Initial Eigenvalues		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.636	28.851	28.851
2	2.672	11.619	40.470
3	1.915	8.324	48.794
4	1.587	6.898	55.692
5	1.332	5.793	61.485
6	1.139	4.952	66.437
7	1.044	4.539	70.976
8	.866	3.764	74.741
9	.671	2.918	77.659
10	.651	2.832	80.491
11	.586	2.547	83.038
12	.568	2.469	85.507
13	.480	2.085	87.593
14	.434	1.886	89.478
15	.399	1.736	91.215
16	.369	1.603	92.818
17	.329	1.428	94.246
18	.290	1.262	95.508
19	.271	1.179	96.688
20	.240	1.044	97.731
21	.206	.898	98.629
22	.170	.740	99.370
23	.145	.630	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

The scree plot is presented in Figure 15 and provides evidence of the five component solution. However, several items that might have explained a separate component load strongly on more than one component. The results of the factor analysis are shown in Table 28. Three factors are identified with three or four items and factor loadings between .574 and .937.

Figure 15 Career success construct: Scree plot
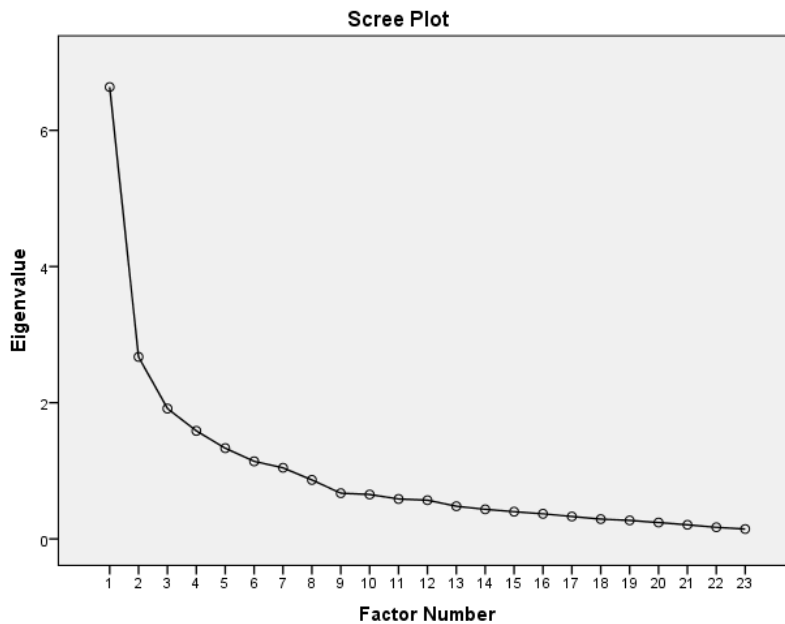
Job success items load on a single factor. Items 3, 6 and 8 have low factor loadings of .416, .303 and .328 respectively. Two items from interpersonal success load on factor two. Items 10 and 12 cross load on factors one and two. Financial success loads on factor four. Two items for hierarchical success load on factor six. Items 16 and 19 did not load. Non-organisational success loads on factor three. Item 23 loads on factor five.

This study includes all five career success factors in the confirmatory factor analysis that follows. This decision is made based on the strength of the Cronbach alphas and the exploratory nature of this research. Hierarchical and interpersonal success factors are used with caution in the subsequent analysis.

Table 28 Rotated factor matrix: Career success

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Job success						
CS_J1: Receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters	.635	~~.356~~				
CS_J2: Offered opportunities for further education by my employer	.643					
~~CS_J3: Having enough responsibility on my job~~	~~.416~~					
CS_J4: Fully backed by management in my work	.574					
CS_J5: In a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills	.656					
CS_J6: Most happy when I am at work					~~.303~~	
CS_J7: Dedicated to my work					.909	
~~CS_J8: In a position to do mostly work which I really like~~		~~.328~~				~~.315~~
Interpersonal success						
CS_I9: Respected by my peers		.689				
~~CS_I10: Getting good performance evaluations~~	~~.444~~	~~.597~~				
CS_I11: Accepted by my peers		.835				
~~CS_I12: Having my superior's confidence~~	~~.495~~	~~.542~~				
Financial success						
CS_F13: Receiving fair compensation compared to my peers				.771		
CS_F14: Drawing a high income compared to my peers				.730		
CS_F15: Earning as much as I think my work is worth				.764		
Hierarchical success						
~~CS_H16: Pleased with the promotions I have received so far~~	~~.386~~			~~.383~~		~~.527~~
CS_H17: Reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself						.817
CS_H18: Going to reach all of my career goals						.547
CS_H19: In a job which offers promotional opportunities	.435					
Non-organisational success						
CS_N20: Happy with my private life			.921			
CS_N21: Enjoying my non-work activities			.840			
CS_N22: Satisfied with my life overall			.807			
CS_N23: Dedicated to my work					.845	

Note: Factor loadings below .3 have not been presented. Cross-loading items and items with no factor loading greater than .4 have been struck through.

The exploratory factor analysis is followed by confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS. Confirmatory factor analysis tests the multi-dimensionality of a theoretical construct. The results from the confirmatory factor analysis are evaluated in the measurement model.

5.7.2   Testing the measurement model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to test the measurement model (Hair, et al., 2006). In this thesis, a CFA is used to test that for award winners, employability is a multi-dimensional construct composed of six factors and career success is a multi-dimensional construct composed of five factors. CFAs are conducted to validate the proposed constructs using the maximum likelihood estimation method. A first-order CFA model is analysed to assess the multi-dimensionality of a theoretical construct (Byrne, 2010).

In practice, the number of observed variables for each latent construct ranges from three to eight (Holmes-Smith, 2011). In measurement models in AMOS, standardised regression weights of .7 and above indicate a strong association between observed and latent variables. One-factor congeneric measurement models and first-order models are analysed to assess the constructs. First, the employability construct is analysed followed by the career success analysis.

Employability construct: Confirmatory factor analysis

This section reports results from testing the one-factor congeneric models (Jöreskog, 1971) of openness to change, work and career proactivity, career motivation, work and career resilience, optimism, identity. Measured variables are shown with a rectangle around the item number and question. Latent constructs are represented by an oval.

Openness to change: One-factor congeneric model. Openness to change is measured by five observed variables: E_Open1, E_Open2, E_Open3, E_Open4, E_Open5. The items and the structure of the measurement model are presented in Figure 16. The standardised regression weights or factor loadings are shown on the arrows linking the observed variables and the latent construct. For example, in Figure 16, E_O1 has a factor loading of .48. The congeneric model of openness to change items indicates a poor contribution by E_O1, "I feel changes at work generally have positive implications", to the latent construct of openness. The remaining items load well.

Figure 16 Openness to change congeneric model
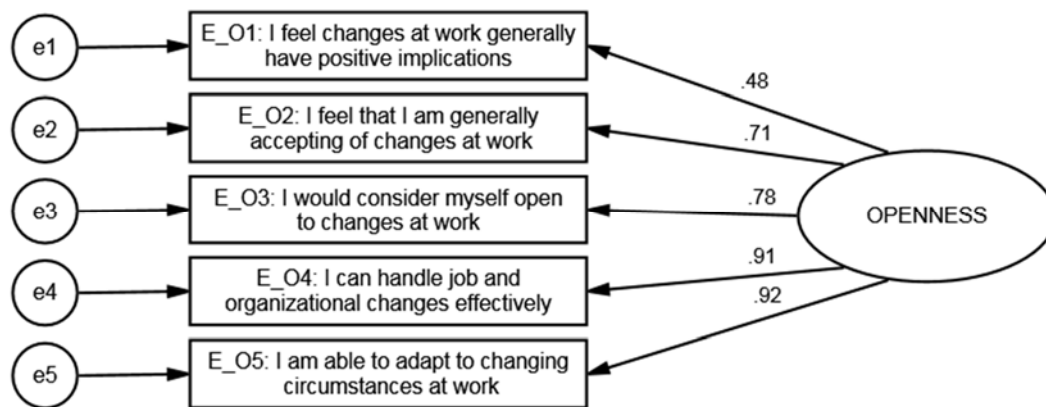
The model is modified to have a better model fit as shown in Figure 17. Removing the item with the lowest factor score, E_O1, improves the model fit. However, a new item shows poor contribution: E_O2 "I feel that I am general accepting of changes at work". All other items load well.

Figure 17 Openness to change congeneric model, modified version 1
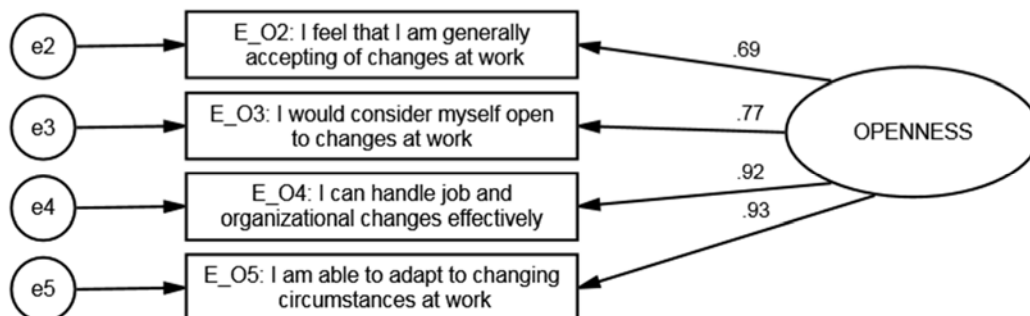
Once again the model is modified to improve loadings. Item E_O2 is removed which results in a better model fit as shown in Figure 18. The revised three-item openness to change scale in Figure 18 is used in subsequent analysis.

Figure 18 Openness to change congeneric model, modified version 2
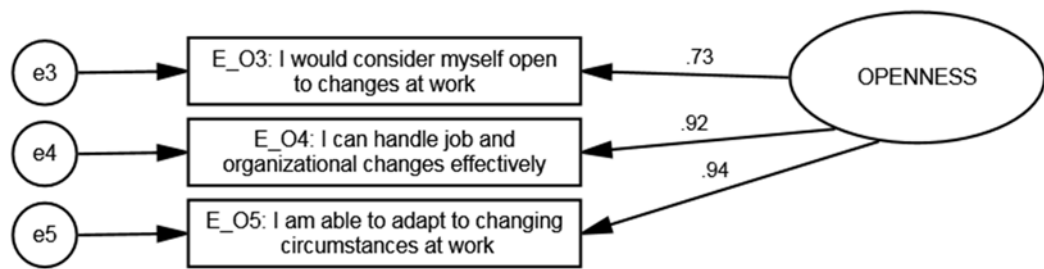
Work and career proactivity: One-factor congeneric model. The congeneric model of work and career proactivity loads poorly on the first item: E_P6: "I stay abreast of developments in my company". The item loads at .59 as presented in Figure 19. The remaining two items load well at .84 and .77 respectively before and at .76 and .85 respectively after the item is removed. A latent variable with only two indicator items may be problematic and because this factor performed poorly in the earlier exploratory factor analysis this scale is removed from further analysis.

Figure 19 Proactivity congeneric model
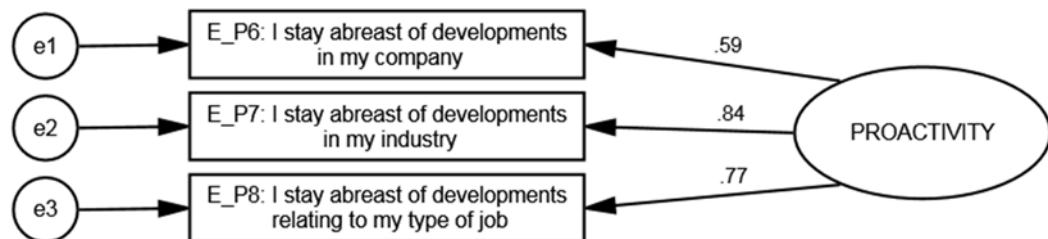
Career motivation: One-factor congeneric model. As shown in Figure 20, the congeneric model of career motivation loads poorly on two of the three items: E_M9: "I have participated in training or schooling that will help me reach my career goals" loads at .44 and E_M10: "I have a specific plan to achieve my career goals" loads at .57. With only one item remaining and the poor performance of this factor in the earlier exploratory factor analysis this scale is removed from further analysis.

Figure 20 Career motivation congeneric model
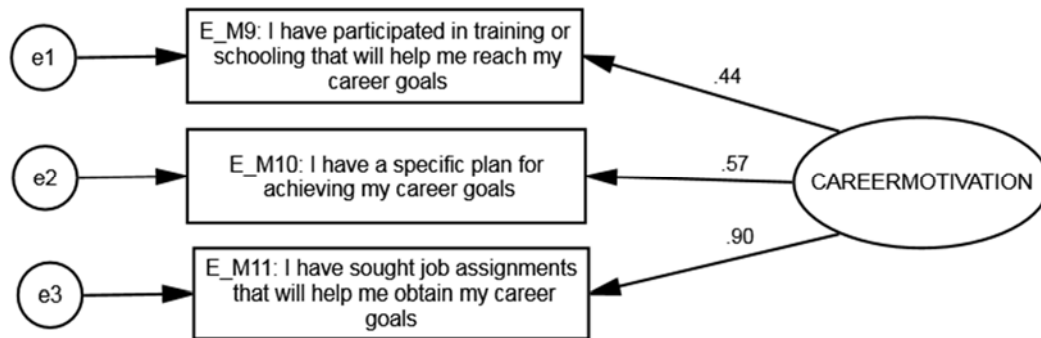
Work and career resilience: One-factor congeneric model. Work and career resilience is measured by five observed variables. The items and the structure of the measurement model are shown in Figure 21. Both E_R15 "My past career experiences have generally been positive" and E_R16 "I take a positive attitude towards my work" indicate poor contribution to the resilience latent construct with .27 and .52 loadings respectively.

Figure 21 Work and career resilience congeneric model
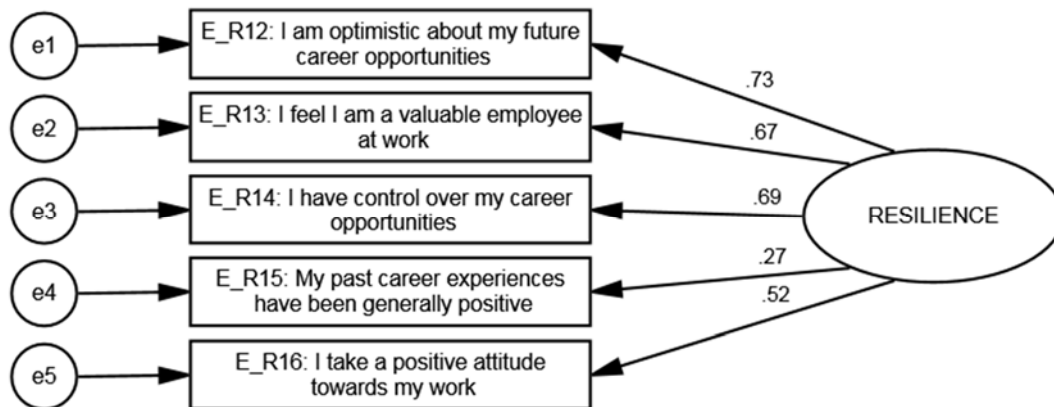
After removing the two poorly performing items, E_15 and E_16, a third item indicates poor fit as presented in Figure 22. This third item, E_R13 "I feel I am a valuable employee at work", has a factor loading of .58 and is removed. A latent variable with only two indicator items may be problematic and because this factor performed poorly in the earlier exploratory factor analysis this scale is removed from further analysis.

