

**NEAR TO THE GREEN: CAREER DECISIONS IN PROFESSIONAL GOLF**

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## ABSTRACT

Professional golfers are frequently in the media spotlight as they compete in high profile tournaments around the world. Behind this 'shop window' there is a vast industry in which several thousand 'golf professionals', members of the Professional Golfers' Association [PGA] are engaged, delivering a wide range of services which support those who play the game of golf at every level. Golf education itself has been through many changes as the industry has been professionalised. Formal preparation of new golf professionals commenced in 1961 with the introduction of 'voluntary' training, after which professional education became mandatory. The next four periods: 'compulsory' 1970-1979, 'consolidation' 1980-1986, 'development' 1987-1995 and 'academy' 1996-2007, each built upon the previous as the curriculum, content and delivery method evolved into its current format. This thesis is concerned with the career decisions of a purposive sample of PGA golf professionals, with two research participants from each of five different periods between 1961 and 2007. Whilst research around careers in professional sport is limited, this study draws upon career development theories (Super, 1957; 1981 and 1990), vocational development theory (Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996; Brown, 2002; Whitson and Keller, 2004a) and the chaos theory of career (Davey et al., 2005). An exploratory inductive approach to the narrative data gathered from the retrospective views of the samples participant's career histories was adopted. Analysis of the data revealed four main findings, the importance of the community into which the aspiring professional is immersed, the significance of the first job and the employing professional on future career progression, the need for structured career planning and the potential effects of chance / luck. The thesis concludes that the PGA training programme must better prepare golf professionals for multiple career adjustments and encourage a flexible approach to career development.

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER**

To give context to this study, the first chapter will reveal the background information that justifies the need for research into this area. Career decisions by members of The Professional Golfers' Association [PGA] form the basis of this qualitative study. This chapter will inform the reader of the golf profession, reveal the researcher's interest in the subject, provide an overview of the thesis and identify five periods of training, into which research participants were distributed.

### **1.2 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY**

Golf, along with boxing, are sports where a distinction between 'amateur' and 'professional' still exists at the elite competitive level. "An 'amateur golfer' plays the game as a non-remunerative and non-profit making sport" (The R&A, 2010). Some golfers either intentionally or unintentionally breach the 'Rules of Amateur Status' and so by default become a professional, while others prepare to reach the standard that will allow them to join one of the professional tours or enter the PGA. They may be thought of as 'aspiring professionals'. The term 'professional golfer' was not commonly used until the mid-nineteenth century (Holt et al., 2002).

To aid understanding a distinction should be made between those who earn their living by using their skills as a player, i.e. the 'professional golfer' and those who derive a living by using their skills to serve the game and its players, the 'golf professional.'

The term ‘professional’ when used in conjunction with a sports player prefixes the name, hence professional golfer, professional footballer and so on. There are but a few ‘professional golfers’ who make a living exclusively from playing the game, as can be seen from golf’s 2009 European Tour season, when a total of 370 professional golfers played enough events to be considered in the annual rankings (European Tour, 2009).

Conversely, a ‘golf professional’ is engaged in activities that support those who play the game and with more than 7,000 ‘golf professional’ members, the PGA of Great Britain & Ireland is by far the biggest supplier of this workforce (PGA, 2011a).

### 1.3 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH QUESTION

This study looks at the main career decisions of a sample of PGA members who engaged in the association’s training from 1961 through to 2007, their influences and motivations.

The researcher’s interest in this subject is grounded in a professional interest to understand the critical moments in a career trajectory. A search of the literature revealed a dearth of research which focuses specifically on the career decisions of PGA golf professionals. A wider search looking into career pathways in other sports revealed studies which focused on the transition from athletic performer to another career (e.g. Lavalley et al., 1998; Taylor and Lavalley, 2010) and strategies for career termination, sudden or unpredicted transitions (Wylleman et al., 2004). The career transition of athletes remaining within the sport also received limited attention although a study of 56 recently retired coaches found “relatively low levels of career awareness” and only superficial attention to future career planning (Lavalley, 2006, p. 73).

This study attempted to discover the key drivers for adjustments made along the golf professional's career trajectory. The use of life history and multiple case study methods were central to this study, as data was collected retrospectively from individuals graduating from different training periods.

#### 1.4 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

The initial chapter gives context to the study, reveals background information, outlines the study and introduces the methodology used. Chapter two provides a review of the literature relating to career development in conjunction with relevant theoretical frameworks. Chapter three justifies the research methods employed and clearly identifies the various phases of the research along with the steps taken to collect and analyse data. The analysis and discussion of results presented in chapter four includes the findings, and in chapter five conclusions are drawn along with recommendations for further research.

#### 1.5 TRAINING PROVISION

From having no formal training provision in 1960, the PGA began a process of developing voluntary training courses and has evolved into an organisation employing 24 staff with more than 40 service providers delivering approved courses.

As the needs of the golf market have changed, so has the training syllabus. New subjects and methods of delivery have been introduced to strengthen the original curriculum of, "deportment, teaching, book-keeping, salesmanship, club repairs and shop duties" (Holt et al., 2002, p. 194). The training programmes delivered across the following five periods

covered by this thesis are therefore very different, although many of the core values remain the same.

- I. 'Voluntary' period- 1961-1969: the first meeting of the PGA advisory committee took place in 1961, after which training for assistants was approved.
- II. 'Compulsory' period - 1970-1979: the PGA delivered training on a national basis, with three core subjects: golf instruction, merchandising and club repairs. Initially, registration was limited to golfers with a maximum of six handicap but by the end of this period the introduction of formal playing ability tests and a requirement of O-level certificates in English and Maths, had made entry to the profession more stringent.
- III. 'Consolidation' period - 1980-1986: this period included new training venues and incremental improvement of content and delivery.
- IV. 'Development' period - 1987-1995: new rules covering assistants' expectations and conduct of employing professionals came into force ensuring only "genuinely suitable candidates were accepted" (Holt et al., 2002, p.199). During this period there was a complete revision of the training manual.
- V. 'Academy' period - 1996-2007: new facilities, introduction of specialised training management at PGA headquarters and the completion of a full review of training prompted the start of this period throughout which continual enhancements can be noted.

## 1.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the background information surrounding the study and provided a context from which the reader may enter the domain that is the golf profession. It

has introduced the methodology employed and given an overview of how the thesis is structured, including an outline of five training periods into which the research participants were distributed. The next chapter will provide a review of literature relevant to this study.



## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER**

This chapter provides a context for the career of a golf professional and it is necessary to provide a setting from which the reader may ‘enter’ the domain and gain a grasp of the career options available. It includes a review of the literature related to career development, presents a synopsis of the current position in the field, contextualises the research question and reveals the overall size of the industry, its economic impact and the number of participants. Relevant literature concerning career development pathways in other sports and professions in conjunction with the appropriate theoretical frameworks of career have helped to inform the study.

### **2.2 THE GOLF INDUSTRY**

#### **2.2.1 Origins of the Game**

Although ‘golf like’ games have been played since the thirteenth century, it was the construction of new courses and the formation of clubs that led to an explosion in popularity around the turn of the twentieth century. The popularity of golf at that time can be judged by the exponential growth of clubs. In the 1870s only 72 golf clubs were in existence (Lowerson, 1989) but by 1914 the landscape had changed and there were approximately 3,000 golf clubs in existence (Vamplew, 2008).

### 2.2.2 Economic Impact

Golf's economic impact in Europe is significant and wide-ranging and in revenue terms during 2006, it reached EUR 48.3 billion (KPMG, 2009). This figure ensures that many global businesses are attracted to the game and with them come fresh views on the core competencies for the prospective workforce. One supplier of that workforce is the PGA which educates and train golf professionals to fulfil industry needs.

### 2.3 THE PGA

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, the best professional golfers of the era became advocates for a movement to create an association for all professionals resulting in the formation of 'The PGA', which in 1901 became the first "permanent labour organisation for sports professionals" (Holt et al., 2002, p. 5). Throughout the next 60 or so years, the route into professional golf was by means of informal apprenticeships, and it was not until a 1961 meeting of the PGA advisory committee that formal professional education began with the creation of a voluntary education system, ultimately leading to compulsory training in 1970 (Young et al., 1999).

From the early years a blended learning programme was adopted. Elements of tutor contact, distance learning; learning 'in situ', integration into a community of practice and informal learning have formed the basis of training which is grounded in many of the values found in apprenticeship. It is this mix that has enabled golf professionals to develop skills and knowledge through cross-training and so broaden their career opportunities.

The education and training of PGA golf professionals is a dynamic process which has retained many of the original core skills taught in those first training programmes. Gradual

enhancements to the programme resulted in a new curriculum offering an introduction to a greater breadth of skills and knowledge which better reflect employers' needs. The programme is supported by a dedicated tutor workforce and guided by education professionals who have linked to nationally accredited qualifications (PGAE, 2008).

Today, the qualified PGA golf professional is a multi-skilled practitioner, commonly engaged in introducing the game, coaching, managing golf facilities, dealing in golf equipment and providing a host of related services to enable amateur golfers to better enjoy the game (PGA, 2010).

## 2.4 APPRENTICESHIP

There is a lack of clarity around the exact meaning of apprenticeship in the context of the aspiring golf professional. Immersion into the PGA training programme has had some form of learning on the job as a core element and “from its foundation the PGA has been part of an established craft tradition through which an apprentice learned from his master” (Holt et al., 2002, p. 193).

To understand where the aspiring golf professional resides in the scheme of apprenticeship, the relative merits and limits of ‘restrictive apprenticeship’, and ‘expansive apprenticeship’ are considered in the following sections, as are the potential theoretical frameworks into which the PGA’s education and training programme best fit.

### 2.4.1 Restrictive and Expansive Apprenticeship

Restrictive and expansive apprenticeships are fundamentally polar opposites in the approach taken to developing people. Restrictive apprenticeships focus on training

apprentices to be fully productive with specific tasks within a short period of time with little regard to further learning, so reducing the possibility for study towards any knowledge-based vocational qualification (Fuller and Unwin, 2004, 2005 and 2008). Conversely, an expansive apprenticeship has the primary objective of developing capable individuals, working towards knowledge-based vocational qualifications and a transition into full participation. It is this expansive model of apprenticeship that has the closest fit to the PGA programme, with many of its enduring characteristics central to the education system employed. The PGA programme includes structured training both on and off the job, based on various modules, mixing theories and practice (PGA, 2011b). The apprentice simultaneously occupies the dual roles of an employee and a learner.

#### 2.4.2 Labour Market Training or Vocational Education

Apprenticeship in the wider employment world is sometimes viewed as labour market training or as an element of vocational education (Ryan, 1998). In the strictest sense, ‘labour market training’ is focused on improving the prospects of finding work for unemployed adults or those entering the job market for the first time (Employment and Economic Development Office, 2009). Labour market training is therefore not relevant to the PGA apprentice who, as a condition of entry to the PGA, must already be in employment with a qualified PGA professional. It is the element of vocational education that best fits the PGA system as apprenticeship has several abiding features amongst which is the “acquisition of skills through work experience. This could be considered to be important when skills are embedded in the workplace, although a word of caution comes from one author who states that it is, “highly dependent on the individual master” (Clarke, 1999, p. 25).

### 2.4.3 Gaining an Apprenticeship in the Golf Profession

The importance of gaining employment with a professional of good standing cannot be overestimated as will be shown in the section on analysis and discussion of results. In many apprenticeship schemes, access could be difficult to those who were not connected through family or friends to a master (Aldrich, 1999). Holt et al (2002) advise that other pathways into the profession included having been a caddy or very good player, and there is some anecdotal evidence that suggests some ‘masters’ were even paid to take on apprentices by doting parents. Inevitably, some apprentices were hired as a form of cheap labour with not all receiving the training that they originally signed up for, especially in loose systems which opened the potential for exploitation by their masters (Clarke, 1999; Wallis, 2008; Hardy and Ruddel, 2010). As in most professions, some elements of the job are more profitable and enjoyable than others. The early professionals were required to divide their time across various tasks and, for example, it was not possible to play with members, [a potentially profitable and enjoyable experience] and be in the shop at the same time, so often they would “pay for an assistant to cover....the shop” (Vamplew, 2008, p. 63). “If a boy could find a professional to take him on, he became an assistant, cleaning clubs and shoes, selling balls, and tees and helping in the workshop.....Depending on his boss he might get time off to play and could be included in any lessons the professional might give” (Holt et al.,2002, p. 193).

The situation into which the apprentice steps is a significant career factor, with research into the importance of ‘person-organisation fit’ revealing that individuals compatible with their working environment are more likely to succeed (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; Ryan and Schmitt, 1996). These findings have relevance to this study due to the common service element found in both the Ryan and Schmitt study and the service nature associated

with many of the tasks undertaken by a golf professional. Moos (1987) suggests that in organisations where the majority of individuals have similar viewpoints and attitudes there is the possibility for newly integrated members of the community to be influenced. The importance of “persons on other persons as an environmental influence” is also recognised by (Gagné, 2004, p. 128) as is the fit of peoples’ interests (Holland, 1985). Gagné (2004) explains that macroscopic factors such as geography and sociology, along with the microscopic factors of family size and socio-economic status have a significant effect. These factors, when considered along with the interaction of parents, siblings, friends, educators and mentors, will surely affect the individual’s development, (Gagné, 2004).

## 2.5 IMMERSION INTO THE PROFESSION

For many aspiring professional golfers the playing dream fades and reality hits and so, employment as a golf professional then becomes an option (Cousins, 1977). From the inception of the PGA, aspiring professionals were immersed in on-the-job learning, where the chief source of learning was from their employing professional (master) and or co-workers. Holt (2002) explains that the apprentice would likely sell basic golfing needs and repair golf clubs, to which- and amongst other duties, - playing the game to a good standard, coaching and dealing with people should be added. Even though there has been a huge increase to the number of occupational roles available since the introduction of training, the same five activities still form the core of an apprentice’s education (PGAE, 2009).

After securing an apprentice position integration into a new culture and community of practice, with all the inherent issues that it brings.

### 2.5.1 Situated Learning in Communities of Practice

The importance of context and environment in the learning process is well covered in the literature by advocates of situated learning theory (Lave, 1988; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Smith and Moore, 1992; Greeno et al., 1993). A ‘community of practice’ [CoP] may be thought of as a group of people with shared interests or common background, and in the case of occupation, as a group which share the workplace and a significant focus in their lives (Sosniak, 2007).

Apprentices not only learn job specifics whilst at work, but also the culture, working practice, rules and how to make sense of the situation in which they are immersed. Self negotiation will likely follow integration, and a new understanding of their place within the community will evolve. The influence of a CoP is not restricted to the specificity of where it is found. For example a CoP at work is not constrained to matters relating to the occupation, and may influence the development of the member’s identity, including social or cultural practices alongside work-specific learning of job tasks. Even though CoPs are a fundamental part of our existence, they are often so common that they are overlooked (Wenger, 1998).

Lave and Wenger (1991) confirm that apprentices must first establish their identity in the community, even though initially only with limited peripheral participation, but with the promise and expectation of becoming a full participant in its practice. Members of the community develop shared understanding and become united as individual actors converge on multiple levels (Wenger et al., 2002). In this respect, learning becomes collaborative with masters, apprentices and co-workers contributing to, and drawing from each other in social interaction.

Eder and Eisenberger (2008) report that there is a link between co-worker influence and withdrawal behaviour, concluding that employees low in 'perceived organisational support' are inclined to withdraw and exhibit less than positive traits. Conversely, and just as importantly, they found that positive relationships helped to reduce "employee's potential susceptibility to negative work group influence" (Eder and Eisenberger, 2008, p. 66). So when 'mentors' take newcomers under their wing, share practice and embed them into the community and its culture, this can be good, bad or neutral depending on the attitudes exhibited and influence held by the 'co-worker' or 'master'.

Through exposure to masters, co-workers and the PGA programme, apprentices evolve into golf professionals. Once qualified through the PGA programme, many will leave the community in which they received their training, but not without first having reshaped the community and its practice. Lave and Wenger (1991, p.15-16) explain that the master, co-workers and even the practice itself will likely change as a result of the apprentice, although "the apprentice may be the one transformed most dramatically."

Two of the central claims of situated learning in 'communities of practice' [CoP] are based on the often disputed principles of: action is context bound, grounded in the situation, and knowledge does not transfer (Anderson et al, 1996; Amba 2007).

### 2.5.2 Knowledge and Skills Transfer

The ability to transfer knowledge and skills from one setting to another is still very much under debate. Anderson et al., (1996) argue that some skills can transfer from one setting to another, and that knowledge learned in the classroom may transfer to real world situations especially when context independent. Marini and Genereux (1995) deliver a review



of the challenges faced when teaching to aid transfer by looking at both ends of the spectrum from generally transferable items such as prior learning, knowledge and processing capacities to the more domain-specific. They recognise the difficulties of achieving transfer stating “when students cannot perform tasks only slightly different from those learned in class, or when they fail to appropriately apply their classroom learning in setting outside of school, then education is deemed to have failed” (Marini and Genereux, 1995, p. 1). It seems that theoretical concepts, when tightly bound to the classroom, may have a degree of transfer only if the student is attuned to the limitations and possibilities existing in a new situation (Greeno, 1997). Lave (1988) goes further and questions the notion of validity of results found in the laboratory when applied in the field, arguing that investigation into the effectiveness of everyday practice should be carried out in situ. Effectively, learning acquired from one situation is useful in another when the learner is presented with a ‘problem’ that fits the model, is sufficiently close to the model, or when the learner is able to transfer knowledge adequately and apply it in a different situation or context. In any case, the importance of activities in learning “domain-specific knowledge” (Eick, 2003, p. 80) should not be overlooked.

The importance of a supportive work environment and the opportunity to apply the skills learned to a ‘real world’ setting is highlighted in a study of ten students at the Korean SK group training academy (Lim and Johnson, 2002). They state that, “without a strong match between the training content and the trainee’s work roles, it is unlikely that transfer will occur” (Lim and Johnson, 2002, p. 46). Constructivist theories of learning in physical education point out that learners search for information about a particular task situated in a specific environment within its own set of boundaries and test their ability to apply their

knowledge and skills (Kirk and MacDonald, 1998). It could be said that an originally formed idea evolves through use, reflection and adaptation and, as such, has to be applied in multiple situations to become robust. The PGA programme mixes classroom and on-the-job training making good use of many the constituents found in both situated learning theory and social learning theory.

### 2.5.3 Modelling and Observation

Social learning theory provides the flexibility to look at the potential of ‘modelling’ or ‘imitation’ as a learning tool. Coaching and teaching in both initial education and ‘continuing professional development’ [CPD] continues to be a cornerstone of the PGA’s training provision. The 2007/2008 PGA brochure for CPD revealed 36 different coaching courses, 15 management courses and 10 others (PGA, 2007). With such an emphasis on coaching, then a look at some of the wider issues surrounding coach and teacher education has been worthwhile.

Learning at the ‘coalface’ offers apprentices the opportunity to model masters. It is common for apprentices to learn from others by watching and listening to acquire their professional knowledge (Cassidy and Rossi, 2006). Modelling the practice of others may, in a sense, be an extreme form of observation and the intense study of working practices. Women’s football coach, Hope Powell’s discourse on her early influences highlights that her experience of coaching as a player, along with the opportunities that she had to observe and work with other coaches, proved to be “invaluable and influential in shaping her views on coaching” (Cushion, 2004, p. 33). So it appears that people who are admired, role models, masters and co-workers can all prove to be pivotal in influencing aspiring golf professionals

in the formative years of their careers. The influence of this group of people together with peers and family cannot be overlooked and will be studied in more detail during this literature review.

A foundation of apprenticeship is the development of working practices by close observation of experts at work. The master effectively becomes a facilitator for the future career development of the apprentice. This is not unlike the effect that a school teacher may have on their students, “sometimes the teacher’s influence is so strong as to determine their choice of career” (Popper and Lipshitz, 1992, p. 16). Authors on the teaching profession recognise Lortie’s term, ‘Apprenticeship of Observation’ and value the experience as a learner when sat on the other side of the desk, as a grounding for their knowledge of teaching practice (Lortie, 1975; John, 1996; Bailey, 1996; Frank, 1999 and Borg, 2004). Lortie (1975) explains that a new teacher will likely have recourse to the 10-12 years which they had as a learner, from which they will inevitably have picked up elements of teaching practice. A recent survey of 286 first year trainees revealed that on average they had 12.64 years playing the game as an amateur before changing code (Colclough and Toms, 2010). The aspiring golf professional will similarly have had access to coaching and will have invested a great deal of time to reach the required playing standard. This period is extremely useful and although perhaps they do not have as much ‘coach’ [teacher] contact time as would a school learner, similar parallels may be drawn.

## 2.6 THE CHANGING LANDSCAPE OF CAREER

Career counsellors recognise that the landscape of a career today is very different from the one which existed only a few years ago. Burgess and Rees (1996, p. 334) report that, “the

concepts of full employment and ‘a steady job’ had disappeared under pressure from competition....there is a widespread feeling that, ‘jobs for life’ have gone for good”. The notion of a career consisting of a progressive series of positions is no longer the reality (Bird, 1994). With a more dynamic landscape it is considered normal to have multiple careers in different sectors (Chope, 2001). Preparation for change would therefore seem to be wise especially when supported by education / training programmes based in the formation of core and essential skills.

Government policy on the link between education, training and employment has changed frequently over the period covered by this study. The UK unemployment rate between 1974 and 1999 has been subject to lengthy fluctuations, starting with just 2-3% in the early 1970s and through a number of increases and reductions in the 80s and 90s (Henry et al., 2000, and Pissarides, 1999). Following a reduction in availability of formal apprenticeships, a programme aimed at limiting unemployment amongst school leavers was introduced and started with the Youth Opportunities Programme in 1978 (Bell and Jones, 2002). In 1983 the Thatcher government implemented the Youth Training Scheme which was embraced by the PGA partly because of the funding which it could gain from the ‘Manpower Services Commission’ and to facilitate the association’s wish to update the entry criteria for apprentices and tougher regulations for employing professionals (Holt et al., 2002).

## 2.7 CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORY AND PRACTICE

This section summarises the changing landscape in which career resides along with relevant theories of career and vocational development. The appropriate elements of chance, luck, change, complexity and constructiveness will be considered. The success, or otherwise,

of an apprenticeship is affected by multiple factors: the amount of time and knowledge which the master wishes to invest in educating their apprentice, the alignment or collision of specific interests of both parties, opportunities presented during the passage of time and the determination of the apprentice to engage in and carry through with learning activities to advance their career.

Once apprentices complete their training and re-enter the job-seeking market they have the potential to deviate from their previous career trajectories as they survey the array of opportunities open for exploration. For some the trajectory will remain constant, some will have planned at least the next step and for others an association through family, friend, colleague or even fortuitously being in the right place at the right time, may open a doorway to opportunity through which they step.

### 2.7.1 Career Theories

Theories of career and vocational development consider the importance of acknowledging the changing contexts, relationships and environments that surround an individual (Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996; Brown, 2002; Whitson and Keller, 2004a). A brief account of ‘Career Development Theory’, ‘Career Construction Theory’ and ‘Chaos Theory’ follow as they are the theories most relevant to this study.

### 2.7.2 Career Development Theory

Work by Donald Super on Career Development Theory (1957); Development Self Concept Theory (1981) and Life-Span, Life-Space Theory (1990) have helped to evolve the understanding of career development. Super’s (1990) ‘Life-Span, Life-Space Theory’

recognises the way in which work is situated within the individual's life and how the overall structure of life can fulfil personal needs to satisfy one's self-concept. Therefore an understanding of where and how the development of self-concept begins is important but beyond the limits of this study, however much career development theory rests on the development of career choice beginning in childhood.

Gottfredson, (1996, p.181) states "occupational aspirations reflect people's efforts to implement their self-concepts; and satisfaction with career choice depends (ing) on how well that choice fits the self-concept" Job satisfaction is therefore the result of a congruence of multiple factors, central to which are personal and professional interests. All research participants in this study initially had a strong interest in playing the game of golf competitively and, as we will see in the analysis and discussion of results section, during the evolution of each career, adjustments in trajectory took all further away from their original core interest of playing and replaced it with activities that kept them close to the game. Compromise for many becomes a way of life with "anticipatory compromise takes[ing] place when people begin to moderate their hopes with their perception of reality....as they do, aspirations they voice will shift away from their ideal towards the expected" (Gottfredson, 1996, p. 196). In such cases, a good match may not be the best possible but rather one with some of the core elements closest to their self-concept, which then becomes an acceptable opportunity to pursue, as outlined in 'circumscription and compromise theory' (Gottfredson, 1981). In summary, traditional approaches focus on the individual's primary interests / attributes and seek to match these against the working environment (Bright and Pryor, 2005). Over a career span and through a process of gradual adaption, an individual moves to

harmonise the person-position fit so that they can move towards the person that they want to be (Savikas, 1997).