Figure 22 Work and career resilience congeneric model, modified
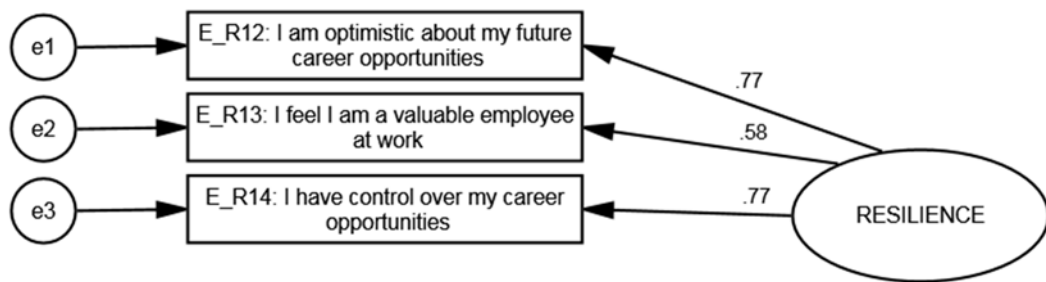
Optimism: One-factor congeneric model. The congeneric model of optimism shows poor loading of one of the three items. E_OPT17 "In uncertain times at work, I usually expect the best", as shown in Figure 23, loads at .63. As discussed, a latent variable with only two items may be problematic. However, this factor performed well in the earlier exploratory factor analysis. It is decided to retain the revised two item optimism scale and to use the scale with caution.

Figure 23 Optimism congeneric model
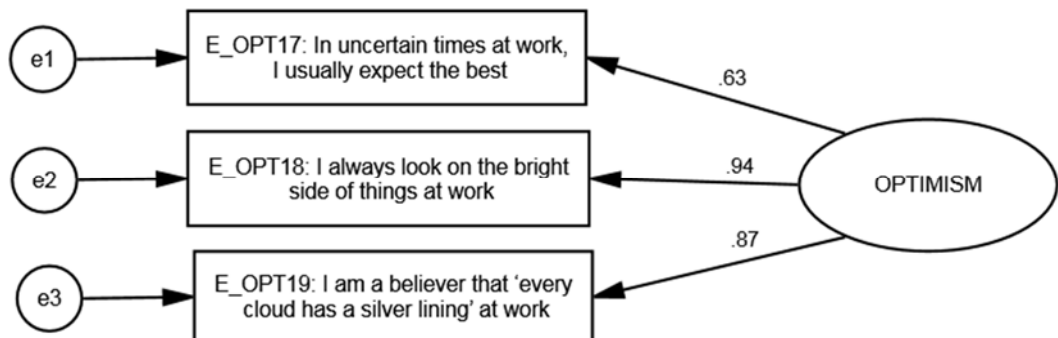
Identity: One-factor congeneric model. Identity is measured by six observed variables: E_ID20 through to E_ID25 as shown in Figure 24. Four items load poorly. First is E_ID20 "I define myself by the work I do". Second is E_ID21 "I am involved in my work". Third is E_ID22 "It is important to me that others think highly of my job". Fourth is E_ID25 "It is important to me that I am acknowledged for my successes in the job". After removal of these four items the remaining two-item model is used with caution.

Figure 24 Identity congeneric model
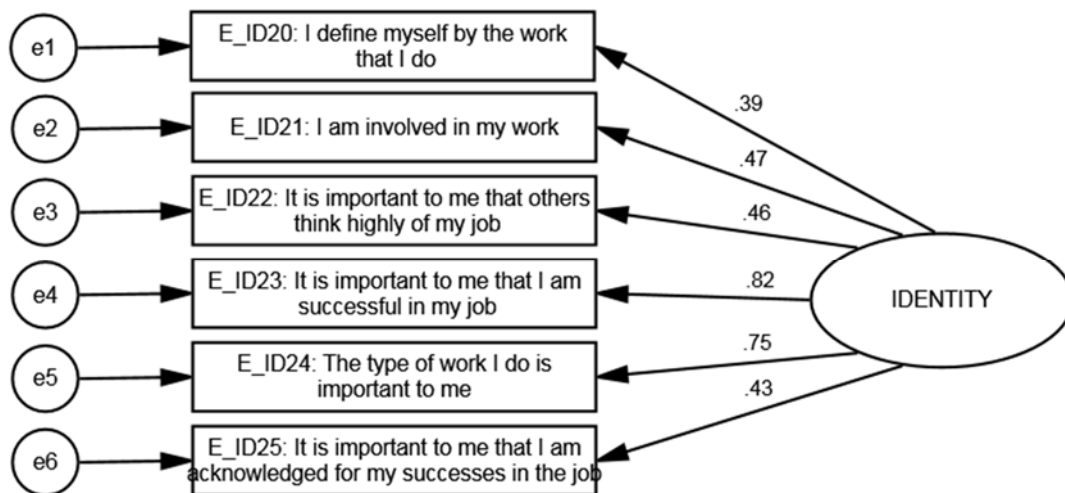
Discriminant validity of employability scales

To determine openness to change, optimism and identity are discriminated by respondents as separate constructs, analysis of a first-order model is conducted. Revised items and scales load appropriately when the three employability scales are combined in a measurement model as shown in Figure 25. Each measured item, reflected in a rectangle, has an error term associated with it. Latent constructs are shown with an oval. Two-headed connections indicate covariance between latent constructs in ovals. One-headed connectors indicate a causal path from a construct to an indicator.

Good discrimination is evident with the correlations ranging from .18 between optimism and identity and .54 between openness to change and optimism. The measurement model demonstrates good fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 10.448$, df = 11, p = .491, CMIN/DF = .950, GFI = .984, AGFI = .959, IFI = 1.001, TLI = 1.001, CFI = 1.000, RMR = .013, RMSEA = .000. To determine the exact nature of employability, all three factors are initially maintained in the structural model.

Figure 25 Measurement model for employability scales
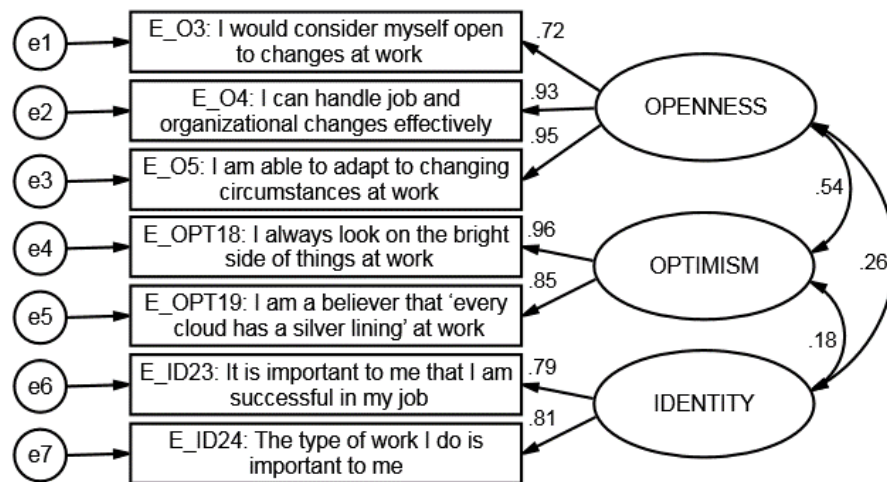
Convergent validity of employability scales

In the next step, the three scales are investigated to determine whether they represent the single latent construct *Employability*. The three scales are combined into a second order model to determine which of the scales load to the single latent variable of Employability in Figure 26.

Figure 26 Convergent validity of employability scales
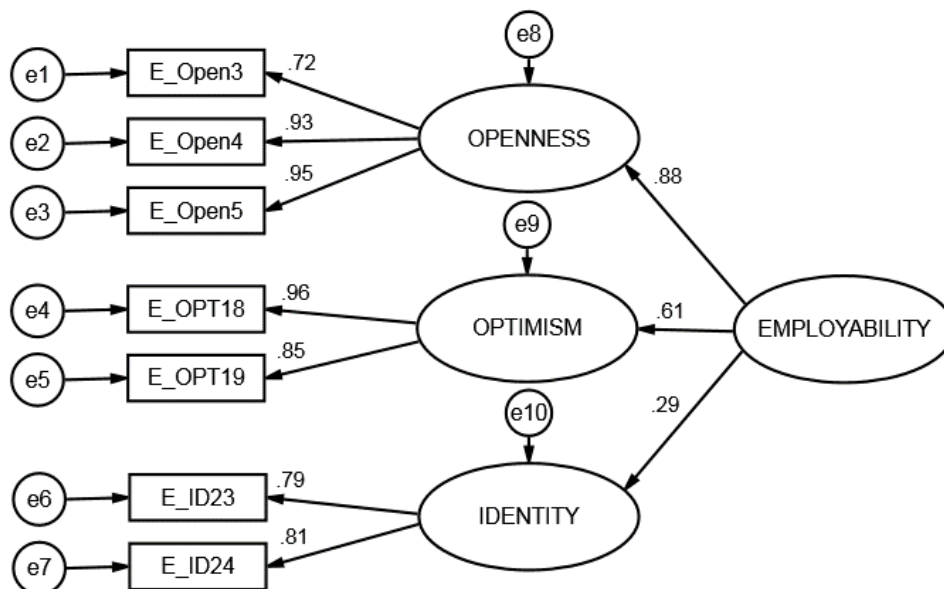
The resulting second order model demonstrates one problem area. The Identity construct loads to Employability at .29. This loading indicates the scale does not contribute to the latent construct Employability, despite strong loadings at the item level. Therefore, it is decided to remove Identity (see Figure 27).

195

Figure 27 Convergent validity of employability scales, modified
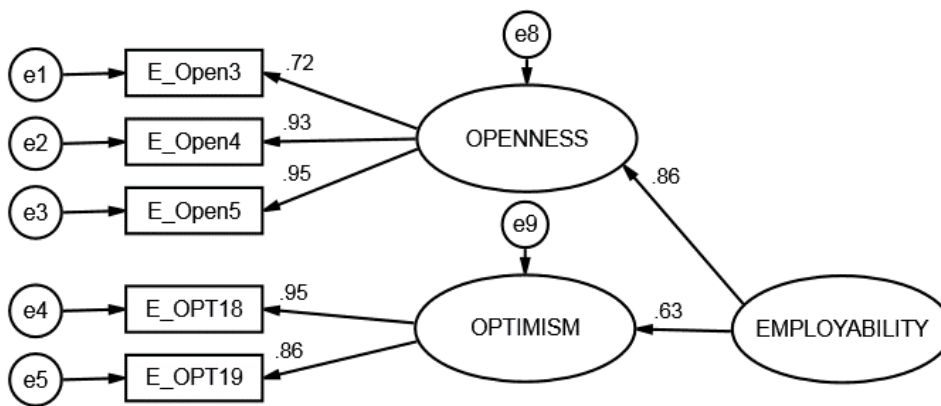
Career success construct: Confirmatory factor analysis

This section reports the results of testing the one-factor congeneric measurement models of job success, interpersonal success, financial success, hierarchical success and non-organisational success.

Job success: One-factor congeneric model. Job success is measured by eight observed variables as shown in Figure 28. The standardised regression weights or factor loadings indicate a poor contribution by all items. The model is modified in an attempt to find an appropriate model fit. Three items with the lowest factor scores are removed with the resulting model shown in Figure 29. Factor loadings are still problematic. Two items with the lowest factor scores are removed and the resulting model (see Figure 30) has a better model fit. The revised three-item job success scale is used in subsequent analysis.

Figure 28 Job success congeneric model

e1 →	CS_J1: Receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters
e2 →	CS_J2: Offered opportunities for further education by my employer
e3 →	CS_J3: Having enough responsibility on my job
e4 →	CS_J4: Fully backed by management in my work
e5 →	CS_J5: In a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills
e6 →	CS_J6: Most happy when I am at work
e7 →	CS_J7: Dedicated to my work
e8 →	CS_J8: In a position to do mostly work which I really like

.64
.57
.58
.69
.69
.31
.40
.44

JOB

Figure 29 Job success congeneric model, modified version 1

e1 →	CS_J1: Receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters	.67
e2 →	CS_J2: Offered opportunities for further education by my employer	.60
e3 →	CS_J3: Having enough responsibility on my work	.55
e4 →	CS_J4: Fully backed by management in my work	.68
e5 →	CS_J5: In a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills	.70

JOB
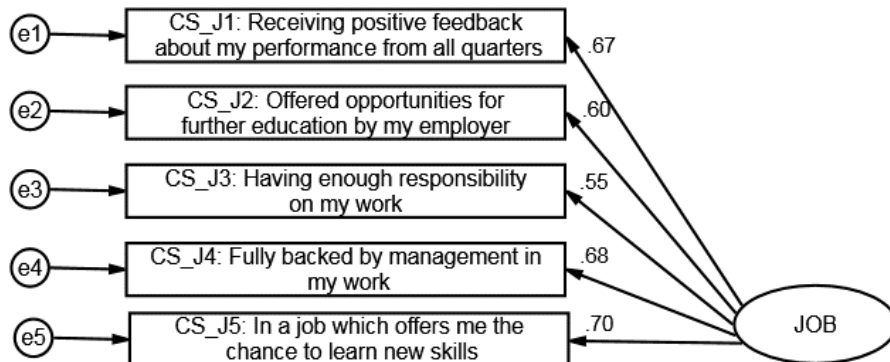
Figure 30 Job success congeneric model, modified version 2

e1 →	CS_J1: Receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters	.69
e4 →	CS_J4: Fully backed by management in my work	.69
e5 →	CS_J5: In a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills	.65

JOB

197
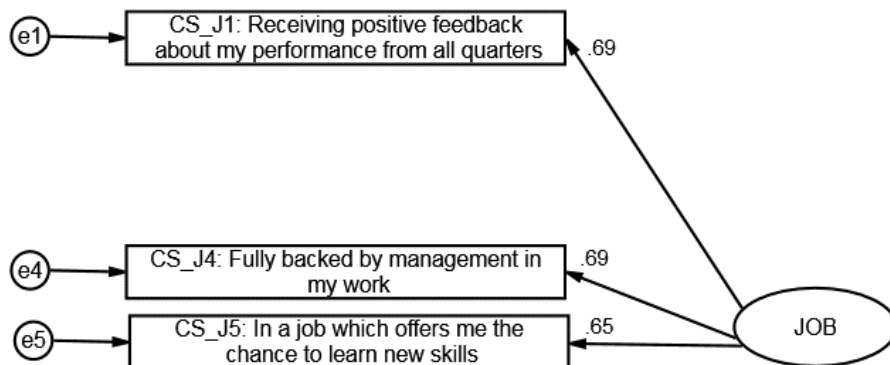
Interpersonal success: One-factor congeneric model. Interpersonal success is measured by four observed variables as shown in Figure 31. The congeneric model of interpersonal success loads poorly on two items: CS_I10 "Getting good performance evaluations" and CS_I12 "Having my superior's confidence" loads at .69 and .64 respectively.

Figure 31 Interpersonal success congeneric model

At first, only CS_I12 is removed as per Figure 32. Later both poor performing items are removed. The remaining two items load well at .79 for "I am respected by my peers" and .94 for "I am accepted by my peers". A latent variable with only two indicator items may be problematic and therefore is used with caution.