### 2.7.3 Career Construction Theory

Career construction theory offers a model for understanding how individuals choose to work across their life cycle. The theory recognises that today's job market requires workers to negotiate a lifetime of change and that a range of potential influences affecting both career choice and progression must be considered (Savickas, 2005). The complexity of lifetime experience, intertwined with self efficacy and vocational aspiration provides a rich ground from which a career path emerges. An individual's beliefs of their capabilities are formed throughout life's journey in many different ways and it would be remiss not to mention that self-efficacy in one area of activity, for example, being a good golf player, will potentially extend to being a good golf coach or other related competence. Equally, vocational aspiration may be adjusted from what initially may have seemed like a dream job [vocational ideal] to a more realistic position [vocational preference] and with the benefit of experience. Heckhausen and Tomasik (2002, p. 216) in a study of 470 tenth grade students found that "as they approached....school graduation, the adolescents increasingly adjusted their vocational ideals to more realistic vocational preferences". It is reasonable to expect that similar changes of aspiration take place throughout the life course and it can be argued that the golf profession may be characterised as the development of a vocational career pathway.

Life is full of learning opportunities which shape the individual, making it practically impossible to separate work and personal lives. Throughout a person's career, external influences are major factors in the decision making process and have an impact on the

individual's life course (Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996). Even the initial career choice involves negotiation of all that the individual has become to that point in their life: the subjective and objective influences that they have been exposed to and the multiple intersections of family, work, study and social lives.

#### 2.7.4 Chaos Theory of Career

It can be argued that when the person and the environment remain unchanged then a trait orientated approach can be considered, although in the more dynamic job market it is the 'chaos theory of career' which embraces uncertainty, holds vagueness as a fundamental element and suggests that it provides opportunity for growth, learning and creativity (Davey et al., 2005). The literature recognises four cornerstones in the chaos theory of careers which should be factored when considering career development, chance [closely aligned to luck], change, complexity and constructiveness (Davey et al., 2005; Bright and Pryor, 2005). A linear passage along the career pathway is an element of the more traditional approach whereas chaos theory accepts non-linearity.

#### 2.7.5 Chance

Just as the environment has a significant effect on career then so too does the unplanned nature of an encounter which requires the individual to respond to new opportunities or adapt to a new environment. There is randomness in securing a PGA apprenticeship and furthermore, as the aspiring professional's career develops and other opportunities present themselves, the part played by randomness does not recede. For many, the acquisition of an apprenticeship, often at a local or even home golf club depends on



knowing when there is an opening, the convenience of location and the applicant's availability to start within a few days.

Chance, and its influence in the development of career, is recognised in the literature (Crites, 1969; Osipow, 1973; Mitchell et al., 1999; Pryor and Bright, 2003; Chen, 2005). A post-modernist view considers that chance should be considered as a factor when viewing career development in a more holistic and humanistic way (Guindon and Hanna, 2002). An unforeseen event has the potential to deflect or change one's trajectory and, although it is often negative cases of chance which are reported, it is likely that a corresponding number of positive cases can be reported as will be seen in the analysis and discussion of results section.

Bandura (1982, p.748) states "a chance encounter is defined as an unintended meeting of persons unfamiliar to each other....[which can] play a prominent role in shaping the course of human lives" and yet chance events are not always random. By actively seeking out opportunities where 'chance' encounters may appear, such as attending an event or changing environment or social group, some people effectively plan for a lucky break. It may be necessary to have a specific skill set or at least shared interest to fit in with a new group, but the opportunity offered from such a planned change may create a cascade of 'chance' interactions (Miller, 1981). Some individuals "use the event as a catalyst for change, another will consider the event but decide not to alter her or his career, and a third will not recognise that the event has occurred" (Cabral and Salomone, 1990, p. 9).

#### 2.7.6 Luck

According to Nagel (1979), factors beyond our control impact success and failure and should be considered. One might argue that free will in fact is not free at all and that all

actions are, to some degree, the product of causes beyond our control. The philosophical problem of moral luck, good or bad, is one of apportioning moral responsibility to: the same action conducted by different people [antecedent casual luck]; different outcomes from the same actions due to one or more external variables, [resultant luck]; as a result of the situations being faced in a specific place, [circumstantial luck] or the kind of person we are, [constitutive luck] (Nagel, 1979; Andre, 1983; Hurley, 2003; Bailey, 2007).

Dworkin (1981) makes a compelling argument for the differences between the human characteristics of risk taking and risk averse individuals, the choices people make and the values held, making a distinction between ‘option luck’ and ‘brute luck’, both of which can be good or bad. A deliberate action which may or may not deliver the anticipated outcome can be a matter of luck as “option luck refers to that for which we are responsible” (Bailey, 2007, p. 372). Conversely, an occurrence over which we have no control or for which we have no responsibility can be considered to be ‘brute luck’. Both forms of luck may be present at the same time, for example a golfer being injured after being struck by a ball due to an errant shot played by another person. In such a case, had one individual accepted the cost of insurance and the other not, then the accident for both is a matter of brute bad luck, but the option luck for one may be considered to be good and for the other bad.

In a study looking at the importance of luck in labour markets, the importance of a good first job is recognised to have “a persistent positive impact on long-term career outcomes” (Aiyar and Ramcharan, 2010, p.3). The study compared the debut and career data of 790 test match cricketers and made an analogy between test match debut and a first job, concluding that initial luck may have a long term effect throughout a career (Aiyar and Ramcharan, 2010). The process of gaining a first job therefore takes on great importance.

### 2.7.7 Change

The notion of a job for life is now outdated and the effect of disappearing job security has been well documented (Chen, 2004). Aspiring golf professionals of today must be prepared for change, be able to recognise a wide range of jobs within the sector, such as coaching, research, administration, management etc., and adjust their career trajectories as necessary to find fulfilling and sustainable career pathways. For PGA professionals who have recognised that the ideal career may be out of reach the search for a more feasible or alternative career pathway near to the game begins. A successful transition from professional golfer to golf professional necessitates a realignment of goals and plans and so “compromise becomes an inevitable vital part of an individual’s career decision-making process” (Chen, 2004, p.18).

A decision to change career path may be formed internally or be imposed by outside agencies. In any case, change often means compromise and the negotiation of multiple factors “adjusting aspirations to accommodate an external reality” (Gottfredson, 2002, p.100). The reconciliation of career aspiration is therefore real with “people often have[ing] to give up something less feasible and achievable....to fulfil goals and projects that are more practical and obtainable” (Chen, 2004, p. 18). Preparation to deal with such change is therefore vital and dual career training is now an accepted part of EU Sports Unit policy as highlighted by the European Commissioner for Sport, Androulla Vassiliou (EU Sports Forum, 2011).

Parker’s (2000) study looking at post-professional football careers, examines trainees’ views on education and vocational preparation, revealing that footballers will ultimately follow a career “outside of their chosen profession” (Parker, 2000, p.62). Compare this with professional golfers who commonly transfer from a playing career to another inside the

profession, and it seems that the focus of education is different. In the 1970s the Football League and the Professional Footballers Association made “post career education / vocational preparation a compulsory element of football trainee life” (Parker, 2000, p. 63-64), this corresponds closely to the time when the PGA brought in compulsory education / training. A major difference between the programmes is that in 1976 the PGA formed a tournament players’ division where those intent purely on a career as a professional golfer could join without the criteria attached to those pursuing a golf professional career (Holt et al., 2002). Even so, this has not stopped competitive golfers joining the PGA, with Open champions, Tony Jacklin and Paul Lawrie becoming fully qualified PGA golf professionals. Parker concludes that, in the main, the football trainees’ aspirations of playing success, “far outweigh issues of post-career planning” (Parker 2000, p. 74). It seems clear from Parker’s work that the culture of football views success as the realisation of a contract with a team and therefore anything else as failure. Any form of post-career planning, pursuit of academic qualification therefore may be viewed by the football community as preparing to fail. Pressure from the peer group [community] regarding academic achievement seems to permeate the sport, Parker mentions the dismissal of further education and post-vocational training highlighting that many future trainees “invest in a form of anticipatory socialisation” and employ disaffected attitudes towards education” (Parker, 2000, p. 62). This does not correspond with the modern reality of the aspiring golf professional, many of whom work towards competitive success but are required, as a condition of entry, to meet educational criteria. It should also be noted that in golf the direct peer group [within the working community] is normally smaller than the one found in football and includes a higher percentage of ‘older hands’ who potentially may provide a more optimistic view of career after career.

### 2.7.8 Complexity

The science of complexity is a way of looking at the world through “organic and holistic systems” and is the study of emergent order (Lewin, 1999, p. x). Complex systems therefore have a multitude of independent elements interacting and resulting in evermore intricate structures being developed. The antithesis of chaos is order, predictable systems and structures with deep and unshakeable theory. Complexity represents the middle area between static order at one end and chaos at the other. Thus, complexity is sometimes called the edge of chaos (Lawrimore, 2004).

Family rules, beliefs, values and traditions may affect the career choice of subsequent generations of family (Bratcher, 1982; Whitson and Keller, 2004a). Extended family relationships permeate every level of society and have an impact on the development of life skills amongst children and adolescents. The extended family often functions as a unit, where the emotional, practical and economic needs of the family are often served by other members of the unit as “family life provide[s] protection and create[s] job opportunities” (Louw, 2005, p. 59). The financial, organisational and moral support of talented children is also considered to be fundamental in the early stages of career (Bloom, 1985). It is a contentious point as to the relative influences of nature and nurture in the formation of character; both are important as we are born with a basic genetic make-up, while the remainder of our personality is learned. The person is shaped by relationships and the social milieu in which they exist (Gallop and Reynolds, 2004). The strongest relationships are often found within the family, where impressions are made from the earliest age, at which the developing personality is most malleable. Sometimes the impression is so strong as to affect the future occupation of

offspring. According to Martin (1981) it is not uncommon for offspring to follow in 'father's footsteps' into the military, legal and medical professions.

As a child moves through adolescence into adulthood, sibling relationships often take on different but important forms. For some these changing roles can be challenging, and research into the influence of sibling relations on decision making and career exploration reveals the importance of social support through career development (Palladino Schultheiss et al., 2002). Equally, the construction of both the current family unit and the family of origin may have a significant effect on the career decision making process. A sample of first year students in the PGA education programme revealed that 95.1% had both biological parents in their family unit until at least 18 years of age (Colclough and Toms, 2010). Aspects of anticipatory socialisation through career exploration, enhanced career clarity, formal training and the influence of the individual's social / family network, must also be considered as important factors (Scholarios et al., 2003., Bigliardi et al., 2005).

Individuals with close peer relationships are generally better placed to make career decisions as a result of greater environmental exploration and the opportunity to share experiences, fears, concerns and aspirations. Felsman and Blustein (1999, p. 291) report that "a sense of attachment to....peers may be adequate in providing the connection and security needed to successfully negotiate career development transitions". Throughout a person's career, external influences have an impact on the individual's life course and are major factors in the decision making process (Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996). Even the initial career choice involves negotiation of all that the individual has become to that point in their life, namely, the subjective and objective influences that they have been exposed to, and the multiple intersections of family, work, study and social lives.

### 2.7.9 Constructiveness

Constructionism recognises that an individual not only constructs knowledge through interactions which take place between people in the normal course of life but also through the process of “constructing and reconstruct[ing] knowledge out of their experiences in the world” (Kafai and Resnick, 1996, p. 2). Construction of a meaningful career requires individuals to navigate a series of career changes, whilst remaining true to vocational preference. Mobility and flexibility in the work place has encouraged individuals to take charge of their career whilst balancing personal satisfaction, responsibility, family, skill acquisition and financial need. Reflection on previous experiences, the current working landscape and future aspirations, form the basis of a framework which contextualises the world in which they live. The importance of personal experience and accuracy of its representation lies with the individual, who is multifaceted and has an idiosyncratic perspective which shapes their mental construction (Young and Collin, 2004; Doolittle and Camp, 1999). The lens through which a career is viewed is the result of life’s experience is influenced by beliefs and, inevitably, forms of bias, so creating a subjective view. Burr (1995) confirms this view in her assumption that an individual’s version of reality is a result of their personal construct. Even if the subjective nature of a career narrative raises issues of validity, there is value in the rich layers of personal constructionism that they illustrate.

## 2.8 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter began by providing relevant background information on the golf profession: the overall size of the industry, economic impact, number of participants and it illustrated the difference between professional golfers and golf professionals. A review of the

relevant literature relating to apprenticeship, situated learning in communities of practice, knowledge and skill transfer and theories of career development and career construction followed. Literature associated to chance, luck, change, complexity and constructiveness relevant to this study are included in the chapter to offer the reader a meaningful outline of the subject.



## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER**

This chapter discusses the qualitative methodology selected for the research, provides a rationale for the research methods chosen and introduces the researcher. An outline of the sample selection process, data collection and analysis also addressed.

### **3.2 RATIONALE FOR RESEARCH METHOD**

The choice of methodology is determined by the nature and content of the problem (Gill & Johnson, 1991). Decisions made throughout the career trajectories of golf professionals are of particular interest to the researcher, especially when considering the effect or otherwise of outside influences, and subsequently the issue of free will in the decision making process. With no previous research on the thesis subject from which to build, an interpretive paradigm, from an exploratory inductive perspective, allowed for discovery of values and attitudes of the research participants. With the locus of reality living with the individual, any attempt to understand a phenomenon without giving heed to his/her own narratives potentially limits the researchers understanding. It was necessary first to ascertain from the research participants their intended trajectories and then identify from their perspectives those factors which had affected career decisions, both at the onset and throughout their careers. This study therefore is fundamentally qualitative, is “concerned with social processes” (Allan, 1991, p. 179) and involves research that looks at the world through others eyes (Burns & Grove, 1987). The nature of life history is best suited to enquiry that places the life of participants in the context of the environment that they live (Benyon, 1985).

### 3.2.1 Ontology

From an ontological perspective in answer to the social reality to be investigated, one must consider that any apparent realities at a given time may not result in the same social construct at another time and is effectively 'what exists' at that moment. It is this fluidity and diversity of meaning which ensures that creations from the research participants or researcher and ultimately interpreted by the reader, may not prove to be reality but rather just their creation (Arksey & Knight, 1999). This sits well with the researcher's post-modernist view that social constructs are subject to change dependent on the individual's lifetime experiences and perspectives until that specific moment. Against such a background the methodology employed in this study provides an adequate set of data to look retrospectively at the career trajectories of a sample of PGA golf professionals.

### 3.2.2 Epistemology

This study relied heavily on the collection of data through interview narrative and although what may appear to be true to the research participant may not be based on knowledge, but rather was an expression of their beliefs at that given moment. From an epistemological standpoint as far as the research participant is concerned, the beliefs which they revealed and then justified became knowledge and as such from the researcher's perspective, had to be accepted. That is not to say that there cannot be an element of scepticism, which to some extent will be graded based on the researcher's interpretation of the reliability of discourse (Goldman, 1986). The data therefore may be considered to be a collection of beliefs, which have become knowledge through experience, testimony, reasoning and memory.

### 3.2.3 Interpretivism

Interpretivism places the emphasis on the lived experience and likewise an interpretive method offers an opportunity to recognise the value of the meaning-making of the individual in the context of the environment and culture in which they live. The personal reflexivity of an individual may be expressed through their actions and discourse, so it is this reflexivity that gives value to the meanings attributed to those actions and objects that become part of the life story (Prus, 1990). “At the heart of the interpretive paradigm is the recognized necessity of attending to the reflective and nature of human experience” (Prus, 1990, p. 356). The subjective and imperfect nature of this methodological paradigm may lead to questions on the validity of such an investigation, although it is the researcher’s view that each research participant is potentially a world authority on their own lived experience. Consistent with the premise that it is not possible to understand why people do what they do without first gaining an insight of how they interpret their world, the choice of method is suitable and stresses “the fundamentally interpretive nature of social reality” (Chervil & Despres, 2002, p. 209). By adopting such an approach, the study evolved as research progressed and so it was important that the researcher took a holistic view, considering wider factors such as environment, background and life experience which may have shaped the person (Goodson, 1992).

### 3.2.4 Life History

The approach taken for this study is partially retrospective life history, as research participants reconstruct events from current beliefs and interpretations; therefore a more contemporaneous life history is presented (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). It is merely a snapshot of each research participant, a personal view of career at a precise moment and it is

entirely possible that the same encounter conducted at a different moment would reveal a different dialogue. For example, the introduction or withdrawal of another individual potentially may affect the meaning-making of the research participant. Likewise, the researcher is not immune from new experience and meaning-making moments throughout their life and, as such, it is unlikely that any two separate encounters would result in the same interpretation and understanding.

There is no suggestion that the sample is representative of all PGA professionals. By investigating aspects of the history of this specific group of golf professionals we can begin to understand those stages which may have shaped and caused a ripple effect throughout their future careers. Therefore, the use of multiple case study / life history design is desirable as research participants are taken from different training periods. In this type of study, each subset is a multiple case design and so is suitable for the purpose (Yin, 1994).

### 3.3 THE RESEARCHER

The researcher took up the game at age 12 which corresponds with the average age, [12.01] of a sample of 286 first year PGA student professionals (Colclough & Toms, 2010). His 34 years as a PGA member started with a three-year apprenticeship after which he competed on professional tours around the world. During 13 years as a club professional he developed a reputation for business and coaching before becoming a National Coach which demanded relocation to another country. The development and management of several golf academies followed, and for the last three years he has worked with the PGAs of Europe as the Director of Education.

The researcher has gained experience from the various roles which he has fulfilled, together with the variety of actors with whom he has had the opportunity to connect and the environments in which he has worked has undoubtedly shaped his philosophy. The researcher has a cross-cultural perspective, having adapted and learned from living or working in different countries and territories.

The researcher is a committed lifelong learner and a voracious reader of biography and autobiography where the life story features prominently. He recognises that one size does not fit all and has several professional friends who qualified from the PGA school at around the same time as he, and although they have not formally updated their knowledge or skills by attending continuing professional development programmes, they have instead embraced a more informal and experiential learning route to navigate their career pathways through the profession.

### 3.3.1 Researcher Bias

A potential threat to validity is researcher bias, as the nature of qualitative research tends to be exploratory in nature, open-ended and less structured than quantitative research. The purpose of this section is to acknowledge those areas which may affect the research “by identifying one’s biases, one can easily see where questions that guide the study are crafted” (Janesick, 1998, p. 41) and to outline the strategies employed to minimise the effect. Bias not only undermines the process and procedures followed, but may also call into question the validity of findings.

A breadth of experience in various roles within the profession ensured that the researcher was suitably well informed of the industry and able to engage research participants

in meaningful conversation around the subject as advised by (Amis, 2005). The researcher recognised that the narrative was one to which only he would have access, as the effect of time and presence of another person may influence the research participants to relay another similar but different story (Riessman, 1993). He was also aware that any relationship potentially may contaminate the interview interaction, as the research participant may “respond to us based on who we are in their lives, as well as the social categories to which we belong” (Miller & Glassner, 1997, p. 101). He was aware of the possibility of carrying presuppositions with him to the interview setting, and this effect was minimised by purposively avoiding any form of background reading or research into participants after acceptance into the sample and pre-interview.

#### 3.4 REFLEXIVITY

Reflexivity is a key strategy for the researcher to develop an understanding of potential biases and predispositions (Burke-Johnson, 1997). The researcher is a trained tutor and assessor with well developed self reflection skills, which he employed through the data collection and data analysis stages. A process of systematic self-reflection on his initial and subsequent interpretations of the data resulted in the findings becoming his “interpretation of interpretation” (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009, p 9). Familiarity with the data, a consequence of frequent handling, resulted in further questions emerging from the researcher’s analysis. In an attempt to maximise the interpretive validity of the study, the researcher chose to use verbatim transcripts supported by field notes where appropriate to aid greater insight, this is noted as good practice by (Cohen et al., 2000). Pseudonyms were ascribed at the time of transcription and when potentially identifying details were supplied they were changed to

protect identity. Interview transcripts were validated through participant review as advised by (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

### 3.5 PILOT STUDY

Before work started on the main thesis a pilot study was completed, from which valuable lessons were learned. The process helped prepare the researcher for the demands of final study; offered an opportunity to trial instruments used for data collection and procedures to ensure integrity and quality of data as advised by (Skinner, 1991). Careful analysis of the research participants' insights helped to clarify key issues and open new lines of inquiry which is considered good practice (Janesick, 1998). Finally the pilot study acted as a "miniature version of the whole study" (Glastonbury and MacKean, 1991, p. 241).

The pilot study helped form an improved focus for the main study and a subtle shift in emphasis, with the researcher paying more attention to the impact of initial professional training, on-the-job learning and continual professional development, along with the influence of employers and co-workers in their career development, which were consistent themes across the different periods. Following a thorough analysis of the pilot study data collected, it became clear that a closer inspection of the PGA's training history was necessary after which it was apparent that an additional period: ultimately called the 'voluntary period' [see section 1.5], should be included to add depth to the researchers understanding. The pilot study had been conducted with four periods which were subsequently adjusted (in date terms) to better reflect progressions made in the PGA's training programme, so thus allowing the collection of more meaningful data. In the pilot study, all research participants talked expressively about

further education and informal learning which led the researcher to reconsider the importance that qualified professionals attach to this topic.

### 3.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

As the selected research design makes use of multiple case studies / life history, then it could be considered that the approach was a mixed method design, as data was collected through a self-completion questionnaire which gathered survey type information, handicap on turning professional, dates of attending the PGA education programme, date of qualification, etc., combined with the use of semi structured interviews.

#### 3.6.1 Participants - Sampling

A purposive sample was drawn from PGA members loosely known to the researcher and located in geographical areas to which he had easy access, and as there was no attempt to generalise, this may be considered to be acceptable (Cohen et al., 2000, and Miles and Huberman, 1994). Consistent with an approach commonly seen in case study research, the purposive sample offers the opportunity to target individuals who are typical of the group being investigated and who are able to inform the study with noteworthy insights (Robson, 2002; and Maxwell, 1997). Reflections on the suitability of the pilot study sample were useful in the selection of the sample for the main thesis. Easy access to the pilot study sample had proved to be difficult and on two occasions research participants had commenced training in one period and completed qualification in another, effectively spanning the separation points as identified in section 1.5. As advised by Robson (2002) the researcher was able to use judgement, guided by the pilot study, to select a sample that could satisfy the specific needs of



the research. As the focus of this study was on the collection of narrative data, the use of a purposive sample fitted the needs and generated a sample capable of addressing the research question. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), the use of a purposive sample when attempting comparability amongst different cases is desirable.

### 3.6.2 Sample Criteria

Sample selection had commenced by collating a list of locations to which the researcher had relatively easy access, including the area within a 100 km radius of his home and up to a radius of 30 km from the location to which he travelled during his work. A section on the PGA website titled, 'find your PGA pro search', proved to be a useful tool from which it was possible to draw up a list of potential participants. A demographic criterion of: membership of the PGA, education through a PGA training programme and recognition by the PGA as being a member of good standing, characterises the sample. The age range of research participants varied, with the oldest being 69 years of age from the 'voluntary period' and the youngest 25 years of age from the 'academy period.' All participants at the time of data collection were actively engaged in an employed or retained position within the profession.

### 3.6.3 The Sample

Brief vignettes of the sample [appendix A] have been prepared to contextualise the life history of each participant using data collected on the self-completion questionnaire and in the interview process. Consistent with the terms stated on the subject information sheet and

consent form, all participants were given a pseudonym, and any reference to their real identity or data which may have revealed such was removed at the point of transcription.

### 3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Sixteen potential research participants were initially contacted by telephone and during the resulting conversation a brief outline of the nature of the research was explained. All were asked their year of entry to the PGA and year of qualification, to aid in the selection of two research participants per training period. All confirmed that they had an interest in being a member of the sample and were informed of the protocol.

Each received an information pack either by e-mail or post [at their preference], which included: a subject information sheet [appendix B] which stated the purpose of the research, outline of the procedure, and addressed issues of confidentiality and anonymity; a consent form [appendix C] and a stage one, self-completion questionnaire [appendix D]. Once all questionnaires were returned a sample of ten research participants was selected: the first two respondents who had entry to the PGA and completed the training programme within a single training period. Those not selected were informed, thanked for their interest and their data was deleted.

The issues of informed consent as described by Thorne (2004, p. 161), as being “knowledgeability, voluntary and competent choice”, were considered and consent gained at the beginning of the process. In the opinion of the researcher, it was important to remind research participants of their right to change the status of their consent throughout the process, specifically at both the questionnaire and interview stages, to which participants additionally had the opportunity to review their consent at anytime. The process was conducted in a

manner which complied with the ethical guidance given by the BSA – relationships with research participants’ guidance: No’s 13 – 30, (British Sociological Association, 2004) and BERA – responsibilities to participants’ guidelines: No’s 8 – 29, (British Educational Research Association, 2004). This procedure, together with the consent form, ensured that the research participant was sufficiently well informed, not only about the voluntary nature of their involvement, but also of their right to withdraw from parts or all of the study at anytime (Robson, 2002).