Figure 32 Interpersonal success congeneric model, modified
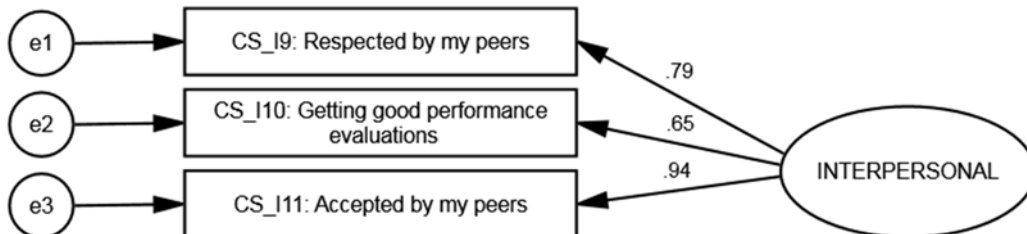
Financial success: One-factor congeneric model. Financial success is measured by three observed variables and the structure of the measurement model is shown in Figure 33. All items load well in this measurement model.

Figure 33 Financial success congeneric model
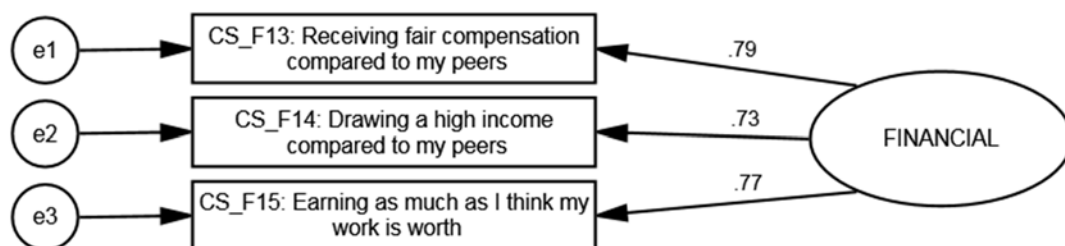
Hierarchical success: One-factor congeneric model. Hierarchical success is measured by four observed variables. The measurement model is shown in Figure 34 with one poorly performing item.

Figure 34 Hierarchical success congeneric model
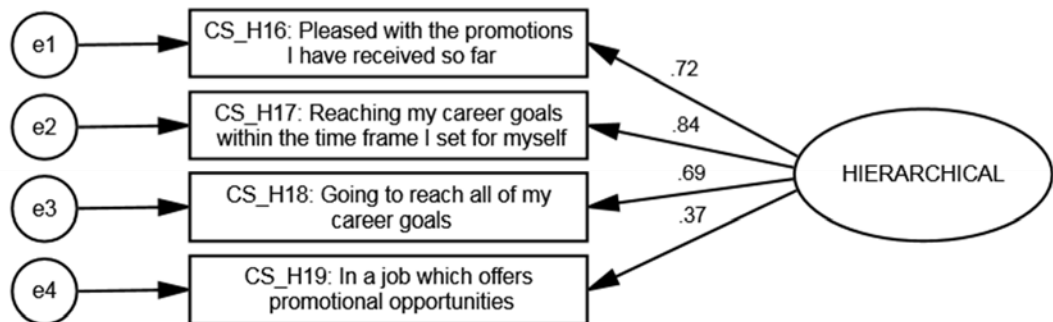
The poorly performing item, CS_H19 "I am in a job which offers promotional opportunities", is removed as shown in Figure 35. The remaining items are maintained despite the loadings of .68 on two items because the model fit statistics remained reasonable.

Figure 35 Hierarchical success congeneric model, modified

Non-organisational success: One-factor congeneric model. Non-organisational success is measured by four observed variables. The measurement model is shown in Figure 36 with one poorly performing item: CS_N23 "Dedicated to my work".

Figure 36 Non-organisational success congeneric model
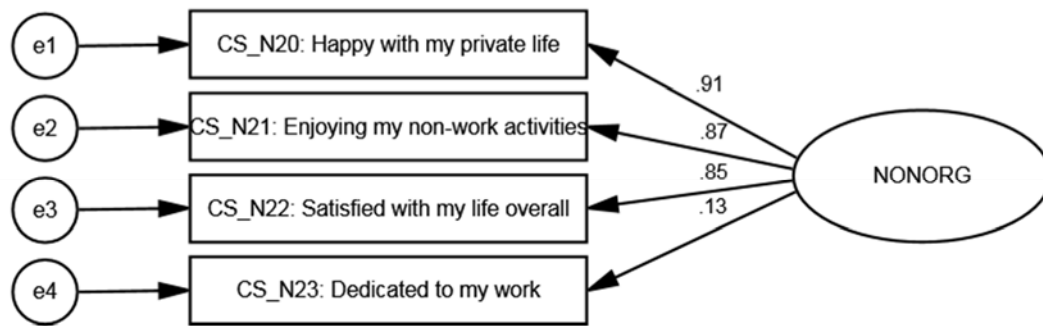
Once again the model is modified to have a better model fit. Item CS_N23, "I am dedicated to my work", is removed which results in a better model fit as shown in Figure 37. The revised three-item non-organisational success scale is used in subsequent analysis.

Figure 37 Non-organisational success congeneric model, modified
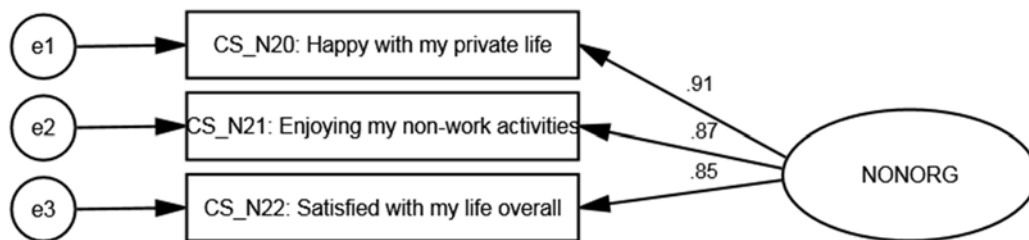
Discriminant validity of career success scales

To determine that job, interpersonal, financial, hierarchical and non-organisational success are discriminated by respondents as separate constructs, analysis of a first-order model is conducted. The revised scales are placed in a measurement model and are shown in Figure 38. Good discrimination is evident with the correlations ranging from .02 between financial and non-organisational success and .57 between job and hierarchical success. These results indicate the five scales are viewed by respondents as different.

Figure 38 Measurement model of career success scales
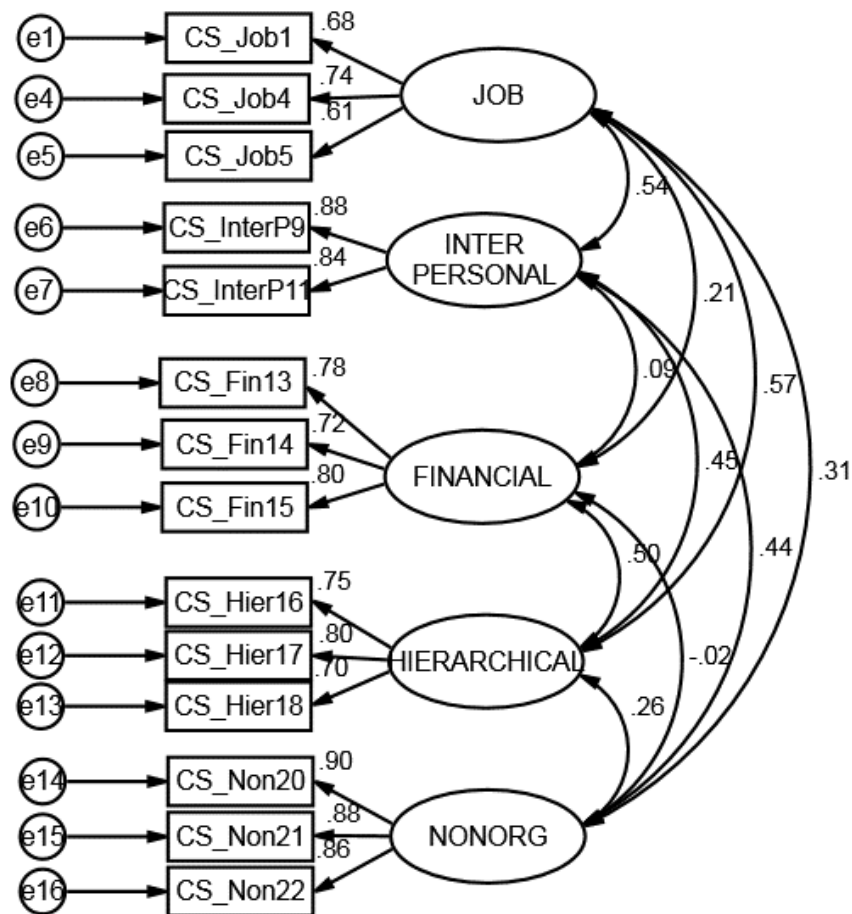
Convergent validity of career success scales

In the next step, the five career success scales are investigated to determine whether they represent the single latent construct *career success*. The five scales are combined into a second order model to determine which of the scales load to the single latent variable of career success in Figure 39.

Figure 39 Convergent validity of career success scales
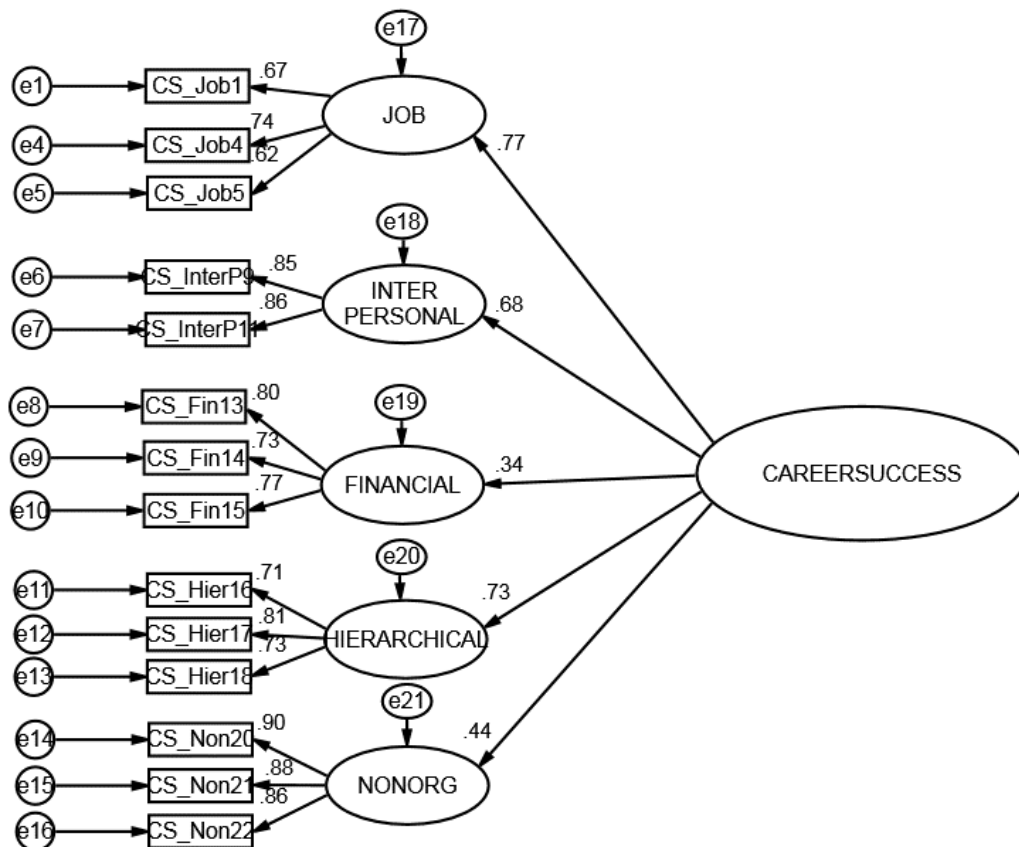
The resulting second order model demonstrates two problem areas. Financial and non-organisational success scales load at .34 and .44 respectively indicating these scales poorly contribute to the latent construct career success. These scales are removed (see Figure 40). These loadings indicate financial and non-organisational success scales do not contribute to the latent construct career Success.

Figure 40 Convergent validity of career success scales, modified
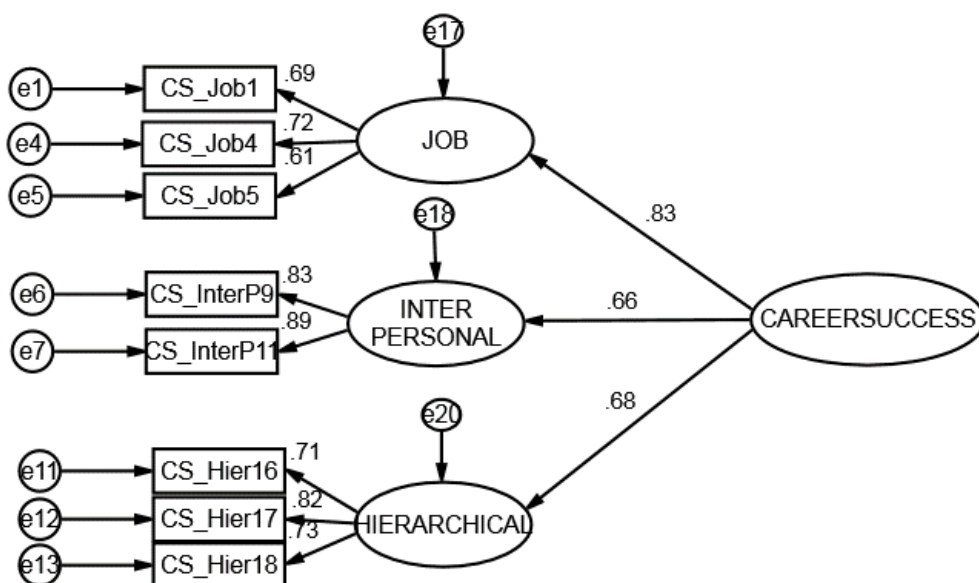
Constructs used in the following analysis are based on the measurement models above. These items from the congeneric models are used in the measurement model evaluation. The measurement model defines relationships between measured observed scores and latent variables being the underlying construct they are designed to measure (Byrne, 2010). The measurement model represents the CFA models determined above in that it specifies the pattern and loading of each measure on a factor. The creation of the measurement model is the opportunity to ensure the scales discriminate from each other and demonstrate a difference between the variables. If the measurement model is properly specified then the structural model can be tested next. The model fit statistics from the measurement model in Figure 41 are $\chi^2 = 102.930$, df = 55, p = .000, CMIN/DF = 1.871, GFI = .926, AGFI = .877, IFI = .962, TLI = .946, CFI = .962, RMR = .031, RMSEA = .069.

Figure 41 Measurement model correlations
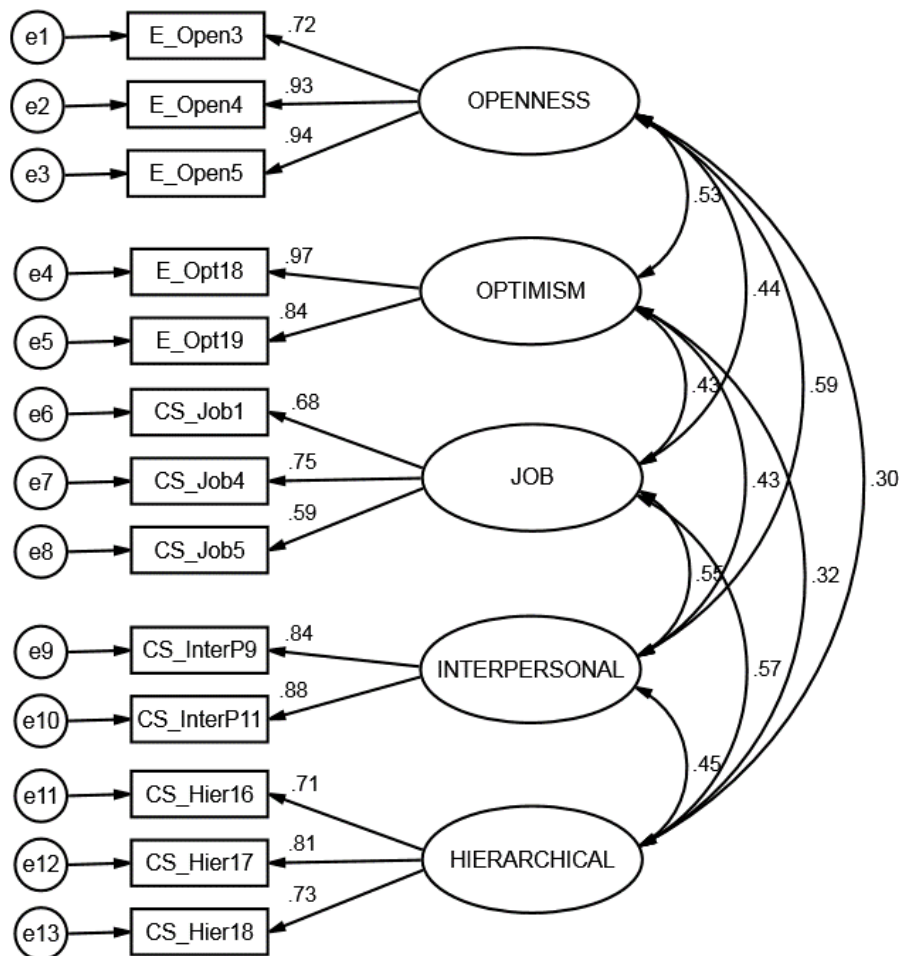
5.7.3　Path analysis

Once the measurement model is correctly specified, a structural model is used to estimate the relationship between variables and constructs represented in the measurement model (Hair, et al., 2006). The model allows the comparison of theory with reality being the data in the sample. The structure of the hypothesised model is based on the theoretical model, which is shown in Figure 42.

Figure 42 Hypothesised model
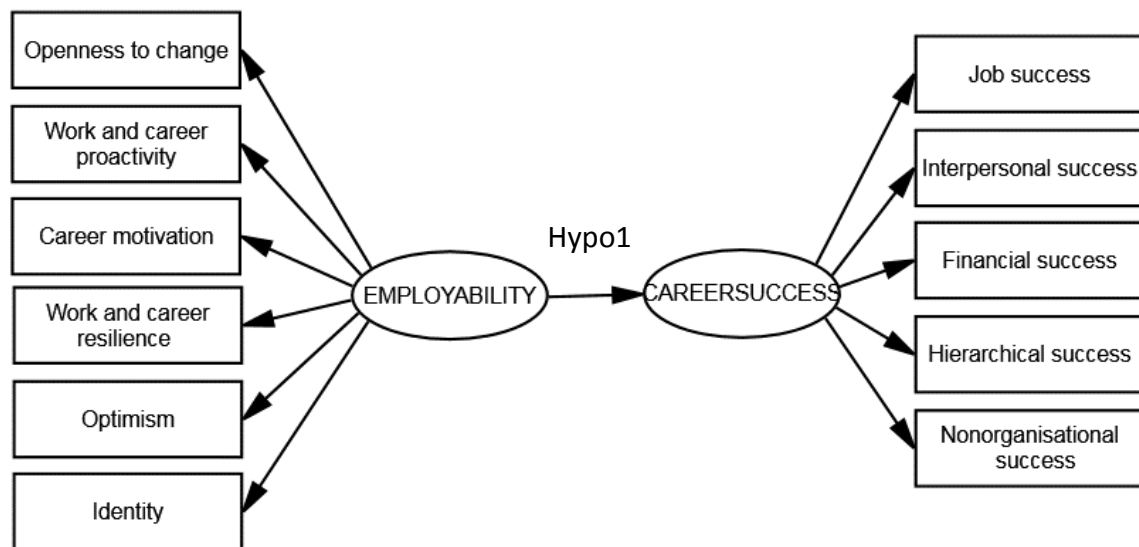
The hypothesised model is revised based on the data collected and results from the confirmatory factor analysis in which individual items are evaluated for adequacy as indicators of the latent constructs. The latent variable for employability uses items from openness to change and optimism scales only. The latent variable for career success uses job, interpersonal and hierarchical success only. These changes to the hypothesised model are presented in Figure 43.

Figure 43 Revised hypothesised model
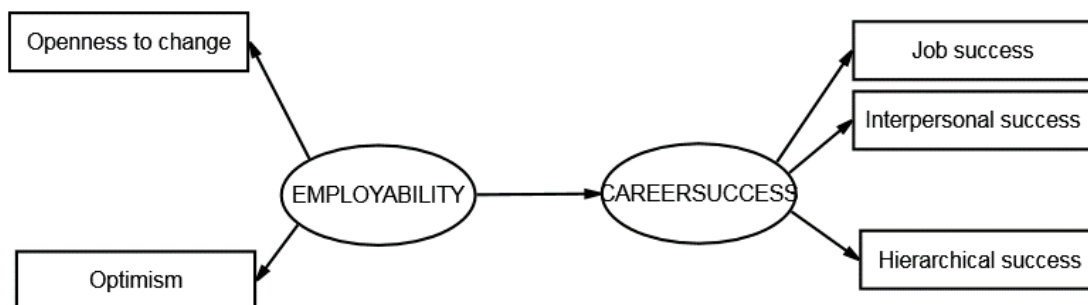
In the path analysis the responses from all 184 respondents are used. The model is calculated using maximum likelihood (ML) estimation. The resulting model is presented in Figure 44. The chi-square for the initial hypothesised model is 12.768 (df = 4, p = 0.012, CMIN/DF = 3.192, GFI = .971, AGFI = .891, IFI = .958, TLI = .892, CFI = .957, RMR = .019, RMSEA = .109). The model is a good fit for most indices, however there is room for improvement.

Figure 44 Revised hypothesised model, updated
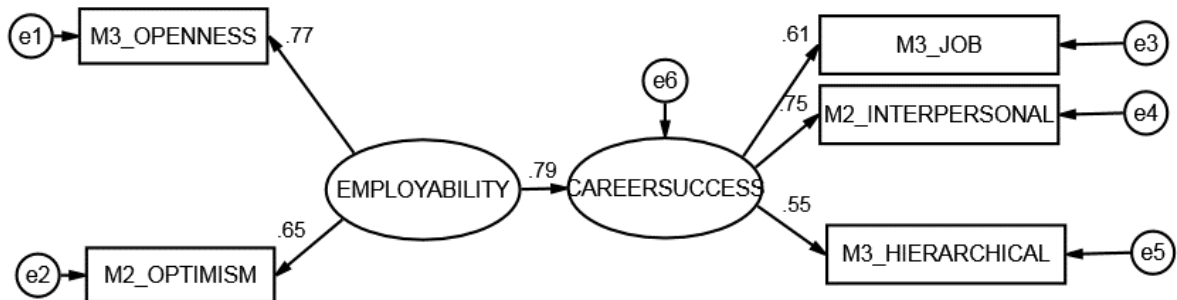
As reported, a model is well specified when it reproduces the sample covariance matrix well (Holmes-Smith, 2011). In other words, the hypothesised model can be described as the true model when the data fit the model well as demonstrated through the fit statistics. The extent to which the hypothesised model is consistent with the true model is the underlying question.

A model development strategy uses a proposed model and through modifications of the structural or measurement models improves the model (Hair, et al., 2006). In this manner, theory provides a starting point and SEM is employed not only to test the model but also to provide insights into its re-specification. Model re-specification must be done with theoretical support so that it may still be generalised to other samples (Hair, et al., 2006).

To improve and simplify a model, the impact of each variable on the other variables is investigated. Where the impact of one variable on another is not significant, the path between the two is removed. Non-significant parameters can be considered unimportant to the model. In the interest of scientific parsimony, albeit given adequate sample size, non-significant parameters should be deleted from the model (Byrne, 2010). Therefore, the paths between the two variables is constrained to zero. The regression

weights indicate the significance of influence of one variable on another. The paths with *p* greater than .05 are removed. In the current model, no non-significant paths were identified.

To continue to improve and build the model, the next step is to consider adding paths between the variables. This step is appropriate only if the underlying theory supports the inclusion of a path (Garson, 2005). In the current model, modification indices indicate one potential path that may be significant. Modification indices indicate that if a covariance between the residual terms *e3* and *e5* is free to be estimated, the χ^2 (*CMIN*) for the model will improve by 7.86 units. In effect, the association between e3 and e5 is reflecting that job success explains some of the variance in hierarchical success and *vice versa* and that the regression paths should be freed to be estimated. A path between residual terms for job and hierarchical success may seem feasible because a change in one construct might be closely related to a change in the other construct. Increased hierarchical success may well be similar to increased job success and the opposite is true too. When this amendment is made the revised hypothesised model demonstrates improved and satisfactory fit statistics: χ^2 = 2.296, df = 3, CMIN/DF = .765, GFI = .995, AGFI = .975, IFI = 1.003, TLI = 1.012, CFI = 1.000, RMR = .010, RMSEA = .000. The improved hypothesised model is shown in Figure 45.

Figure 45 Hypothesised model - Best fit
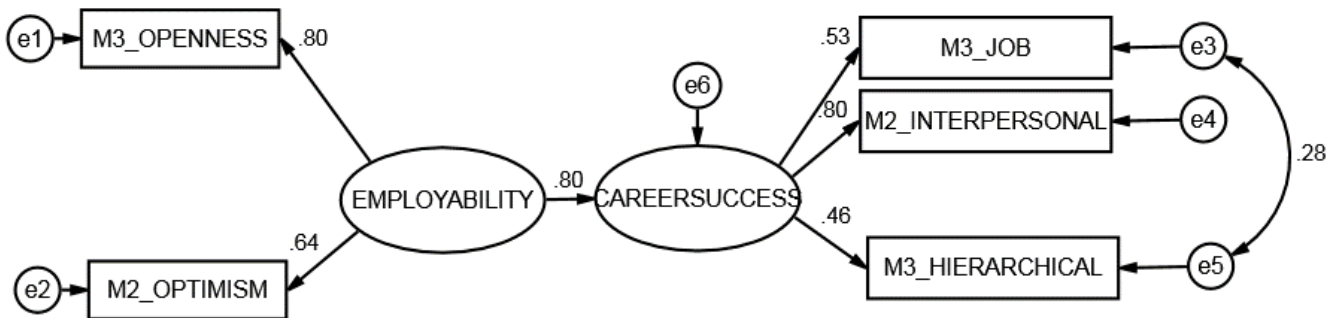
An inspection of the final model reveals a strong positive relationship between self-perceived employability and self-perceived career success. These results provide support for the hypothesis, which proposed a positive relationship between employability and career success.

5.8 Discussion

The objective of this study of award winners was to examine the impact of award winners' self-reported perceptions of their employability on their perceived career success. In this section the findings of the study are discussed. Then the implications of the research for theory and practice are presented. The limitations of the research are identified and opportunities for further research are considered.

Individuals in this study were winners of awards over a six year period. Award winners were evenly spread with respect to rank but 70% reported an undergraduate or post-graduate degree qualification. The central proposition of this study is that an award winner's sense of their own employability contributes positively to their perceptions of their career success. Specifically, the employability construct was expected to make a positive contribution to career success. Career success factors include job success, interpersonal, financial, hierarchical and non-organisation success (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986). The research question is: What impact does award winners' employability make to their career success? The related hypothesis proposed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between award winners' perceived employability and their experienced career success.

Before testing the hypothesis, the proposition by Fugate and Kinicki (2008) that employability is a second-order multidimensional construct linked to different latent dimensions was tested. Fugate and Kinicki propose employability has six critical dimensions: openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, optimism, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and career identity. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to assess the internal consistency and reliability of the employability scale. Factor analysis confirmed the hypothesised structure and shows six latent factors. The percentage variance explained by the six factors is 62.9%. The six latent factors were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis tests the multi-dimensionality of a theoretical construct. Structural equation modelling is used to synthesise factors and represent them more parsimoniously. The results support Fugate and Kinicki's proposition that employability is a latent multidimensional construct. However, in this study, the employability construct relates to two dimensions only: openness to change and optimism.

207

The same tests were performed on the career success scale proposed by Gattiker and Larwood (1986). Career success dimensions consist of job, interpersonal financial, hierarchical and non-organisational success. The exploratory factor analysis showed three latent factors: job success, financial success and non-organisational success. Both interpersonal and hierarchical success loaded on two items only and are therefore used with caution. Results from confirmatory factor analysis identify three career success dimensions: job success, interpersonal success and hierarchical success. These results are different between the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis which suggests results should be used with caution.

The hypothesis - the relationship between employability and career success - was then addressed. The hypothesised model was updated based on findings from the confirmatory factor analysis. The path model demonstrates that the path from perceived employability to perceived career success was significant and positive (.80). As expected, there is a positive relationship between award winners' perceived employability and perceived career success and results support the hypothesis.

5.8.1 Implications for theory

These findings contribute to the literature in which the construct of employability is studied. The dispositional measure of employability developed by Fugate and colleagues (Fugate, 2006; Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Fugate, et al., 2004) is a useful measure for employed and unemployed individuals. However, this study suggests the dimensions Fugate and others include in employability may be less useful for award winners who may be considered by some as high performers. Dimensions of employability that were less useful were work and career proactivity, career motivation, work and career resilience, and identity. The two dimensions that determine self-perceived employability for award winners in this study are openness to change and optimism. From the individual's perspective, employability may be their perception of being able to secure another job. Intuitively optimism and openness to change are appropriate measures of employability from an individual's perspective in that an individual who is optimistic and open to changes may be considered employable or more employable than an individual who is less optimistic and open to changes.

This research contributes to knowledge relating to employability. While Fugate and Kinicki's (2008) definition of employability may be wider, for award winners in this study, employability consists only of openness to changes at work and optimism. This research

208

contributes to knowledge about the relationship between perceived employability and perceived career success. Employability has been seen as an antecedent to career success by some researchers (for example, Van der Heijden, et al., 2009). Award winners perceive their employability, consisting of openness to change and optimism, to be positively related to their perceived career success. These findings contribute to the existing research regarding employability and careers success.

Findings regarding career success contribute to the literature regarding the range of career-success determinants. According to Gattiker and Larwood (1986), career success consists of job success, interpersonal success, financial success, hierarchical success and non-organisational success. However, for high-performing individuals only job success, interpersonal success and hierarchical success are measures of career success. Financial success is not a component of career success as perceived by award winners. Identifying career success factors for high-performing individuals is a useful addition to the literature on career success and high performers.