### 3.8 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was undertaken in two stages with stage one consisting of a self-completion questionnaire, followed by stage two semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire was completed by each research participant, and returned to the researcher in a prepaid envelope, by e-mail or by hand. The use of the self-completion questionnaire was used to focus discussion around the basic career details thereby creating a platform from which to build rapport. Questions started with ‘unthreatening factual questions’, followed by questions of “high interest” (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 257). The questionnaire had been tested in the pilot study and incidents where ambiguous wording potentially may have contaminated responses or questions which had been left unanswered were adjusted, while factors affecting overall ease of completion were considered, as advised by (Oppenheim, 1992). During the pilot study there had been some confusion on how to categorise the roles / positions that a research participant had previously held, following the inclusion of an example in the final questionnaire this was no longer considered a factor.

Stage two commenced by scheduling face to face interviews with research participants. Six interviews took place at golf facilities, three at hotels and one at a convenient location close to the research participant's home. Interviews were exploratory in nature and aimed at seeking the views and experiences of the professionals involved, to provide a 'grounded' qualitative understanding of the issues. All sessions started with a reminder of the right to withdraw, and a request to record and take notes. Any questions about the process to be undertaken were answered to the satisfaction of the research participant before commencement of the interview. On one occasion it was necessary to move location after the start of the interview to a closed restaurant area as both the research participant and researcher received interruptions during the first few minutes of the session. Subsequent interviews took place in areas away from any likely footfall to minimise the possibility of interruption. As recommended by Johnson (2002) and with the research tool being an in-depth interview, the use of a digital voice recorder [Sony ICD\_SX46] was considered to be important as the use of field notes and the researcher's memory may not have been accurately able to recollect the minutia of the encounter. As personal and basic career data had been collected in the self completion questionnaire, interviews were built upon information supplied which served to help build rapport. Interviews were structured around the key themes of: a) engagement with the sport and entry into the profession. b) environments, situations and individuals who had, in the view of the research participant, been pivotal in their career trajectory. c) the research participant's view of the profession at entry and the present day, along with future career issues. d) the effect and suitability of education and continual professional development.

The interview has been described as a partnership to create an opportunity to exchange verbal information between a research participant with a reservoir of personal knowledge and

a listener equipped with good listening skills (Miller and Crabtree, 2004). The interview event occurs within a specific environment which could theoretically be duplicated, but it is unlikely that the social setting can ever be reproduced as partners [research participant and interviewer] in the interaction will inevitably change with time. The interview event should therefore be considered as a snapshot of the social interaction between actors that can be likened to a conversational journey.

It was necessary for the interviewer to elicit a sufficiently rounded narrative to reveal a pool of relevant data from which to progress the research, and the choice of interview type rested on two key decisions, a desire to empower the research participants by putting them in a position of control (Arksey and Knight, 1999) and the level of shared knowledge likely to be found between the research participant and interviewer, as advised by (Werner and Schoepfle, 1987). A semi-structured interview method was selected to yield rich and meaningful data especially as the nature of this approach allowed the researcher to ask a series of pre-prepared questions while offering the flexibility to probe and follow-up on the initial revelations, which is a key criteria for in-depth interviewing (Robson, 2002). The probe questions proved to be very useful as, on more than one occasion a new direction of dialogue opened and made for greater insight. A pre-prepared script [appendix E] was developed using open-ended questions to allow participants flexibility of response and to raise new issues, but guided by a general sequence aimed at uncovering subjective meanings (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997). Each interview concluded with a gradual reduction in the specificity of questioning and offered research participants the opportunity to share their wider opinions on the profession and, as advised by Robson (1997) people often gain a great deal of satisfaction from talking about themselves and sharing their opinions. On completion of the interview, the

voice recorder was turned off and a period of general discussion and small talk took place. Within 24 hours the digital files collected were transferred to the hard drive of a password-protected computer and erased from the voice recorder. Verbatim transcripts of voice recordings from each interview were made and observations from field notes added where appropriate to aid greater insight. This is noted as good practice by (Cohen et al., 2000). Pseudonyms were ascribed at the time of interview and where potentially identifying details were supplied they were changed to protect identity. The resulting word processing file was password-protected within the computer.

### 3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

#### 3.9.1 Data Analysis Process

The qualitative paradigm may be considered to be a creative process which involves asking rigorous questions of the data, therefore once the initial data collection had been completed, the transcription and analysis of data were considered. At the time of transcription text was arranged in: double line spacing; Arial 12 font, with audio file time locator and paragraph line number. Field notes were inserted in italics and passages of text colour highlighted according to initial categories of interest, [see appendix F]. Once transcribed, the data effectively moved from a series of recordings into a working text, from which the formal process of data analysis could begin. In reality, an informal process had most certainly been ongoing throughout the data collection period. Elements of a deductive process were clearly present as the researcher had the benefit of the pilot study findings and undoubtedly had some degree of contamination from the study of existing research around the subject. The very structure and design of the questionnaire and interview script was targeted at the type of data

to be collected, even though the researcher did not fully recognise the specific phenomena that he intended to focus on (Peräkylä, 1997). Only after collection of the first few interviews could the researcher formally begin to develop a process of reasoning in response to the issues revealed in the data. This inductive approach relied heavily on careful examination of the data as the words and phrases used revealed the research participants' ideas moving "from thought, through language to themes" (Baker, 1997, p. 130).

Once the preliminary analysis was complete with fledgling coding of text, it provided a valuable way to establish a series of first order themes from which the in-depth analysis could begin. Initial coding emerged from the research question by categorisation of data in an inductive fashion and, as had been found in the pilot study, when transferred into a series of coding themes it became more meaningful. Consistent with the qualitative approach, coding themes emerged from the data as respondents highlighted similar topics. It is these topics that became the initial categories for coding and so rather than being restricted by the first used set of codes, they became the basis for more meaningful categories as more data was introduced. This process helped inform the researcher as to which aspects of the data should be tagged, the level of complexity that should be considered, and empowered him to adjust the initial codes into a more meaningful set of coding themes from which further lines of investigation might emerge.

Careful re-reading of full interview transcriptions revealed passages of text that had been missed during the first reading, allowing the researcher to become more immersed in the narrative. At each successive reading, fewer coding issues appeared and eventually no new categories emerged. Relevant sections of text were then tagged with the research participant's pseudonym initials, the audio file time locator and line number. For example, a tag relating to

influential people [highlighted in blue] in the career of say Edward Parry would be EP 01.32 [3-5]. Each coloured section was then transferred to a corresponding spreadsheet application [numbers], where passages of text relating to a specific category were grouped together [appendix G]. Using this procedure it became a relatively simple matter to relocate text within the original interview transcription.

Tagged data was stored in the corresponding worksheet, enabling the comparison of specific events, linking data, reflection and the generation of ideas. Cross-referencing and repeated reviewing of both de-contextualised text, together with the original interview transcript, aided a thorough analysis of the data. Strauss (1987) advises that the researcher moves beyond the retrieval of data through coding and explores the relationships of specific events with other phenomena, thus encouraging thorough scrutiny which, in turn, may lead to new lines of investigation. As advised by Coffey & Atkinson (1996, p. 29) coding also allows for storage and retrieval from which the process of analysis is facilitated, not only by “data simplification and reduction, coding can [also] be conceptualised as data complication”. This view allows the researcher to ‘play’ with the data in such a way that opportunities for discovery of meaningful concepts increase with greater in-depth understanding of the data. Strauss (1987) confirms that coding should not be restricted to reduction but rather to assist understanding. Equally Strauss (1987) advocates ‘memoing’ even for lone researchers who may start with simple memos surrounding the ‘how to’ part of the process, and gradually move towards issues of understanding such as, micro-coding, relationships between data, emerging categories and theories worthy of further investigation. The use of a voice recorder was particularly useful as a form of memo taking, especially when the process of internal dialogue was casual and intermittent. The researcher found that frequently, when engaged in



other activities, it was not uncommon to have ‘ah hah’ moments when new insights came to mind. These were then recorded and either discarded or qualified at a later stage of analysis.

### 3.10 ESTABLISHING VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Huberman and Miles (1994, p. 438) suggest that the collection of data through “multiple sources and modes of evidence” is desirable, and so triangulation of data collected through the ‘stage one, self-completion questionnaire’ was possible due to the nature of data recorded, places and dates available in both public and PGA records. Once a research participant’s interview data had been collected and transcribed, the researcher had the opportunity to make contact either by telephone or in person to confirm parts of the transcription and to ask for clarification of specific parts of the interview. Questions rephrased coming from a subtly different angle were used to ensure that the original data was reliable. Triangulation of data offers the researcher an opportunity to look at research participants from different standpoints, serving as a safeguard. The use of multiple data sources helps deal with issues of validity and bias (Rose, 1991).

In the social scientist’s world, validity could be considered to be “in a very general sense, any measuring device is ‘valid’ if it does what it is intended to do” (Carmines and Zellar, 1979, p. 12). The consistency of such a device could be thought of as its reliability. Against this background the trinity of validity, generalisability and reliability, all terms imported from the quantitative paradigm are according to Miles and Huberman (1994), not easily applied to qualitative research. Phenomena such as employee efficacy, detachment, cognitive dissonance etc, are largely intangible and too abstract to be considered as things that can be easily measured and assigned a value. Even so, there is recognition that there must be a

way of checking research, and proponents of the qualitative paradigm offer a different set of terms which, they argue accurately, reflect a way to demonstrate methodological robustness (Golafshani, 2003). Lincoln and Guba (1985) raise a number of issues around establishing trustworthiness, and propose alternative terms, “credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability”, while Golafshani (2003) discusses issues of trustworthiness, quality and rigor. Qualitative researchers cannot easily disassociate themselves from their research and frequently face accusations of bias, issues of validity and reliability and no differently from those who adopt a quantitative stance to their research, are required to demonstrate that their work is credible (Golafshani, 2003). So ‘validity’ is concerned with the way in which an instrument measures what is supposed to be measured, and it could be considered that a ‘credible’ result is a valid interpretation of what the data appears to involve. This is possible when the researcher can demonstrate the legitimacy of the research methods used (Robson, 1997 and Golafshani, 2003). The key here is ‘interpretation’ as it is suggested that qualitative studies are dependent on a human observer and that there can never be a single “immaculate perception” (Wolcott, 1990, p. 15).

Examination of the methods used, in particular around sample selection, data collection, field notes, analysis and the overall quality of the processes used will help the qualitative researcher to establish dependability. The documentation of processes applied to this research, together with the opportunity for research participants to read the transcription of their interview, to ensure its representation of their thoughts, feelings and comments, effectively brings a degree of quality to the research, from which trustworthiness can be built.

### 3.11 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter introduced the researcher, provided a rationale for adopting a qualitative method with a constructivist and interpretative approach, the use of in-depth interviews and self-completion questionnaires. Detailed information on the approach taken: justification of the methods used, a review of lessons learned from the pilot study, ethical considerations, a summary of the processes used in sample selection, data collection, data analysis and the method of establishing credibility are offered.

## **CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER**

The background to this study included a desire on behalf of the researcher to better understand the twists and turns in the careers of PGA golf professionals. This chapter reflects upon and analyses the findings from the data and highlights four main themes which emerged from the research: life / career planning, persons of influence, the effect of luck and the suitability of initial and continuing training.

### **4.2 LIFE / CAREER PLANNING**

A series of different stages and roles through which individuals navigates their career paths could be considered as the focus of ‘career development theory’, with a key architect of the theory promoting that a career develops over a life-span (Super 1953 and 1980). The research participants followed a variety of career pathways as may be seen in the vignettes [appendix A] and it was clear that as both the individuals and the job market changed then so did the challenges they faced. A flexible approach to the development of their careers was evident, with each carving out a route that, for the most part, satisfied the needs of making a living and the wants of developing a career. This is consistent with career construction theory which allows for life themes to develop and to be applied to the creation of future career moves (Savickas, 2005).

The changing nature of the market was a significant factor across the study as the job market for golf professionals had transformed. In the first three periods it was common for salaries or retainers to be paid at all stages, along a clearly identified career pathway - apprentice, assistant and then club professional. By the final two periods, the market had

much more flexibility, embraced specialisation and the self-employed contractor. Fenton and Dermott (2006, p. 206) state “western labour markets themselves have changed markedly in the last three decades” and although the premise of their study suggests that it is the lower paid and less skilled who are most affected, it is plausible to think that an ‘apprentice’ may also be similarly impacted by many of the tenets of their theory, although to a lesser extent. Greg and Wadsworth (1995) concluded that job stability in the period 1975 - 1993 changed significantly with; lower median job tenure, raised turnover of lower skilled staff and an increased number of part-time, self-employed and temporary staff.

John, from the voluntary period, realised that his skills as a good player would be respected by some clubs as it was very common in his era for a good player to secure the best positions. The ability to play well was often thought of as a badge of proficiency, not only as a player but also as a teacher. The fact that John had been able to include a top player as a reference on his CV had given him an added sense of confidence that should his competitive career have not worked out then he would have been able to secure a good position.

A practical approach would best describe Fred’s attitude to his career. Fred had decided to follow a career in sport in part due to his prowess in several sports, and partly through his newly found confidence and maturity. After securing an apprentice role at the local golf club, Fred found that his employer was not interested in offering training but was using him more as a shopkeeper. Even so, he recognised that he had gained valuable experience as he had been left to run the shop while his employer was absent. Throughout his career, Fred had been very decisive and there was no better example than after a few months in his first position he made a life choice:

“My wife worked nights [nurse] and I worked days so that we could look after our daughter, it was pretty clear then that we had to get a job where we could work together. I remembered that my parents had worked together in the paper shop and thought that if I could find a job where we could develop a retail business then we could be together” - (Fred: voluntary period, 22.05.09).

Fred revealed that later in his career he had a change of mind after being in a position for eighteen months and as a result of his success he had been, ‘sucked’ more into an administrative role which he disliked. Fred’s decisions were based on non-career concerns, but issues of quality of life, personal satisfaction and lifestyle were strong drivers in his decision making process. The literature reveals that the human condition is infinitely complex, with career choices being the result of various influences across life. Anderson and Niles (1995), argue that non-career concerns, personal, emotional and relationship issues, should be considered, not independently of career counselling but rather together with it. Some career counsellors suggest that a new concept of integrating both career and non-career concerns into the counselling process should be adopted, thereby creating a more holistic approach (Brown and Brooks 1991; Anderson and Niles, 1995; Swanson, 2002).

Research participants from the two more recent periods entered the game to play but critically had also considered a ‘Plan B’. The golf professionals seemingly had taken more interest in the chronological steps that they should take to carve out their chosen career pathways. Even before entering the profession, a degree of critical thinking was evident. As Graham progressed through his school days he developed a basic career plan which included a desire to work outdoors, be involved in the leisure industry and have flexible working hours.

Playing competitive golf would be a good fit for such a plan but it was not well accepted by his parents:

“I was ready to turn pro straight from school. Mum and dad [said] ‘you’re not turning pro at sixteen, let’s see how you feel at eighteen after your ‘A levels’, [but] I was still the same, still wanted to turn pro....and again they talked me into going to university” - (Graham: academy period, 06.08.10).

Following university and after satisfying his parents that his wish to enter into the golf profession was not based on a whim, Graham finally took the plunge and turned professional, joining the PGA training programme after securing a position at a respected club:

“The university....turned me from the playing side and opened my eyes to other routes....the way that I saw it was that if I could be involved in people’s leisure time then they are going to be happier, which in turn makes my life easier” - (Graham: academy period, 06.08.10).

James had the opportunity to observe the career direction of his brother and learned important lessons which he applied in his own career decision making. Palladino Schultheiss et al., (2002) report that there is a growing body of research which suggests that siblings can provide not only a vital form of advice and support but also may serve as role models. Until the point of turning professional, the career of James had practically mirrored that of his brother, with both gaining representative honours, albeit some ten years or so apart. His father had supported both in their playing aspirations and was clearly a source of influence when it came to the decision that James made to turn professional:

“My idea was to do my training and then see if I was really good enough to play. For me it was important to get a fall back....when he [brother] finished his playing ....he had nothing to fall back on and he [dad] was determined for me to finish my PGA before going to play full-time” - (James: academy period, 01.08.10).

Changing jobs on a cycle of four to five years has been a predetermined strategy for both Graham and Jack. Graham believed that he had to change jobs to gain experience ahead of applying for a job at the next level. He had no doubts that he wanted to be involved in a senior management role and, to that end, was busy collecting evidence of his competence. Jack considered that the early years of his career were simply stepping-stones until he eventually reached his objective, and was carefully planning his next move which he thought was quite imminent:

“I am gradually checking off many of the things that I will need to be able prove that I can do.” - (Graham: academy period, 06.08.10).

“There is no doubt that I am looking for the next step, something with golf operations at the core would suit me fine for a few years, to give me some more experience” - (Jack: development period, 04.02.10).

It was evident to the researcher that all participants were generally satisfied with their career to date but, to some degree, were following a second choice of career. All had entered the profession to play competitively with the duration of their first careers varying from



person to person. Some realised that they did not possess the necessary skills or desire to live the life of a tour professional sooner than others.

#### 4.3 ROLE MODELS - INFLUENTIAL PEOPLE

Individuals are exposed to a wide variety of influences throughout life and, as such, the impact upon career decisions cannot be easily predicted with seemingly unrelated associations, conversations and actions potentially having “significant career implications” (Holland, 1995; Bright and Pryor 2005, p. 298). All research participants were engaged in an apprenticeship programme of sorts, albeit throughout the time covered by this study, training programmes were very different from one period to the next.

Each research participant could rightly have expected to learn from their ‘master’ who would likely have been at the centre of much of their education and would be influential in forming the lens through which their apprentice viewed the world. Six of the research participants alluded to being ‘influenced’, ‘motivated’ or ‘inspired’ by their boss [master], a co-worker or people with whom they regularly interacted. Barry commented upon the importance of the employing professional when stating:

“The influence of a good professional on the individual....is massive, and likewise the influence of a bad one is the same” (Barry: consolidation period, 07.11.09).

He was not alone in his observation, with others echoing that they had learned and benefited from working closely with their ‘master.’ An examination of the mentoring experiences of 21 expert coaches revealed the importance of mentoring “it took many of these

expert coaches several years to realise how much their coaches / mentors had influenced their life both inside and outside of sport” (Bloom et al., 1998, p. 273). The data revealed that much on the job training, especially in the first two training periods, was delivered in an ad hoc fashion, which is consistent with the findings of Bloom when he reported that often, “there was no formalised procedures to initiate this training, it was often a case of being in the right place at the right time” (Bloom et al., 1998, p. 279). For many of the research participants, the working relationship with their master was quite close and a number mentioned, that when the shop was quiet, they could really get to ‘train’ with their boss. In these ‘down’ times they would have the opportunity to discuss different aspects of the game and profession, and for several it was during these times that training took place. How to deal with complaints and difficult members was mentioned by one participant and others echoed similar views on the use of quiet times:

“My boss was very good at golf swings, we could see the first tee from the shop window and we often stood there.....he would often predict the kind of shot that the member would hit. I learned a lot from those times” (Ian: compulsory period, 22.05.09)

According to Whitson and Keller (2004b, p.494) “relationships with family members are some of the most potent and significant relational experiences.” Certainly the importance of the family unit, which was mentioned frequently by the research participants, cannot be overlooked. Whitson and Keller (2004a) suggest however that family support is just one of a number of wider relational influences which facilitate career development. Family systems theory outlines a way in which family relations and a working pattern of interactions develop

over time (Carr, 2000). Six of the research participants had been introduced to the game initially by a family member and only two met with any resistance to their engagement with the profession. The concerned but generally supportive parent came through strongly, and lessons learned from family and friends were often retold. Fred explained that his experience of working in the family business as a youngster was a vital lesson in human relations, the importance of which he returned to on numerous occasions throughout the interview:

“My mother and father had a [newspaper] shop and I used to serve in the shop...that gave me a fairly good education in speaking with people and being with people and running some sort of a little bit of a business.....you could say that I had qualifications in being with people” - (Fred: voluntary period, 22.05.09).

Barry identified the importance of learning from his employer and workmates, his quote being representative of all but two of the research participants. Additionally he felt that he had derived a sense of future direction and a map of steps to be taken while perversely for Terry it was more a case of deciding what he did not want to do:

“I was working for a pro that taught me a hell of a lot about selling, about relationships, about managing his books, about managing his stock and he ran a nice little pro shop....I learnt a lot from that” - (Barry: consolidation period, 07.11.09).

“The professional at my first job was...a jack of all trades, a traditional club pro you could say. He helped me most to understand that I couldn't be a club shop pro, it just wasn't me...I think it really

helped me to realise that there were some avenues that I didn't want to go down" - (Terry: development period, 13.07.10).

A successful employer - employee relationship relies on a set of rational behaviours from both the boss [master] and the worker [apprentice]. Many golf professionals have a very small workforce, have daily contact with their staff and, as such, the opportunity for 'contamination', positively or otherwise, is present. As noted in the literature review it is common for language, culture and viewpoints to be shared when people share a community of practice (Brown et al., 1989).

The satisfaction of employer and apprentice are often linked to the nature of the job role agreed. Simon (1951) offers a theory of employment relationships which suggests that the employer exercises authority only to the same degree to which the worker will accept tasks and responsibilities reasonable for the agreed pay and conditions. "Certain aspects of the worker's behaviour are stipulated in the contract terms, certain other aspects are placed within the authority of the employer, and still other aspects are left to the worker's choice" (Simon, 1951, p. 305). The master - apprentice relationship found in golf has a degree of flexibility within the PGA's framework of training requirements even though the end terms [outcome] of training are agreed. Since 1987, employing professionals have had to agree to conditions for the employment of an apprentice and provide evidence of properly equipped facilities (Holt et al., 2002). Even so, it is entirely reasonable to assume that two masters may decide upon different training pathways and priorities for their apprentice. A master who is strong in teaching may require an apprentice either to look after the shop or potentially take some of the teaching workload. Such decisions sit squarely with the master but have the potential to affect the learning pathway of their apprentice significantly. In this scenario it is likely that

the apprentice taken on to look after the shop will learn many of the business and administration skills before those skills around teaching and coaching and vice versa.

Both Jack and Graham were influenced by co-workers and had made a decision to follow a similar career to their role models. Jack is clear that he had been influenced by his co-worker, whose career path he now aspires to emulate. Graham was so impressed by the work of his line manager that he also is following a pathway that he hopes will lead to his securing a similar type position in the future:

“ [He] was not afraid to voice his opinions with the boss and stood up for us....I often get to speak with Neil, he is now a director of golf, he has been a good source of advice for me” - (Jack: development period, 04.02.10).

“I wanted to be him [his operations manger]....he was doing everything, you know, he had the busiest job and I liked that idea” - (Graham: academy period, 06.08.10).

In most cases there seemed to be a genuine warmth for individuals with whom the research participants had worked in their first place of work with more than one presenting them as either a role model or even a benefactor watching out for them during their career.

“Duncan really was the one that got me into the professional game and he definitely became someone that I looked up to....he was something of a big brother really” - (Steve: compulsory period, 12.04.09).

“I think that he has been very kind, very supportive and even when I had the spell away from here...he has been very supportive in my progression” - (Terry: development period, 13.07.10).

#### 4.4 LUCK - CONVENIENCE

An egalitarian view that all people are equal, deserve the same rights and opportunities may be one view of a society which aims to neutralise luck, and certainly in competitive golf the sport is played generally in a meritocracy. Obtaining a first position in the golf profession seems far from the Kantian concept of equality, as seven of the research participants gained their first apprenticeship in part through a degree of ‘insider’ knowledge or with the benefit of nepotism. Research on the nature of hirings has recognised that there is the element of subjective assessment and that social networks are commonly employed to find suitable employees and jobs (Fernandez et al., 2000 and Petersen et al., 2000)

The sudden change of professional at one club sparked a series of events that resulted in Barry taking a temporary position that he had never previously imagined. Steve received a ‘tip-off’ from the golf club assistant that he was handing in his notice at the weekend which prompted him to ask the professional if he had any jobs available:

“They sacked the golf pro at my golf club and took on a new professional....and he asked the Chairman if he knew anyone who could help out for about a day and a half per week and look after the shop....and that was it, never went to university....I was never going to be a golf professional in a million years” - (Barry: consolidation period, 07.11.09).

“I used to play at the muni [council owned golf course] and the assistant there told me that he was leaving and that I should go and speak with the pro” - (Steve: compulsory period, 12.04.09).

Barry, from the consolidation period, had raised the importance of a ‘good boss’ and was convinced that he had benefited from having worked with a good professional. His observations fit neatly with the view that working within a good positive environment, “could lead to greater human capital accumulation” (Aiyar and Ramcharan, 2010, p 14). Several research participants reported that their ‘boss’ had helped them navigate through their career trajectories and that they had benefited from being on the inside with the incidence of a ‘good word here or there’, a ‘tip-off’, introduction to the right person, or by gaining knowledge of upcoming events as being a factor in subsequent career changes.