5.8.2   Implications for practice

Aside from the importance of the impact of awards from an academic perspective, there are several considerations regarding awards in practice. Findings from this study suggest award winners who perceive an increase in their employability are likely to perceive an increase in their career success. Employability is sometimes seen as an individualistic concept where a person accumulates skills, reputation and connections to maximise their chance to find employment internally with their employer or elsewhere in times of change (Kanter, 1995). For award winners, increasing their perceived openness to changes at work and their optimism has potential to increase their perceived employability. Rather than considering aspects such as proactivity, resilience or motivation, which are used in Fugate and Kinicki's (2008) studies of employability, award winners could focus on being open to change and being optimistic to increase their perceived employability. This finding implies that from the individual award winner's perspective being open to changes and optimistic makes them more employable and perhaps more likely to secure a new role. Furthermore, by increasing their perceptions of their employability award winners are more likely to perceive higher levels of career success.

Career success includes real or perceived achievements an individual accumulates as a result of their work experiences (Judge, et al., 1995). For award winners, career success is perceived to be a concept including job success, interpersonal success and

hierarchical success. Of interest to managers of award winners is that for winners, career success does not include financial success.

5.8.3 Limitations

This study provided important findings regarding employability and the outcome variables of different aspects of career success. However, some limitations should be considered.

A potential limitation of this survey study was that there was a relatively short time between respondents winning their award and participating in this research. A longer time lag, for example more than five years, could be considered in future studies to explore award winners' perceived employability and career success. However, whether respondents are able to recall information regarding their award win that may have occurred several years ago is an important consideration when designing research (Dillman, 2000).

The use of multiple samples for testing the confirmatory factor analysis and the final SEM model has not been possible because of the relatively small sample size. Using multiple samples would provide evidence of model stability and generalisability. Ideally, the sample should be split with one half of survey responses used for model development and the second half used for model confirmation. Retesting of the modified model, or re-specification, should be conducted using different data (Weston & Gore, 2006).

This study uses self-report data. Self-report measures assume that respondents are willing and able to accurately answer questions regarding their own thoughts, feelings and beliefs. Respondents may alter their response because they know they are the subject of the research being investigated and this reactivity, as it is referred to, changes their responses (Stangor, 1998).

Another limitation is that respondents were national award winners and it is possible that the results may not generalise to a broader population. The sample is representative of award winners only and future studies should investigate to what extent relationships exist between employability and career success in perhaps finalists and nominees as well as award winners or perhaps more generally in high achievers.

Gattiker and Larwood's (1986) measure was created nearly 30 years ago. As discussed earlier, changes in the nature of work since then may have contributed to a change in individuals' career attitudes and behaviours (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Therefore, it is possible that this scale may not account for contemporary ideas.

Finally, an additional limit for this study is the assumption that employability is an antecedent of job success. It may be argued that career success leads to increased employability. For example, employers may offer training opportunities to those identified as successful who then experience increased employability. Untested in this study is the possibility that career success contributes to employability. Furthermore, it is possible that employability may be a form of career success.

5.8.4 Future research

Awards are unquestionably a growing and important phenomenon. Results from this survey of award winners identifies a number of new avenues for future research. From a methodological point of view, subsequent studies may address some of the limitations of the present research. Two related suggestions are made here. First, an expansion of the data sample in a longitudinal manner would help expand our understanding about the longer term impacts of an award win for individuals. One limitation presented earlier was the relatively short time between winning an award and participating in this research. This short period may not be sufficient time to allow the award win to impact a winner's career. A longitudinal study might find an award has impact and offers greater career value if more time has passed. Such a finding would support Rosenbaum's (1979) tournament model in which assessments in the early career have a deep and lasting effect on late career. Alternatively, an award may have a shelf life after which the award offers no value. A study of different awards may further confirm whether awards differ in this respect. Second, an increase in the size of the sample would provide the opportunity to split the data so one half could be used for model development and the other half for model confirmation. In so doing, evidence would support model stability and generalisability.

Future studies may widen the field of research and include winners and non-winners in an assessment of self-perceived employability and career success. Any research including winners and non-winners may indicate whether winners are different and if so, how. Such investigations may inform the literature about high performers.

5.8.5 Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate the relationship between award winners' self-perceived employability and their self-perceived career success. Award winners' perceptions of employability consists of their openness to change and optimism only. Award winners' perceptions of career success consists of job success, interpersonal success and hierarchical

success only. For award winners there is a positive relationship between these revised constructs of employability and career success. This research has provided an important insight into award winners. Award winners' perceptions of employability and career success informs the respective bodies of literature. This research extends the application of tournament theory to the context of externally-granted work-related awards for individuals.

Chapter VI: Summary and conclusion

The purpose of this research was to investigate awards and the career impact of winning an externally-granted national work-related award for individuals in the business environment. The research in this thesis addresses a gap in the awards research related to business sector awards for individuals. This chapter concludes this investigation by presenting how the findings contribute to research and practice.

There are five sections in this chapter (see Figure 46). The chapter commences with an overview of the research in section 6.1. The overview revisits the processes through which this study provides evidence regarding the research questions. This overview is followed by a detailed discussion in section 6.2 on how the findings contribute to knowledge of awards and careers as well as implications for awarding organisations, managers and individuals who might participate in awards. Limitations resulting from the research design and study sample are identified in section 6.3. The chapter concludes with future research opportunities in section 6.4 and the conclusion in section 6.5.

Figure 46 Outline of Chapter 6

6.1	• Overview of research
6.2	• Contribution to knowledge and practice
6.3	• Limitations
6.4	• Future research
6.5	• Conclusion
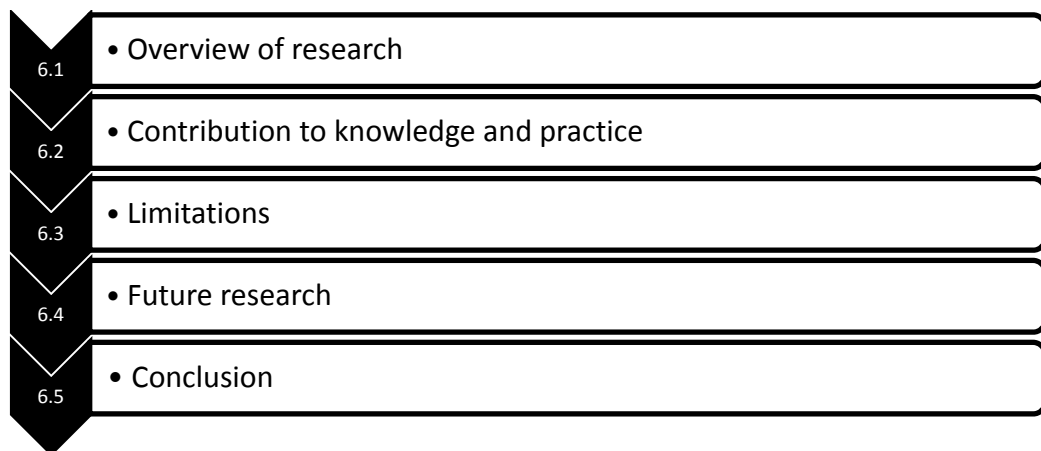
6.1   Overview of research

Awards are ubiquitous. Awards are designed to achieve different objectives and in the business sector awards tend to be used to recognise achievements. Despite the extensive use of awards, there has been surprisingly little research regarding the value of winning an externally-granted national work-related award for an individual.

To address this gap in the research, an initial activity was to review critically the awards literature. There is rich and varied research regarding awards such as the Nobel

213

Prizes, Academy Awards, awards for literature, art, teaching, and total quality management reported by multiple researchers. There is a small amount of literature regarding external awards for CEOs and economists, for example. The resulting literature review is a contribution to knowledge. However, the dearth of literature related to awards for individuals in the business environment is conspicuously absent.

At the outset the research plan was to interview individual award winners to understand the career impact an award win may have on a winners' careers. In identifying potential participants for the planned interviews, the variety of awards and their structures and processes became apparent. There is little research identified in the literature review that pertained to the structure and processes of awards for individuals. To address this research gap, the following research question was posed:

1   What award components and processes comprise externally-granted work-related awards for individuals?

The creation of an awards taxonomy filled the literature gap identified at the start of the research. Documents related to awards presented by 62 awarding organisations were collected and ten semi-structured interviews with knowledgeable awards organisers were conducted. A document analysis was conducted using data from the collected documents and interview transcripts. The resulting awards taxonomy identified four stages: pre-award, compete, celebrate, post-award. The pre-award stage includes activities to promote and advertise an award and the eligibility criteria that restricts and targets nominees. The compete stage comprises the nomination and judging processes. It was found that both stages include several components awarding organisations use in the management of their respective awards programs. These components are believed to contribute to the perceived value of the award. The celebrate stage encompasses the announcement of the award winner and their prizes. The post-award stage includes media coverage and ongoing activities in which the award winner may be involved.

The awards taxonomy provides a framework of awards structures and processes that at the outset was believed would be of value to the remaining two studies. The taxonomy was valuable for awarding organisations and loosely informed the subsequent research questions about the value of an award for individual award winners. With respect to individual award winners there were three research questions raised regarding the career impact of winning an award. The research questions were:

2.1 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact an individual's career orientation?

2.2 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact objective career success measures?

2.3 How does winning an externally-granted national work-related award impact subjective career success measures?

Assessing the career impact of an award involved the interview of 42 award winners. Winners were mostly in the early part of their career and had won awards between one and five years prior to participating in this study. Thematic analysis was conducted using interview transcripts in NVivo. Most notably, the majority of winners did not believe the award played a role in any change in their career orientation. Anecdotal stories from award organisers about enhanced career development were supported by some interviewed award winners. However, these examples appear to be the exceptions. There was in general a perceived lack of impact of the award on winners' career orientation.

Most award winners reported limited objective career success in the form of changes in pay or promotion from their award win. There was typically no change in employer-provided compensation and only two award winners reported receiving a bonus as a result of their award win. For those individuals who had received an internal promotion subsequent to winning an award most believed the award had no or limited impact. A few winners reported expanded roles and responsibilities after their win and some reported the award was valuable in subsequent employer changes.

All winners reported enhanced subjective career success measures. Winners reported enhanced career satisfaction and recognition. Award winners mostly valued recognition from others although there appeared to be a fine balance between too much and too little recognition. Increased confidence was reported by all winners and many felt the award validated them and their work. Some winners spoke about enhanced credibility they experienced in particular when they were in the early career stages. Negative impacts of winning an award identified by some award winners was notable. Negative impacts were related to increased pressure to perform and sometimes from a lack of recognition from award winners' managers.

There appeared to be a disconnect between award organisers' beliefs and expectations as identified in the first study, and award winners' experiences. Award organisers believe awards are valuable and important, and awards can have a notable impact on winners' career paths. However, award winners did not report the award win was valuable to the same extent suggested by the organisers.

Furthermore, winning an award had little impact on winners' career trajectory. This disconnect suggests award organisers hold a different view regarding the value of awards compared to employers and winners' managers. Award organisers appear to believe awards are signals of excellence yet the signal seems to be unseen by employers or managers. Alternatively, an award win confirms only what employers or managers knew about the individual winner before the award. Employers or managers may believe winners are no more valuable subsequent to the win compared to before the award and hence there are no additional extrinsic rewards.

In the final study, the relationship between award winners' self-perceived employability and self-perceived career success was examined. The potential impact an award might have an individual's employability led to the following research question:

3   What impact does award winners' self-perceived employability have on their perceived career success?

There were 198 award winners surveyed who had won awards over a six year period. Structural equation modelling was used to test the hypothesised relationship between award winners' self-perceived employability and their career success. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated award winners' perceived employability to be a construct consisting only of openness to change and optimism. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the career success construct as well. Results indicated award winners perceive career success to consist only of job success, interpersonal success and hierarchical success.

The hypothesised model was then tested and the path model confirmed the relationship between perceived employability and perceived career success was significant and positive. As expected, there is a positive relationship between award winners' perceived employability and their perceived career success. Results from the survey supported the earlier interview findings.

6.2   Contributions to knowledge

6.2.1   Contribution to theory

This thesis contributes to knowledge by answering the call for more research regarding awards for individuals in the business sector. As shown through the detailed review of research regarding awards, there is a dearth of empirical research in the area of national work-related awards for individuals. The creation of an awards taxonomy and the subsequent research regarding the career impact of an award win begins to address the gaps in the literature. This research makes a preliminary contribution to knowledge development regarding the architecture of the growing phenomenon of awards.

As identified from the literature, the majority of research related to awards in business is focused on awards for organisations. Most of this research relates to awards for quality like the Deming Prize and the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (for example, Bohoris, 1995; Milakovich, 2004). Awards within organisations and bestowed by management has received some research focus (for example, Gubler, et al., 2013). The results from the current research regarding awards from an external awarding organisation is novel and thus makes a noteworthy contribution to awards literature.

The emergent taxonomy from Chapter 3 contributes to awards literature and signalling theory (Spence, 1973). Awards literature is enhanced in that previous awards' frameworks have focused on teaching awards (for example, Menges, 1996) and journalism awards (Dong, 2013). The taxonomy provides a framework explicitly for externally-granted national work-related awards for individuals in the business sector.

The taxonomy and the other studies contribute to the discourse on the use of signals to convey the value of an employee and their human capital to the labour market (Trevor, 2001, Weiss, 1995). Signalling theory was originally applied to the labour market by Spence (1973). Spence's research involved education as a signal of ability or potential to be used in the recruitment process. However, although award organisers believe awards indicate or signal excellence, the 'reading' of this signal by employers and managers is problematic. If employers or managers were informed of an individual's excellence via an award win, the employer may be expected to acknowledge this excellence. This has not been the experience of award winners in this research.

The research in this thesis supports tournament theory (Lazear & Rosen, 1981) in that work-related awards are competitive contests where actors compete for a limited number of prizes (Connelly, et al., 2014). Further, this research supports tournament theory

217

in that awards are bestowed based on the winners' relative rank rather than an absolute level of output.

This research contributes to careers and career development literature. Careers literature includes studies of factors that impact careers such as education and training (Judge, et al., 2010) and networking (Ismail & Rasdi, 2007). An award may be perceived as another career factor with could affect career development. However winning an award appears to have no impact on career trajectory.

The research contributes to measures of career success by demonstrating that awards may lead to changes in subjective career success measures and are less likely to change objective career success measures. On further investigation regarding career success, using Gattiker and Larwood's (1986) definition of career success, award winners' perceived career success consists of job success, interpersonal success and hierarchical success only. Financial success was not perceived to be a dimension of career success. This is a further contribution to knowledge because dimensions of career success for award winners are identified.

A further contribution this thesis makes is to the knowledge and extent research regarding employability and the impact of perceived employability on an individual's career success. Research indicates employability is a construct or concept consisting of openness to change, work and career proactivity, career motivation, work and career resilience, optimism and identity (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). However, in this research, award winners conceive employability to be a concept based on openness to change and optimism only. This finding implies that from the individual award winner's perspective being open to changes and optimistic makes them more employable and perhaps more likely to secure a new role. From the individual award winner's perspective, openness to changes and optimism are the employability dimensions that are more predictive of career success.