When several candidates with similar credentials interview for a position, the interviewer potentially could view a ‘level playing field’ but can rarely be completely without bias which, in turn, will likely affect the selection process. Taleb (2004, p. 174-175) uses the example of actors at an audition, stating that “randomness enters the game” when explaining that the chosen actor may be given the job simply because they “fitted the mood of the examiner on that day.” Fred recognised that he had profited from the ‘odd good break’, but was quick to point out that he was able to maximise the opportunity afforded to him. Fred always spent much of his working week teaching and had developed something of a reputation as the best coach in the area:

“The chief executive officer, who I had been given lessons to, said, ‘I want you to come and be our pro-manager....I think that if you’re nice to everybody and treat them fairly and honestly then somewhere down the line, then they are going to come back to you’ - (Fred: voluntary period, 22.05.09).

Fred’s position at the new course was that of director of golf and although he had no experience in that area he was very successful, which ultimately changed the direction and had a long-term effect on his subsequent career.

David was the professional at a club where he had been responsible for developing a group of good junior players. He had revealed that the club had quite a few juniors when he arrived and so his job was simply to encourage and motivate them more. Because of his success with the juniors he had gained a reputation as a good coach but it was his relationship with one of the directors at another course close to his own that he was offered the head professional position at another club:

“I realised that I could not really progress much at my club....but did not want to leave the area as this was, where my life was and then the director from there [another local club] came to see me and said that their pro was leaving....and that I would have a good chance of getting it.” - (David: consolidation period, 24.05.09).

Although an interview was conducted, it was clear to David that he was the preferred choice from the outset. Aiyar and Ramcharan (2010) make the point that signal bias does not adequately consider the conditions in which the individual was performing. It is entirely possible that signal bias entered the equation as he had benefited from a large junior group at



his previous club. This was certainly not the case at his new club and even though he was particularly successful in his coaching with that age group there could be no guarantee that he would have the skills to attract and engage new junior members to the club.

A five-minute phone call changed the direction of Terry's career and instead of arranging a holiday he ended up in line for a top coaching job:

“I was....playing some of the best golf of my life but I wasn't really enjoying it, and I was looking to take a break....so I called up a friend....and in conversation he said that there might be a job going with someone that I already knew, so I made a phone call [and] he needed long term help because one of his assistants was going” - (Terry: development period, 13.07.10).

Terry had recognised that the playing career was not rewarding him with all the enjoyment that he wanted and, as such, it is fair to assume that potentially he had his 'radar' on for other opportunities. Even so, the coaching opportunity afforded to him certainly came out of the blue. One might argue that it was a matter of brute luck that led him to his new career direction but equally a degree of option luck was at hand when he provided evidence of his suitability for the position.

Steve got back into the game through a chance meeting with a former colleague at the Open championship:

“I got this job because I wanted to get back into the game and met a pro at the Open in 2006 who was looking for a teacher for his academy” - (Steve: compulsory period, 12.04.09).

Steve walked into the hospitality tent at exactly the right moment to meet a former colleague who had recently decided that he needed a teacher for his academy. This was a chance meeting between two of approximately 20,000 people, spread over more than 200 acres of land, at a never to be repeated moment on a specific day. This makes alignment to the egalitarian view difficult, where the aim is to “neutralise the influences on distribution for which we are not responsible” as described by (Bailey, 2007 p. 372).

#### 4.5 EDUCATION / CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Education during apprenticeship and issues around the opportunity for continual professional development [CPD] proved to be topics of discussion, on which all research participants were happy to share their opinions. The terms education and training were used interchangeably, with several of the research participants using education for the period of ‘apprenticeship’ and all using the term ‘training’ for what might be otherwise described as, CPD. Four research participants used the term training exclusively with no differentiation.

There was general agreement amongst research participants that the ‘initial professional education’ programme had improved considerably since their days of training. It could be argued that research participants from the voluntary period had an intrinsic motivation to engage with education as the very nature of the PGA programme in that period allowed them to forego any formal learning through the PGA. Both participants from this period could be considered to be approaching the twilight of their careers although there was an obvious difference in their current attitude to training. John, the younger of the two men, was convinced that the trainees of today had more opportunities because of the training they

received and had access to, but was not sufficiently moved to engage in any further learning for himself. Conversely, Fred was very enthusiastic about the PGA and the way that it had transformed training. He had participated in some CPD courses over the last few years and alluded to being a committed lifelong learner:

“The boys are very well trained now, perhaps a bit too academic but....they are better able to take on different jobs.....the courses that the PGA put on are good but I haven’t done any....it’s not really what I want to do” - (John: voluntary period, 21.05.09).

“When the original training was put together those guys were obviously forward thinking....they wanted to do something to help their fellow professionals and the assistants in particular....the big thing is that they made learning interesting and [as a result] I suppose that I have just wanted to keep learning” - (Fred: voluntary period, 22.05.09).

Research participants from both the compulsory and consolidation periods confirmed that their initial professional education had helped them in the initial stages of their careers although none exhibited great enthusiasm with the CPD offering. The oldest member of the two periods was in his early fifties, while the average age of the four participants was just shy of 48 years old. Each had changed the direction of their careers because they had found another branch of the profession that better reflected their current needs and wants, which is consistent with a study of 73 mid-life changers in which 48% of the sample cited the motivation for change being “a better fit of values and work” and the opportunity for “more meaningful work” (Thomas 1980, p. 177). Thomas (1980) suggests that a career could be

considered to have changed when there was a discontinuity with a former career, even minor, so requiring additional training and conversely that a career adjustment would be a better description when no further training was necessary.

Steve, from the compulsory period, had negotiated several career adjustments relying heavily on his initial education and had not engaged in any formal CPD although he alluded to some informal learning:

“I read a few books now and then and I’d like to do it [CPD] but its takes too much time and is too expensive. Anyway I have plenty of experience and there really is nothing new, we still hold the club and swing the same way now don’t we?” - (Steve: compulsory period, 12.04.09).

Barry, from the consolidation period, had made a significant career change moving from an employed operational role to a self-employed management role and, although he expressed the importance of staff training for his team, he was not particularly engaged in any further learning. Barry felt that the PGA had got the CPD programme fundamentally wrong:

“What they are trying to do is right, but I think they are going about it in completely the wrong way.....I think you have to force the price down....to try to drive education” - (Barry: consolidation period, 07.11.09).

From the compulsory and consolidation periods, David was the only one who made a point of regularly attending CPD although he was concerned about the quality of some presenters:

“Some of the sessions are better than others...sometimes the speakers are really good and knowledgeable, but some just don't know enough, [and] that is when it is disappointing, to waste a full day when I could be teaching” - (David: consolidation period, 24.05.09).

There was a noticeable change in attitude to CPD with research participants in the last two periods. Three individuals were firmly committed to formal learning and the other was working diligently to improve his competence in an informal manner. As could be expected, participants in both the development and academy periods were the youngest golf professionals of the overall sample with the most recent graduate to the profession having four years as a fully qualified professional. Only Terry gave the impression that he had now scaled the heights of his ambition and was unlikely to change career path significantly having enjoyed a period of career exploration. Traditionally career exploration has been considered to be the gathering of occupational knowledge relevant to one or more possible career paths and, as such, has excluded to a large extent the reflective practice of learning of oneself. It was clear however that although Terry had experimented with several branches of the profession, specifically playing, coaching and administration, he also had spent time learning about himself, his wants, needs and interests:

“I enjoy my teaching and it is something that I think I am good at....I make sure that I keep up to date with new ideas, read books, search the internet and go to watch top teachers when they come to tournaments nearby. I have spent a lot of time watching pretty much all the best teachers in the game and I have also spoken with quite a few” - (Terry: development period, 13.07.10).

Super (1963) considered that it was primarily during adolescence or at least young adulthood that the process of career exploration took place. It is worth noting that career exploration is not confined to only the younger demographic but in reality one can expect that any change in career will likely be preceded by at least a period of exploration (Phillips, 1982). It is however more common in the early stages of career exploration that the adolescent will likely be exposed to a variety of career options, learn about potentially satisfying occupations and discover more about themselves. This certainly was the case with Jack, Graham and James all of whom had clearly identified a career pathway based on the exploration of opportunities open to them. With the benefit of insights from their exploration each was more able to choose the most appropriate education / training to improve their skills and make their aspirations a reality:

“The advanced diploma [is] the ideal programme for my preparation [for a golf director position]....I have been to a few business courses locally and with the PGA and I have learned quite a bit about budgets, financial stuff and profit sheets” - (Jack: development period, 04.02.10).

“I think by linking up with the University of Birmingham, the training programme has modernised massively....then what they do after basic training with the CPD is great. I have done loads of extra learning over the years....I would like to see myself as a director of golf or general manager of a club somewhere.” - (Graham: academy period, 06.08.10).

“Some of the business [seminars] are good. There is a lot of business and golf operational information that I have access to through my boss. He....involves me in quite a lot of the meetings...so it is great for me to learn. I will probably move into that part of the business in the next few months.” - (James: academy period, 01.08.10).

#### 4.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This discussion section linked findings from the study to the theoretical frameworks identified within the literature review and explored the four emerging themes of life / career planning; persons of influence, the effect of luck and the suitability of initial and continuing training as identified through the research participant’s narrative. This section is the researcher’s interpretation of the data provided and recognises that it should be considered merely as a snapshot unique to the time of writing.

## **CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER**

The final chapter reflects upon the findings from this study, highlights the boundaries in which the research took place and the limits to which the findings may be considered. Finally, the chapter will offer suggestions for the potential direction of future research.

### **5.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS**

There was compelling evidence revealed in the study that the ‘community of practice’ into which the research participants were initially immersed helped shape their future careers. The research participants did not live in a vacuum and as they entered a new workplace community, it was necessary to negotiate their situation by employing a range of skills from other communities to which they had belonged. This is consistent with the literature focused on ‘communities of practice’ which reveals that individuals are likely to be engaged in multiple communities (Wenger, 1998). As a result of the findings’ the importance of the first position, perhaps more accurately the first ‘master’ [employer], should not be underestimated, and offers an opportunity for further research. As the sample for this study had all successfully negotiated a period of at least seven years in the profession, there is an opportunity for future research into those who had entered the profession only to exit in the short to medium term. Such a study will potentially reveal differences between those who shape a career from within the golf profession and those who disengage to follow a different career path.

The changing nature of roles occupied by PGA professionals, together with the skills and competencies required to take advantage of such, is an area which would benefit from



further research. Compromise for this sample of golf professionals had become the norm, with each entering the profession to carve out a career in competitive golf only to change in favour of a career that served the game and its participants. Chen (2004) suggests that one of the tenants of successful career transition is 'positive compromise' and highlights the importance of making effective and timely adjustments to career trajectory. Within a fast changing vocational environment, the majority of research participants demonstrated a degree of flexibility, allowing for the transfer of underpinning skills and for all but two, well developed self efficacy, which in turn allowed for negotiation of their aspirations. All research participants chose to compromise, diverting their career trajectories to embrace more practical / realistic objectives. It is worthy of future research to consider the possibility that the ability to compromise and self-reflect may prove to be a desirable characteristic for a career in the golf profession.

The findings reveal that it has become progressively more important to be well trained to take advantage of an ever increasing number of occupations open to newly qualified PGA professionals and further enhancements to the elements surrounding career planning within the PGA's education programme would therefore positively benefit new professionals. There was already a noticeable difference in the attitude of research participants from the development period onwards, and it was clear that they had given more thought to career progression while having greater engagement with the CPD programme than those in the earlier periods.

The effect of luck / chance,-especially that which is beyond the control of an individual should not be minimised. Several research participants pointed to one or more lucky breaks from which either they adjusted / changed pathways or progressed at a faster

pace. According to Nagel (1979) success and failure contain factors beyond the individual's control. The element of luck both in gaining an initial position within the profession and subsequent changes should not be overlooked. It would seem that in the golf sector the 'dropping' of a well known name, [professional or club] can result in a positive effect. Certainly, each research participant had, at one time or another, been employed by an admired professional or had been at a well respected club. Several research participants leveraged this 'calling card' which potentially opened doors through which the individual walked, after which they had to demonstrate competence. Andre (1983, p. 202) when paraphrasing Nagel and Williams, states "we evaluate actions and agents partly on the basis of circumstances beyond the agents control". For example just because John was a good player, it did not necessarily mean that he would be a good coach. There were several other illustrations where success in one role was deemed to be a precursor to success in another associated - but different - occupational role.