6.2.2 Contributions to practice

Research in this thesis makes several contributions to professional practice. The taxonomy will be useful to several stakeholders including awarding organisations, recruiters, hiring and talent managers and individuals who may be contemplating participating in an award. For awarding organisations, the employment of the taxonomy provides a framework in which improvements to award components and processes can be made. The four stages of awards identified and presented in the taxonomy provides a framework which award

organisers may use to compare awards. The discrete award stages offer opportunity to consider the parts of awards that may be improved or enhanced. The framework helps award organisers identify opportunities for change. In so doing, awarding organisations have the opportunity to potentially increase the quality of an award thereby increasing the value of the award. For example awarding organisers may decide to increase the competitiveness of the award by increasing the number of participants in the award program. To increase participation, activities in the award taxonomy's pre-award stage may guide award organisers. Increasing advertising and relaxing eligibility criteria such as requirements regarding nominees' membership may be two avenues to increase the number of participants. Similarly, the awards taxonomy may become a provide ways to improve the three other awards' stages.

Besides awarding organisations, recruiters and talent managers could find value in the taxonomy if they are comparing awards. Recruiters or talent managers may decide one award is more valuable than another award using the award taxonomy for such analysis. The taxonomy could help determine the signal strength of an award that a potential employee may have won.

Individuals may use the taxonomy when considering participation in an award. The taxonomy helps identify awards with more rigorous components such as eligibility criteria and judging processes that may indicate a high quality award, which could earn better respect in relevant industries.

Talent managers and employers in general may be interested in some of the implications arising from studies in this thesis. There are four implications that are offered for consideration by talent managers and employers. First, there appears to be a human need or even a hunger for recognition. However, the processes for identifying and recognising accomplishments must be and must be seen to be authentic for there to be credibility and value to the individual. Second, individuals may benefit from an opportunity and mechanism to reflect on their career and related accomplishments that extends beyond an annual review. Performance appraisals that occur annually often address activities from the previous year whereas an award nomination may require an assessment that exceeds a single year. Third, reflection, validation, credibility, affirmation and enhanced motivation are powerful emotional responses that can flow from winning a work-related national award. Employers may find the recognition winners receive can lead to increased confidence. Fourth, not every award winner will have positive experiences from their award win. There are opportunities to enhance the experience winners have

219

which either awarding organisations or employers may adopt. As an example, awarding organisations may help winners promote or market themselves and their career win.

This research identifies ways individual winners can enhance the benefits they experience from an award win. Individual winners may decide to take a proactive approach in subsequent performance appraisals and raise the topic of their award win themselves. Winners may need to consider creating a compelling argument regarding the value of an award win for their employer as a means to justify a salary increase or bonus. Deliberate efforts are more likely to result in changes in career success measures.

6.3   Limitations

The three studies that make up this thesis have provided greater understanding of awards for individuals in the business domain. However, research is seldom without limitations, as outlined below.

In all research, qualitative and quantitative, it is the researcher who selects what will be considered as data (Richards, 2009). In this research, awards are the topic. However, awards are difficult to study (Neckermann & Frey, 2013) and one reason for this is the lack of a clear definition of awards in business settings.

The selection of awards included in this thesis may have limited the findings. Awards included are recognition awards for previous accomplishments and may be considered traditional recognition awards. The samples in all three studies in this thesis include awards for individuals who pursued careers as white-collar workers in the commercial sector. The industries included have been limited to the professional sector. Studies from other sectors are needed to compare the results and determine the generalisability of the results.

Given the exploratory nature of this research the first study and resulting awards taxonomy were created inductively. Because of the inductive nature of the research, it cannot be said unequivocally this is the only possible taxonomy. Taxonomies are living breathing resources that adapt and change with the evolution of users and systems. The taxonomy developed in this thesis is a point of departure and suggestions for potential future research is offered in the next section. The inclusion of different types of awards would provide a more thorough assessment of awards and a taxonomy that is transferrable between different contexts. Over time and with further use, the proposed taxonomy may be validated and enhanced.

Award winners involved in this research may have won their external work-related award several years before the interview or survey. The length of time that has passed may impact the winners' recollection of the event and surrounding circumstances. Although this research is designed to limit such bias, the possibility of this issue must be acknowledged. As demonstrated in this research, care must be taken when interpreting the data and making generalisations regarding the findings.

Limitations may result from the methods chosen to conduct a study. Two of the three studies in this thesis use qualitative research methods. There are ambiguities in qualitative inquiry and a researcher who adopts qualitative techniques needs to be able to tolerate these ambiguities (Patton, 2002). Further pervasive issues associated with qualitative research and pertinent to this research is the generalisability of findings, the credibility of the conclusions, and the usefulness of these findings in the real world (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Pairing this research with quantitative survey techniques allows the testing for generalisability across a larger population and the subsequent quantitative research attempts to overcome this limitation.

Awards are limited to the Australian context and to national awards. There are cultural influences that affect the value of an award (Frame, 2006). Cultural influences may be at the organisational or national level and, for example, the value of collectivism or equity affect the perceived fairness in how rewards are allocated. This research has not included the value of an award from the perspective of multiple cultures. Therefore, the extent to which the findings can be generalised to other settings is unknown.

6.4   Future research

An award or prize is an old idea and remains impactful today. There are many reasons to consider the growing awards industry as a fertile field for future research. There is a need for further studies, both qualitative and quantitative, to build on the results presented in this thesis, to help understand the value an award. Given the investment some make to participate in awards, it may be useful to understand awards from the point of view of recruiters, hiring managers, talent managers and promotion committees. This section outlines possible future directions for research.

Future research could include comparisons between award winners, finalists and nominees to identify differences and similarities between these groups. The impact of participating in an award for finalists and nominees is another opportunity for research.

Furthermore, there is value in understanding the impact of not winning an award because there are more non-winners than there are winners.

There have been some possible explanations for the lack of career impact an award win has on an individual. Future studies could help provide useful insights into why individuals conceive there is value in participating in awards. The value of an award may be assessed over a longer period than used in this research. Longitudinal research is needed to determine the long-term impact of an award win beyond five or six years as studied in this research. Such a study might help to determine for which awards a time lag is relevant.

In a study of internal awards for voluntary work researchers found a significant increase in subsequent performance (Neckermann, et al., 2014). It is unclear whether the presence of an externally-granted award tournament has an impact on participants' performance or effort as is the case when tournament theory has been applied to internal performance awards (Kosfeld and Neckermann, 2011) or sales incentives in an organisation (Delfgaauw et al. 2103). Performance before and after an award win as assessed from performance review data might indicate the impacts of awards on individuals' performance at work. Such a study could include non-winners' performance to determine if an award win impacts the winners' peers which is a likely topic of interest to management.

 Future research might consider the impact on the award winner's employer when the individual wins an award. In studying teaching awards in higher education, the winner's employer (the institution) report positive publicity for the institution (Huggett, 2012). Extending this study to award winners in a business context could be valuable.

If an award is a signal that represents unobservable or hard to find qualities as signalling theory indicates (Connelly, et al., 2011), a future study might investigate how receivers of such signals, such as recruiters or hiring managers, perceive awards and award winners. Such a study may be in the form of an interview or résumé study where the impact of an award win on recruiters or hiring managers' selection decisions can be investigated. An award win may have a résumé builder effect and enhance the winners' résumé power (DelVecchio, Jarvis, Klink, & Dineen, 2007).

Other future research could consider an award as an extrinsic reward and has potential to impact winners' motivation. An award may alter winners' career or professional identity or perhaps their reputation capital. An award may enhance the award winner's human capital. These examples may be fruitful perspectives from which to investigate awards.

The study of awards is open to investigation from other disciplines. A sociological perspective of awards and the study of recognition in vocational activities has been examined (for example, Heinich, 2009) and further opportunities for research exist from this discipline. From a sociological viewpoint, social identity, introduced to the behavioural sciences by Turner (1975) deals with issues of social comparison and social identity and both play a role in a person's career (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000). People need recognition and respect. Baruch & Peiperl (2000) argue medical doctors and lawyers, for example, who have a recognised qualification and set of standards gain recognition and respect from association with their profession. Both social comparison and social identity conceivably play a part in the pursuit of awards and the impact of winning an award.

From a psychological perspective, the role of self-efficacy could be considered. Self-efficacy is the belief a person has regarding their own capacity to perform a task and was first articulated by Bandura (1977). Self-efficacy has been shown to be an antecedent of performance in organisational settings (for example, Earley, 1994). Pygmalion effect (Eden, 1984) as it applies to this research may suggest individuals who win awards perceive themselves to be better, or their managers expect them to better, which may lead to better performance.

6.5   Conclusion

Although awards in business are a growing phenomenon, published studies have not addressed externally-granted national work-related awards for individuals. This thesis therefore represents a pioneering endeavour in this area. The literature review at the start of the thesis is a contribution to knowledge in that awards in the context of externally-granted national work-related awards for individuals had not been studied. The emergent taxonomy in the first study provides an awards framework and is a further contribution to knowledge.

The second study in which the career impact of winning an award was investigated provides enhanced understanding of an award as a career event and that winning an award has little impact on most winner's career orientation. The second study also offered additional awareness about the impact of an award on the winner's objective and subjective measures of career success. Award winners seldom experience objective career success such as an increase in pay or promotion after winning an award. Award winners gain an increase in subjective career success measures such as their sense of confidence. However, some winners experience negative impacts such as increased pressure to perform.

The third study also furnishes insight into award winners' perceived employability and career success. Award winners perceive employability to consist of openness to change and optimism only rather than the wider constructs identified in the literature. Award winners do not include financial success in how they perceive career success. Using award winners' perceptions, enhanced employability increases their career success.

A rigorous research design and multiple research methods have been used across three substantial studies. This research has extended our knowledge about individuals who win externally-granted national work-related awards and the awards phenomenon more generally.

Appendix 1 Awarding organisations

Organisation type	Organisation name	Industry or Sector
Professional organisations	Australasian Association of Convenience Stores	Retail
	Australasian Compliance Institute	Professional services
	Australian Corporate Lawyers Association	Law
	Australian College of Rural and Remote Medicine	Medicine
	Association for Data-driven Marketing and Advertising	Marketing and Advertising
	Association of Financial Advisers	Finance
	Australian Geomechanics Society	Engineering
	Australian Human Resources Institute	Human resources
	Australian Institute of Architects	Architecture
	Australian Institute of Credit Management	Finance
	Australian Institute of Management	Management
	Australian Institute of Project Management	Project management
	Allied Health Professions Australia	Health
	Australasian Promotional Marketing Association	Marketing
	Australian Practice Nurses Association	Health
	Australian Retailers Association	Retail
	Association of Sales and Merchandising Companies Australasia	Retail and manufacturing
	Australian Computer Society	Information technology
	Australian Teleservices Association	Call centre
	Australian Water Association	Water
	Banksia Foundation	Sustainability
	Career Development Association of Australia	Careers
	Certified Practising Accountants Australia	Finance
	Customer Service Institute of Australia	Customer service
	Dietitians Association of Australia	Health
	Engineers Australia	Engineering
	International Customer Service Professionals	Customer service
	Intelligent Transport Systems Australia	Transport
	Law Council of Australia	Law
	LearnX	Workplace education and training
	Meetings and Events Australia	Events management
	Mortgage and Finance Association of Australia	Finance

	National Association of Women in Construction	Construction
	National Retail Association	Retail
	Planning Institute of Australia	Construction
	Project Management Institute	Project management
	Public Relations Institute of Australia	Public Relations
	Pharmaceutical Society of Australia	Pharmaceuticals
	Records and Information Management Professionals Australasia	Information management
	Savewater	Water
	Speech Pathology Australia	Health
	Digital Industry Association for Australia	Media and marketing
Government organisation	General Practice Education and Training	Medicine
	Comcare	Education: Safety and rehabilitation
	Safe Work Australia	Occupational Health and Safety
	Seacare	Marine safety and rehabilitation
Publication name	Australian Doctor (Cirrus Media)	Medicine
	Australasian Legal Business (Thomson Reuters)	Law
	Australian Reseller News (IDG Communications)	Information technology
	Australian Mining magazine (Cirrus Media)	Mining
	BOSS (Australian Financial Review)	Business
	The CEO Magazine (Bean Media)	Business
	Green Magazine	Sustainability
	Human Resources Director Magazine (Key Media)	Human resources
	Lawyers Weekly (Cirrus Media)	Law
	Logistics and Materials Handling (Cirrus Media)	Manufacturing
	Manufacturers Monthly (Cirrus Media)	Manufacturing
	Mortgage Professional Australia	Finance
	Process and Control Engineering Magazine (Cirrus Media)	Manufacturing
	Publish!	Publishing
Other	HESTA – Industry Superannuation Fund	Health
	Telstra (Public company)	Telecommunications

Appendix 2 Consent form for award experts

MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

Case Study Information and Consent Form
Name of Project: **Human capital's use of awards as signals of performance excellence**

You are invited to participate in this study because you have won an award, you work with someone who won an award or you are an organiser of awards. The purpose of the study is to better understand the effect of winning an external work-related award on an individual's employability and career success. The study is being conducted by Bronwen Harrison (bron.harrison@mq.edu.au) to meet the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the supervision of Dr. Denise Jepsen of the Faculty of Business and Economics ((02) 9850 4805, denise.jepsen@mq.edu.au).

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are not obliged to participate and there are no adverse consequences for deciding not to participate. You are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence. You will be asked to participate in a semi-structured interview, approximately one hour, about your experiences relating to external work-related awards. The interview will be recorded for the purpose of transcription. You may also be asked to participate in a future follow up study, which is also completely voluntary, to understand how attitudes towards awards change over time.

Any information or personal details gathered in this study are confidential. No individual will be identified in the publication of the results. Only the primary researchers and confidential transcribing service (if used) will have access to the raw data. A summary of the results can be made available to you upon request from Bronwen Harrison on the e-mail above.

I have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: Participant's Signature:
(block letters)   Date:

Investigator's Name: Bron Harrison   Investigator's Signature
(block letters)   Date:

Many awards and winners attract positive media attention and award winners enjoy their role as role models. If you are happy for us to disclose your identity in non-academic publications arising from this study, please authorise this separately.

Participant's Name: Participant's Signature:
(block letters)   Date:

Investigator's Name: Bron Harrison   Investigator's Signature
(block letters)   Date:

Note: The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone [02] 9850 7854, fax [02] 9850 8799, email: ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome

INVESTIGATOR'S / PARTICIPANT'S COPY

Appendix 3 Interview questions for organisers of awards

1. What is (are) the award's objective(s), that is, what values does the organisation that established the award want to recognise and promote?
2. Who are the potential recipients of the award?
3. How are potential recipients notified of the award?
4. How are potential recipients nominated?
5. What are the criteria for winning?
6. What evidence is required to prove that the criteria have been met?
7. Describe the selection process.
8. Who judges the applicants? How do you select judges? Do the judges change each year?
9. What financial and organisational support does the award receive?
10. What is the nature of the award itself?
11. How are winners of the award publicised?
12. How long has the award been in operation?
13. How frequently is the award given? How many awards are there each time?
14. How many applications does the award usually receive?
15. Tell me about the applicants who participate in your awards.
16. Is the award achieving its objective(s)? What information would make it possible to know whether the award is achieving its objective(s)?

Appendix 4 Interview guide for award winners

Start
Confirm participant has signed the written consent document

Introduction
I am a PhD student at Macquarie University. I am researching award winners and their careers. I am interested in your career before and after winning the award.

Career history
Tell me about your career prior to winning this award.
How long had you been working when you won this award?
How many employers have you had?
What had you done that led to this award?
Why did you decide to enter this award competition?

Award nomination
Tell me about what was involved in the nomination process.

Award competition participation
Tell me about what happened after your nomination.

Winner announcement
Tell me about when and how you learned you had won.
How did you feel about winning?

Career after winning
How did the award win impact your career?
Additional optional questions depending on previous answers:
   What about your next performance appraisal? Was the award discussed?
   What about promotions? Salary reviews?
How has winning the award impacted your feelings about your career?
Additional optional questions depending on previous answers:
      How has winning the award impacted your career satisfaction? Motivation?
Additional questions if the award winner had changed roles or employers since winning:
      How did winning the award impact your next career move?
      How did winning the award impact any subsequent career moves?
What, if any, were the negative outcomes of winning this award?
What do you think the award says about you?
What should I have asked you that I haven't?

End
Thank the participant.
Reconfirm confidentiality.
Ask them if they know other winners who may be interested in participating.

Appendix 5 Sample of coding of award winner interviews

Appendix 6 Ethics statement

Project Title: Award winners

Participant selection and purpose of study: You are invited to participate in this study because you have been successful in winning a work related award. We hope to learn more about you and your experiences winning the award.

Your consent: Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are not obliged to participate and there are no adverse consequences for deciding not to participate. You are not obliged to have a friend, colleague or other work associate complete the second survey either. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without giving a reason and without prejudice.

Description of study and risks: You will be asked to complete a number of questions about yourself and your work and career experiences in general. You will also be asked to complete questions about the specific award we have discussed with you. The survey should take between 20 and 25 minutes to complete.

Confidentiality and disclosure of information: Any information obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. We plan to submit the results for publication in academic conferences and journals and the results may also be used in future research. Publication of results will include non-identifiable aggregated (summarised) data or de-identified data in such a way that you cannot be identified. Any publications arising from this data will be available to participants by contacting Bron Harrison on bron.harrison@mq.edu.au.

The study is being conducted by Bronwen Harrison (0414 246 650) to meet the requirements for the degree of Doctorate of Philosophy under the supervision of Dr Denise Jepsen (+61 2 9850 4805). The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone [02] 9850 7854, fax [02] 9850 8799, email: ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Thank you for participating in this important research.

Completion of the survey will be regarded as consent to use the information for research purposes. In returning the completed survey, participants acknowledge that they have read and understood the above information statement.

Appendix 7 Invitation e-mail

Dear ,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in our research. We expect the survey will take you around 20 minutes – we hope you will also find it interesting to reflect on the award you won.

The survey is here: http://macquariefbe.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_3f6dDC8LqD4tRje

While there is no specific urgency, we would be grateful if you could complete the survey within the next week.

As mentioned, we are also asking if you have a friend, colleague or other work associate who could complete a shorter (5 min) survey about you. You'll notice the survey asks for a 'unique identifier' which is just a means of matching these two surveys together. We would be grateful if you could send this survey link to your friend or colleague to make the research more useful: http://macquariefbe.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_cMSdhXKKBTFKCfW Feel free to open this survey yourself to see what we are asking.

All details of all surveys are completely confidential.

The survey includes the option to receive a copy of publications arising from the research. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or would like to know more about the research.

Again, thank you for your participation in this important research.

Kind regards,
Bron

Bronwen Harrison
Faculty of Business and Economics
Macquarie University
0414 246 650
Bron.Harrison@mq.edu.au

Appendix 8 Survey items

Survey items about the award

1. In what year did you win the target award?

2. Had you won other major awards prior to this target award?
   ○ Yes ○ No

3. If yes, then how many other awards had you won prior to this target award?
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 4+

4. Have you won other major awards since winning this target award?
   ○ Yes ○ No

5. If yes, then how many other awards had you won since winning this target award?
   ○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 4+

6. How long had you been working in the role you were in when you won the target award?
   ○ Less than 1 year ○ 1 – 2 years ○ 2 – 3 years ○ 3+ years

7. Who nominated you for this award?
   ○ I nominated myself ○ My manager asked me or suggested I nominate myself ○ HR or someone else asked me to nominate myself ○ I don't know who nominated me ○ Other (please tell us who)

8. How many years after leaving school or university did you win the target award?

9. In the time since winning the award: Any salary increase I received was attributable to the award win

10. In the time since winning the award: Any promotion I received was attributable to the award win (a promotion is any increase in job responsibility, scope, authority, or level within or outside the organisation)

11. In the time since winning the award: The award win was discussed as an important part of my next performance review
12. If you have changed jobs or careers-The award played a significant role in my decision to change jobs
13. If you have changed jobs or careers- The award played a significant role in me securing the new job

Employability item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel changes at work generally have positive implications	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
2. I feel that I am generally accepting of changes at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
3. I would consider myself open to changes at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
4. I can handle job and organizational changes effectively	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
5. I am able to adapt to changing circumstances at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
6. I stay abreast of developments in my company	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
7. I stay abreast of developments in my industry	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
8. I stay abreast of developments relating to my type of job	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
9. I have participated in training or schooling that will help me reach my career goals	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
10. I have a specific plan for achieving my career goals	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
11. I have sought job assignments that will help me obtain my career goals	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
12. I am optimistic about my future career opportunities	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
13. I feel I am a valuable employee at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
14. I have control over my career opportunities	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
15. My past career experiences have been generally positive	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
16. I take a positive attitude towards my work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
17. In uncertain times at work, I usually expect the best	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
18. I always look on the bright side of things at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
19. I am a believer that 'every cloud has a silver lining' at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
20. I define myself by the work that I do	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
21. I am involved in my work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
22. It is important to me that others	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

think highly of my job

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23. It is important to me that I am successful in my job	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
24. The type of work I do is important to me	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
25. It is important to me that I am acknowledged for my successes in the job	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Career success items. I am …	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
2. Offered opportunities for further education by my employer	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
3. Having enough responsibility on my job	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
4. Fully backed by management in my work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
5. In a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
6. Most happy when I am at work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
7. Dedicated to my work	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
8. In a position to do mostly work which I really like	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
9. Respected by my peers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
10. Getting good performance evaluations	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
11. Accepted by my peers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
12. Having my superior's confidence	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
13. Receiving fair compensation compared to my peers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
14. Drawing a high income compared to my peers	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
15. Earning as much as I think my work is worth	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
16. Pleased with the promotions I have received so far	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
17. Reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
18. Going to reach all of my career goals	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
19. In a job which offers promotional opportunities	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
20. Happy with my private life	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

21. Enjoying my non-work activities	○	○	○	○	○
22. Satisfied with my life overall	○	○	○	○	○
23. Dedicated to my work	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic questions

Your gender	o Male	o Female			
Year of birth (e.g. 1978)	YYYY				
Which classification best describes your position in your organisation?	o Executive	o Upper-level management	o Middle-level management	o Lower-level management	o Non-manager
What is your current work status?	o Full time	o Part time	o Retired or not currently working		
In which industry or sector does your current employer operate?	_____				
What is your highest level of education?	o High school year 10 or below	o High school matric	o Vocational qual or diploma	o Undergraduate degree	o Post grad degree

238

Appendix 9 Missing data analysis

Table 29 Employability: Missing data

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing		No. of Extremes[a]	
				Count	Percent	Low	High
Employability: Openness to change							
E_Open1	186	3.61	.826	0	.0	2	0
E_Open2	186	4.04	.672	0	.0	0	0
E_Open3	186	4.18	.549	0	.0	1	0
E_Open4	186	4.18	.646	0	.0	4	0
E_Open5	186	4.23	.593	0	.0	3	0
Employability: Proactivity							
E_Pro6	186	4.17	.640	0	.0	2	0
E_Pro7	186	4.13	.711	0	.0	5	0
E_Pro8	185	4.12	.750	1	.5	8	0
Employability: Motivation							
E_Mot9	185	4.07	.787	1	.5	10	0
E_Mot10	185	3.41	.997	1	.5	3	0
E_Mot11	186	3.94	.732	0	.0	0	0
Employability: Resilience							
E_Res12	184	4.08	.693	2	1.1	5	0
E_Res13	185	4.29	.635	1	.5	4	0
E_Res14	186	4.01	.720	0	.0	0	0
E_Res15	186	4.01	.742	0	.0	0	0
E_Res16	186	4.25	.536	0	.0	1	0
Employability: Optimism							
E_Opt17	186	3.80	.793	0	.0	0	0
E_Opt18	185	3.68	.886	1	.5	0	0
E_Opt19	186	3.61	.889	0	.0	1	0
Employability: Identity							
E_ID20	185	3.48	1.032	1	.5	6	0
E_ID21	185	4.26	.571	1	.5	3	0
E_ID22	186	3.84	.833	0	.0	0	0
E_ID23	186	4.44	.529	0	.0	0	0
E_ID24	186	4.42	.506	0	.0	0	0

a. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

Table 30 Employability: Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1. O1																									
2. O2	.604**																								
3. O3	.468**	.751**																							
4. O4	.391**	.601**	.670**																						
5. O5	.392**	.598**	.680**	.878**																					
6. P6	.401**	.436**	.469**	.493**	.531**																				
7. P7	.224**	.332**	.321**	.329**	.377**	.493**																			
8. P8	.185**	.265**	.271**	.374**	.436**	.456**	.647**																		
9. M9	.145*	.167*	.118	.163*	.137*	.285**	.192**	.316**																	
10. M10	.268**	.237**	.327**	.236**	.232**	.358**	.206**	.250**	.249**																
11. M11	.253**	.250**	.222**	.166*	.216**	.312**	.250**	.306**	.392**	.514**															
12. R12	.289**	.268**	.307**	.325**	.380**	.341**	.219**	.354**	.356**	.344**	.389**														
13. R13	.281**	.309**	.292**	.414**	.479**	.382**	.287**	.355**	.235**	.208**	.238**	.442**													
14. R14	.340**	.262**	.272**	.312**	.331**	.244**	.267**	.369**	.299**	.316**	.306**	.591**	.443**												
15. R15	.101	.144*	.171*	.155*	.223**	.146*	.139*	.297**	.121	.103	.124*	.120	.212**	.084											
16. R16	.256**	.381**	.388**	.398**	.425**	.313**	.279**	.290**	.249**	.225**	.299**	.324**	.478**	.244**	.420**										
17. P17	.219**	.291**	.304**	.387**	.392**	.205**	.179**	.293**	.094	.187**	.123*	.299**	.331**	.246**	.287**	.382**									
18. P18	.318**	.371**	.433**	.463**	.481**	.402**	.236**	.271**	.129*	.276**	.258**	.282**	.408**	.257**	.216**	.502**	.589**								
19. P19	.315**	.402**	.413**	.404**	.437**	.315**	.198**	.233**	.159*	.282**	.258**	.274**	.315**	.233**	.189**	.442**	.548**	.815**							
20. I20	.099	.013	.067	.151*	.092	.250**	.193**	.152*	.101	.234**	.142*	.025	.101	.099	.129*	.133*	.218**	.212**	.164*						
21. I21	.170*	.215**	.206**	.328**	.351**	.321**	.209**	.264**	.262**	.145*	.118	.306**	.428**	.308**	.235**	.457**	.260**	.328**	.310**	.401**					
22. I22	-.063	-.113	-.104	.051	-.058	.038	.032	.067	.158*	.125*	.010	.018	.105	-.031	.130*	.073	.142*	.056	.048	.236**	.225**				
23. I23	.066	.124*	.148*	.206**	.203**	.281**	.242**	.241**	.220**	.203**	.171*	.268**	.215**	.193**	.138*	.272**	.104	.098	.035	.272**	.353**	.361**			
24. I24	.015	.068	.146*	.172**	.189**	.219**	.276**	.352**	.234**	.172**	.191**	.221**	.341**	.173**	.234**	.281**	.171*	.191**	.122	.225**	.366**	.281**	.644**		
25. I25	.043	.034	.035	.093	.047	.097	.168*	.110	.039	.096	.078	.084	.056	.032	.061	.041	.090	.077	.024	.271**	.105	.410**	.338**	.266**	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).   * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Table 31 Career success: Missing data

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing Count	Missing Percent	No. of Extremes[a] Low	No. of Extremes[a] High
Career success: Job success							
CS_Job1	186	3.94	.928	0	.0	19	0
CS_Job2	186	3.46	1.140	0	.0	11	0
CS_Job3	186	4.11	.827	0	.0	10	0
CS_Job4	185	3.94	.957	1	.5	14	0
CS_Job5	185	4.08	.833	1	.5	11	0
CS_Job6	186	3.05	.937	0	.0	0	0
CS_Job7	186	4.28	.703	0	.0	6	0
CS_Job8	186	4.06	.852	0	.0	14	0
Career success: Interpersonal success							
CS_InterP9	186	4.27	.572	0	.0	1	0
CS_InterP10	186	4.22	.695	0	.0	3	0
CS_InterP11	186	4.29	.590	0	.0	2	0
CS_InterP12	186	4.28	.711	0	.0	4	0
Career success: Financial success							
CS_Fin13	185	3.67	.935	1	.5	3	0
CS_Fin14	186	3.01	1.070	0	.0	0	0
CS_Fin15	186	3.09	1.097	0	.0	0	0
Career success: Hierarchical success							
CS_Hier16	185	3.65	.926	1	.5	4	0
CS_Hier17	186	3.66	.837	0	.0	1	0
CS_HIer18	186	3.76	.858	0	.0	2	0
CS_Hier19	185	3.56	.988	1	.5	4	0
Career success: Non-organisational success							
CS_Non20	186	4.18	.855	0	.0	13	0
CS_Non21	186	4.33	.725	0	.0	7	0
CS_Non22	186	4.19	.737	0	.0	8	0
CS_Non23	186	4.17	.705	0	.0	6	0

a. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

Table 32 Career success: Correlations

|	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1. J1																							
2. J2	.436**																						
3. J3	.324**	.290**																					
4. J4	.476**	.392**	.397**																				
5. J5	.447**	.436**	.435**	.453**																			
6. J6	.206**	.172*	.100	.195**	.141																		
7. J7	.191**	.165*	.291**	.208**	.282**	.333**																	
8. J8	.193**	.130	.342**	.366**	.252**	.281**	.317**																
9. I9	.315**	.150*	.306**	.391**	.159*	.253**	.336**	.410**															
10. I10	.548**	.417**	.260**	.407**	.352**	.272**	.284**	.388**	.514**														
11. I11	.433**	.290**	.157*	.350**	.200**	.221**	.323**	.335**	.739**	.613**													
12. I12	.517**	.432**	.207**	.497**	.304**	.206**	.244**	.256**	.412**	.621**	.583**												
13. F13	.099	.223**	.129	.152*	.134	.098	.114	.127	.095	.228**	.126	.093											
14. F14	-.016	.061	.089	.127	.135	.162*	.083	.167*	.072	.150*	.079	.028	.583**										
15. F15	.027	.193**	.152*	.171*	.149*	.153*	.078	.054	-.014	.114	.019	.032	.615**	.569**									
16. H16	.276**	.356**	.240**	.369**	.316**	.191**	.128	.295**	.223**	.344**	.259**	.385**	.387**	.304**	.425**								
17. H17	.208**	.202**	.267**	.267**	.288**	.193**	.195**	.372**	.321**	.336**	.279**	.270**	.275**	.211**	.350**	.607**							
18. H18	.356**	.135	.222**	.368**	.269**	.175*	.190**	.305**	.336**	.418**	.348**	.366**	.225**	.175*	.177*	.460**	.602**						
19. H19	.273**	.340**	.145*	.326**	.326**	.176*	.039	.107	.134	.248**	.137	.182*	.171*	.192**	.136	.389**	.244**	.268**					
20. N20	.110	-.024	.080	.174*	.113	-.016	.100	.197**	.324**	.241**	.239**	.234**	-.030	-.025	-.069	.061	.107	.134	.224**				
21. N21	.161*	.035	.184*	.251**	.159*	.031	.069	.223**	.384**	.280**	.302**	.330**	.030	.054	-.064	.199**	.184*	.281**	.218**	.795**			
22. N22	.249**	.112	.129	.259**	.212**	.095	.129	.250**	.398**	.389**	.388**	.379**	.044	.020	-.008	.184*	.223**	.301**	.297**	.777**	.745**		
23. N23	.112	.120	.148*	.133	.244**	.230**	.646**	.139	.211**	.215**	.209**	.134	.117	.043	.045	.105	.204**	.169*	.244**	.123	.079	.138	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 10 Descriptive statistics

Item	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Var	Skew	Kurt
Employability: Openness to change									
E_O1	184	4	1	5	3.61	.828	.686	-.776	.412
E_O2	184	4	1	5	4.04	.674	.455	-1.019	3.060
E_O3	184	3	2	5	4.18	.550	.303	-.128	.947
E_O4	184	4	1	5	4.18	.642	.412	-1.059	3.969
E_O5	184	3	2	5	4.24	.588	.345	-.591	2.065
Employability: Proactivity									
E_P6	184	3	2	5	4.17	.642	.412	-.415	.440
E_P7	184	4	1	5	4.14	.713	.509	-.930	2.153
E_P8	184	4	1	5	4.13	.733	.537	-1.044	2.293
Employability: Motivation									
E_M9	184	3	2	5	4.08	.790	.625	-.803	.604
E_M10	184	4	1	5	3.39	1.011	1.023	-.155	-.673
E_M11	184	4	1	5	3.94	.734	.539	-.814	1.551
Employability: Resilience									
E_R12	184	3	2	5	4.09	.674	.454	-.551	.769
E_R13	184	3	2	5	4.30	.641	.410	-.831	1.886
E_R14	184	4	1	5	4.02	.707	.500	-.871	2.094
E_R15	184	4	1	5	4.02	.729	.532	-1.137	2.595
E_R16	184	2	3	5	4.26	.511	.261	.305	-.409
Employability: Optimism									
E_OPT17	184	3	2	5	3.81	.784	.614	-.601	.242
E_OPT18	184	3	2	5	3.69	.878	.771	-.415	-.455
E_OPT19	184	4	1	5	3.62	.884	.781	-.311	-.363
Employability: Identity									
E_ID20	184	4	1	5	3.49	1.016	1.033	-.469	-.487
E_ID21	184	3	2	5	4.28	.546	.298	-.357	1.896
E_ID22	184	3	2	5	3.84	.836	.698	-.489	-.176
E_ID23	184	2	3	5	4.44	.529	.280	-.082	-1.274
E_ID24	184	2	3	5	4.42	.506	.256	.193	-1.658
E_ID25	184	4	1	5	3.98	.741	.549	-.948	1.880
Career success: Job success									
CS_J1	184	4	1	5	3.95	.919	.845	-.911	.580
CS_J2	184	4	1	5	3.47	1.138	1.294	-.508	-.574
CS_J3	184	4	1	5	4.13	.797	.635	-1.019	1.471
CS_J4	184	4	1	5	3.96	.932	.868	-1.051	1.324
CS_J5	184	4	1	5	4.10	.802	.643	-1.015	1.445
CS_J6	184	4	1	5	3.06	.928	.861	.170	-.367
CS_J7	184	3	2	5	4.30	.662	.438	-.981	2.047
CS_J8	184	4	1	5	4.08	.824	.679	-1.084	1.470
Career success: Interpersonal success									
CS_I9	184	2	3	5	4.28	.549	.301	.040	-.493
CS_I10	184	4	1	5	4.23	.678	.459	-.842	2.138
CS_I11	184	3	2	5	4.30	.566	.321	-.265	.472
CS_I12	184	4	1	5	4.30	.670	.449	-1.087	3.089
Career success: Financial success									
CS_F13	184	4	1	5	3.68	.928	.862	-.689	.130
CS_F14	184	4	1	5	3.02	1.071	1.146	.182	-.623
CS_F15	184	4	1	5	3.10	1.089	1.186	-.068	-.903
Career success: Hierarchical success									
CS_H16	184	4	1	5	3.67	.909	.826	-.628	.185
CS_H17	184	3	2	5	3.68	.816	.666	-.369	-.273
CS_H18	184	4	1	5	3.76	.860	.739	-.337	.032
CS_H19	184	5	1	5	3.56	1.007	1.015	-.636	.239

Item	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Var	Skew	Kurt
Career success: Non-organisational success									
CS_N20	184	4	1	5	4.17	.855	.731	-1.185	1.418
CS_N21	184	3	2	5	4.33	.726	.527	-1.200	1.926
CS_N22	184	3	2	5	4.18	.736	.542	-.966	1.405
CS_N23	184	4	1	5	4.18	.688	.473	-1.057	2.985
M3_OPENNESS	184		2.33	5	4.21	.522	.275	-.079	.902
M2_PROACTIVITY	184		2.00	5	4.15	.623	.389	-.704	1.542
M2_RESILIENCE	184		2.00	5	4.06	.615	.379	-.653	1.516
M2_OPTIMISM	184		1.50	5	3.66	.833	.695	-.419	-.246
M2_IDENTITY	184		3.50	5	4.43	.469	.220	.177	-1.623
M3_JOB	184		1.60	5	3.92	.667	.444	-.549	.975
M2_INTER	184		2.50	5	4.29	.521	.271	-.073	-.132
M3_FINANCIAL	184		1.00	5	3.26	.873	.761	-.209	-.208
M3_HIERARC	184		1.67	5	3.70	.720	.518	-.362	.167
M3_NONORG	184		1.67	5	4.23	.708	.501	-1.091	1.585

Appendix 11 Histograms
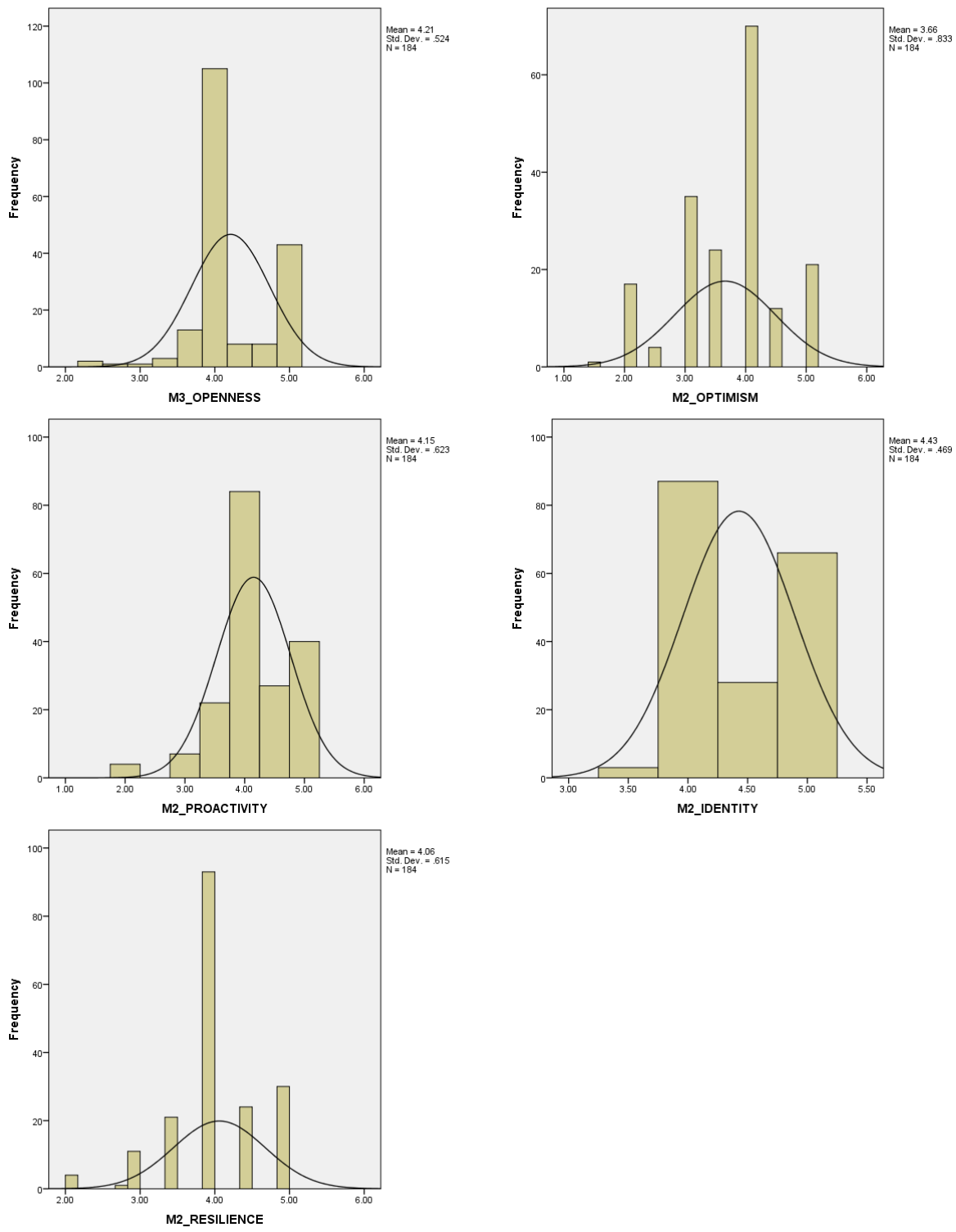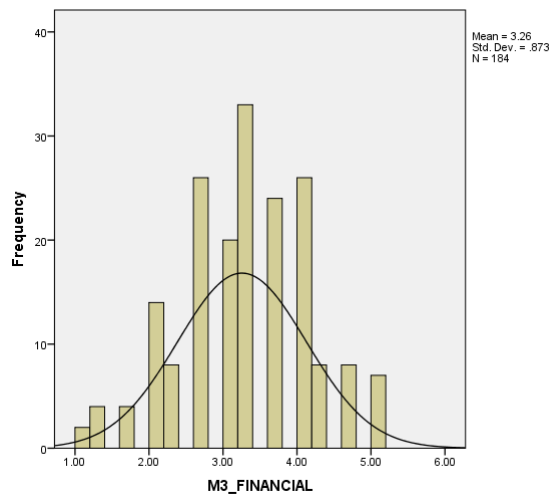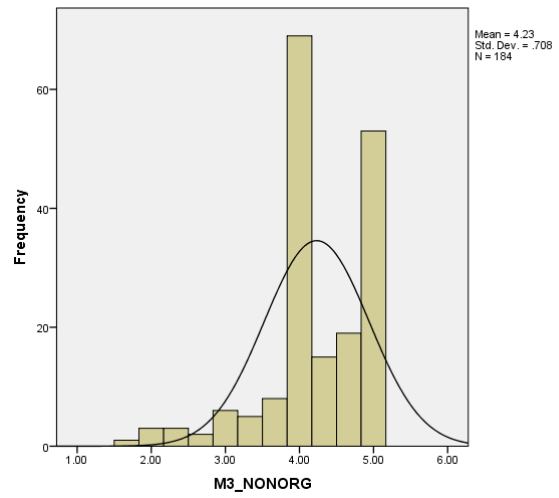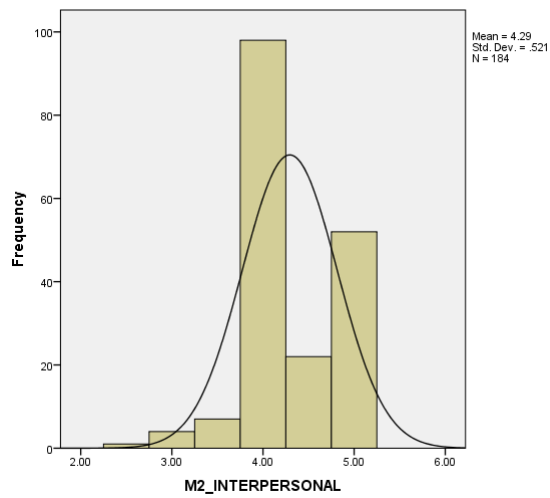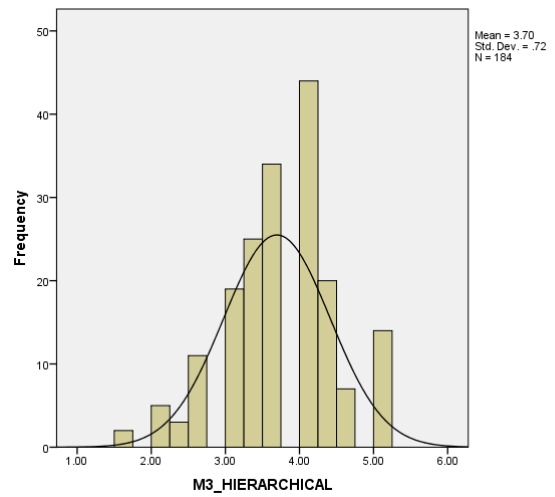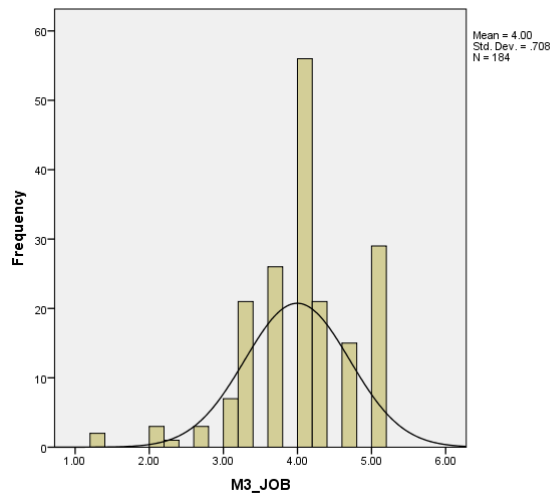
Appendix 12 Ethics approval

MACQUARIE
UNIVERSITY

Faculty of Business & Economics
Human Research Ethics Sub Committee
Building E4A, Room 707
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY   NSW   2109

Phone   **+61 (0)2 9850 4826**
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30 January 2012

Dr. Denise Jepsen
Faculty of Business and Economics
Macquarie University, NSW 2109

Reference: 5201100945(D)

Dear Dr. Denise Jepsen

FINAL APPROVAL

Title of project: **Human capital's use of awards as signals of performance excellence.**

Thank you for your recent correspondence. Your response has addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Business & Economics Human Research Ethics Sub Committee, and you may now commence your research. The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Denise Jepsen - Chief Investigator/Supervisor
Bronwen Harrison - Co-Investigator

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is **conditional** upon your continuing compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)*.

2. Approval will be for a period of five (5 years) subject to the provision of annual reports. **Your first progress report is due on 30 January 2013.**

    If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report on the project.

    Progress Reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:
    http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics/forms

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. Please notify the Committee of any amendment to the project.

5. Please notify the Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at: http://www.research.mq.edu.au/policy

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Faculty of Business & Economics Human Research Ethics Sub Committee
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics

www.mq.edu.au

ABN 90 952 801 237 | CRICOS Provider No 000023

247

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide Macquarie University's Research Grants Officer with a copy of this letter as soon as possible. The Research Grants Officer will not inform external funding agencies that you have final approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Officer has received a copy of this final approval letter.

Yours sincerely

Alan Kilgore
Chair, Faculty of Business and Economics Ethics Sub-Committee

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