### 5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The focus of this research was to examine the career trajectories of a sample of PGA golf professionals. The use of retrospective life history methods from an exploratory inductive perspective, allowed the researcher to gain a snapshot of each research participant's career, learning from their perceptions of pivotal moments, career decisions and the impact of both influential people and matters of chance. Since a qualitative stance was adopted using a purposive sample of ten research participants, it is not possible to generalise the findings of this study. Amis (2005) advises the use of individuals well placed to offer rich meaningful

data and, as this sample fitted that criteria and was typical of PGA professionals, it could be considered good practice.

#### 5.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Although the traditional golf professional role still exists, the diversity of occupations for golf professionals is greater than during any other time in the PGA's history. The ever changing workplace in which the golf professional resides requires a more flexible approach to the development of a career. The set of base level skills of aspiring professionals must therefore be transferable and include soft skills such as communication, reflection, flexibility and so on. This thesis has merely touched on some of the key issues around engagement with the profession through apprenticeship and career development / construction. Since the inception of the PGA training programme the landscape has changed and "a new generation of those who see golf as an arena for a wide variety of talents is emerging. They do not see club professionals as failed tournament players" (Holt et al., p 204).

#### 5.5 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

The chapter summarised the limitations of this study and noted the methodology used to gather and analyse data from which the findings and conclusion have been drawn. Suggestions for the potential direction of future research have been made and the researcher's concluding remarks close this thesis.

## **CHAPTER 6: APPENDICES**

### **6.1 APPENDIX A: VIGNETTES OF THE SAMPLE**

#### **6.1.1 John - voluntary period**

John was introduced to the game by his father. He became an assistant at his local club where he stayed for four years before moving on to a job which allowed him to play more. John then joined the European Tour where he competed for more than ten years before taking on various roles as head / teaching professional. John's present club has not been supportive of his efforts to play the Seniors Tour which is a great disappointment to him, as he considers competing to be the pinnacle of the profession.

#### **6.1.2 Fred - voluntary period**

Fred was introduced to golf by a friend who played at the local golf club and quickly became besotted with the sport. Following national service he joined the profession at one of the most prestigious clubs in the locality. His personal skills made him an instant hit with the members and it was through one of them that he received his first opportunity to take a club professionals post. Fred remained in the club professional world for almost 30 years, plying his trade and gaining an international reputation for his coaching ability.

#### 6.1.3 Ian - compulsory period

Ian was encouraged to play golf by a teacher at his school, who suggested that he try golf during the school holidays. This turned out to be the start of a friendship with the professional who later offered him an apprenticeship. After graduating he was encouraged by his employer's wife to apply for another position, which he secured before moving on to his present post which is at a prestigious club. Ian feels that he has been at the club for too long and that he probably missed the opportunity to move a few years ago. Ian broods on some of the retainers and packages that neighbouring professionals receive.

#### 6.1.4 Steve - compulsory period

Steve started to play golf at the local municipal course when he was 11 years of age and was keen to join the profession from the very beginning, with a friend [the assistant professional] being his role model. He became a Saturday boy in the golf shop and worked part-time during holidays. Steve turned professional staying at the same club throughout his apprenticeship and, on qualifying, left to take up the position of club professional at a private club in the locality where he stayed for five years. He then moved geographical region and joined a club where he enjoyed good financial success. He took four years out of the profession to explore other interests, only to return to a coaching position at a private club.

#### 6.1.5 David - consolidation period

David's father was an athlete who experimented with golf in his spare time. Although David wanted to follow in his father's footsteps he did not have the physical tools to be able to compete to a sufficiently high standard. Keen to encourage his son to play more sport they joined a local golf club where there was a thriving junior section. At the age of 18, David joined the PGA and after graduating became a member of the European Tour. After just a few years and with a growing reluctance to travel he came off the tour and has been the club professional at two different clubs near to where he first started to play. He has become a well respected club professional with a strong reputation for his coaching and still plays competitively on the regional circuit.

#### 6.1.6 Barry - consolidation period

Barry found a set of clubs in his Dad's garden shed and so started his interest in the game which eventually led him on to the local golf club, membership and an apprenticeship. Barry had decided to go to college and was having a year off when the opportunity to become an assistant was presented. Even though he had been playing for over a decade, his handicap was too high to turn professional, but with a greater focus on the playing standard he reached the necessary level. Barry worked for two different employers in his apprentice period and once qualified he quickly found himself holding good positions as he worked through a series of promotions before eventually deciding to start his own company in the golf sector.

#### 6.1.7 Jack - development period

Jack's grandfather introduced him to the game, and from the beginning he dreamt about being a professional golfer. To overcome resistance from his family, he negotiated a plan that would allow him to pursue the profession on the proviso that if it did not work out he would return to learning. Jack became an assistant at a private club and classifies the then head assistant as one of his closest friends and chief mentor. On qualification, Jack took a job abroad and has subsequently held good positions in three different countries. Jack is now more involved in the administrative side of the game and is looking to achieve a golf director or General Manager role soon.

#### 6.1.8 Terry - development period

Terry had been a good amateur player, receiving international honours and his only objective was to make a living from playing the game. A visit to the Open Championship gave him the 'nudge' needed for him to turn professional and for a few years he played the national tour with minimal success. A phone call to ask a friend to go on holiday changed the course of Terry's career as he made a move away from playing into more of a teaching / administration role. Terry stayed closely to that pathway and after several different posts now sees himself as a full-time coach.

#### 6.1.9 Graham - academy period

Graham had wanted to join the profession from school, but met with resistance from his parents. His knowledge of the profession had come from living in a household where golf was a major factor, to which he added the experience of two summers working in golf for a friend of his fathers. Graham's first full-time role was at a resort facility where he had the opportunity to learn from his line supervisors and more experienced professionals who worked in the team. Progression through the ranks at the resort to a management position preceded a move to a private member's club. The move was part of a planned approach to his career development.

#### 6.1.10 James - academy period

James came from a golfing family. A father who played regularly and an older brother, who played at county level, ensured that he was exposed to the game at an early age. By the age of nine he was a golf club member and his first ambition was to follow in his brother's footsteps. James did some part-time work in the club shop and took his father's advice to join the PGA training programme so that, if he did not make it as a player, he would at least have a fall back. His training took place at two different clubs and he is now holding down a teaching post at another.



## 6.2 APPENDIX B: SUBJECT INFORMATION SHEET

### **Purpose of Research**

The career paths of PGA members are wide and varied. The focus of this study is to investigate how golf professionals initially and subsequently chose their career paths.

### **Procedure**

You will have received along with this Subject Information Sheet a short questionnaire designed to gather some basic career background and personal information. Participants will be randomly chosen for the next stage. If you are chosen you will be contacted to arrange a suitable date, time and venue for a personal interview which will be conducted by researcher Tony Bennett under the guidance of Dr Martin Toms of Birmingham University. It is likely that the interview will take around one hour. Following transcription of your interview you may be contacted to clarify specific points or to confirm your previous remarks.

### **Anonymity**

In order to protect your right to privacy every effort will be made to ensure that your identity will be non-traceable. Information (data) gathered from the questionnaire and interview will be kept anonymous and non-traceable with your true identity known only to myself and my supervisor<sup>1</sup>. The data will be held on a password protected computer.

**Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time.**

Contact details of the researcher:

Name: Tony Bennett

Postal: [REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]

E- Mail: [REDACTED]

Tel: [REDACTED]

Contact details of the researcher's supervisor:

Name: Dr Martin Toms

Postal: University of Birmingham  
Edgbaston  
Birmingham  
B15 2TT  
United Kingdom

E- Mail: [m.r.toms@bham.ac.uk](mailto:m.r.toms@bham.ac.uk)

Tel: +44 (0)121 415 8392.

### 6.3 APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

Dear Golf Professional

My name is Tony Bennett. I am a post-graduate student of the School of Education at Birmingham University. As part of my studies I am conducting research on how PGA professionals initially and subsequently chose their career paths.

This letter asks for your participation which will require the completion of a short questionnaire designed to gather some basic career and personal background information. From the returned questionnaires, a number of respondents will be randomly selected and asked to take part in a personal interview.

At this stage it is important to stress that your participation is entirely voluntary, you are free to refuse to answer any question and able to withdraw from the study at any time.

Information (data) gathered from the questionnaire and interview will be kept anonymous and non-traceable, with your true identity known only to myself and my supervisor<sup>1</sup>. The data will be held on a password-protected computer.

If you accept to be part of this study, having read the information above, then please sign, return this form and keep a copy for yourself.

\_\_\_\_\_ (signed) \_\_\_\_\_ (print) \_\_\_\_\_ (date)

Note 1. The supervisor for this research is Dr Martin Toms of Birmingham University who may be contacted should you have any concerns or questions regarding this study.

Name: Dr Martin Toms

Postal: University of Birmingham  
Edgbaston  
Birmingham  
B15 2TT  
United Kingdom

E- Mail: m.r.toms@bham.ac.uk

Tel: +44 (0)121 415 8392

## 6.4 APPENDIX D: SELF-COMPLETION QUESTIONNAIRE

### Personal and Career Background Information

Some facts about you.

1. Gender: (please tick one)    Male         Female

2. Date of Birth: \_\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_\_

#### **Some details of your professional career.**

3. Handicap immediately prior to turning professional:\_\_\_\_\_

4. Date or year of turning professional:\_\_\_\_\_

5. Are you a full member of the Professional Golfers Association?    Yes     No

6. Date or year of qualifying for full professional membership:\_\_\_\_\_

7. Did you attend the PGA professional training programme?        Yes     No

8. If you did attend training, in what year did you commence the programme?\_\_\_\_\_

#### **Some details of your professional work.**

There are a number of career paths that golf professionals may follow. For the purpose of this research the following four specific career paths have been identified:

- A. Playing Professional.
- B. Club Professional duties.
- C. Coaching / teaching duties.
- D. Administrative / management

When completing the next part of this questionnaire please indicate which of the above best represents the **main** duties of your work for each individual entry.

9. Please list your current and any previous professional positions that you have held during your career, with the most recent position first.

Example:

Year	Position	Venue	Main Duty
1977-1980	Assistant professional	Park GC	B
1981-1986	Club professional	Motors GC	B
1986-1997	Head professional	Market Town GC	B/C
1997-2003	Golf Director	The National club	D/C
2003-2007	Head coach	The Academy	C

Year	Position	Venue	Main Duty

**Your contact details.**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Telephone / Mobile: \_\_\_\_\_

E-Mail: \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for taking the time to complete the above questionnaire. In the attached subject information sheet and consent form, there is a statement which confirms that you can be assured of anonymity.

At this stage it is important to stress that your participation is entirely voluntary, you are free to refuse to answer any question and able to withdraw from the study at any time.

## 6.5 APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW SCRIPT

### **Preparation:**

Be ten minutes early for the interview.

Have two pens and notebook available.

Ensure that the recorder has new batteries, is positioned correctly and has volume turned up.

Ensure that the area for the interview is clear from distractions, telephone, etc. The area should be private.

- Ask the subject for permission to take a recording and field notes from the interview.
- Read the following statement to subject prior to commencing the interview

“In order to protect your right to privacy every effort will be made to ensure that your identity will be non-traceable. Information gathered from this interview will be kept anonymous and non-traceable with your true identity known only to myself and my supervisor. The data will be held on a password-protected computer”.

**Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any time.**

### Interview Script

1. Did any members of your family play or practice golf before you started to play?

**If YES ensure that you gain details of:**

- **Who it was.**
- **Where they played or practised.**
- **If they were a golf club member.**
- **The relative location of the club to where they lived.**

**If NO ensure that you gain details of:**

- **What it was that aroused their interest in the game.**
- **How they had their first physical contact with the game.**

2. As an amateur golfer did you have any ambitions or aspirations in golf?

**If YES ensure that you gain details of:**

- **What those aspirations were.**
- **What it was that helped form those aspirations.**
- **Were the aspirations self-directed and formulated:**
- **Was anyone else involved in the decision making process.**

**If NO ensure that you gain details of:**

- **What factors kept them in the game.**

3. You turned professional in (*insert the year from self completion questionnaire*)\_\_\_\_\_. Did anything happen to prompt you to turn professional?

**Ensure that you gain details of:**

- **What were the driving forces behind that decision.**
- **Did they receive any kind of career advice.**
- **Did they have any kind of advice offered by family, friends or other individuals.**
- **What their initial interest in turning professional was.**

4. Your first position in professional golf was (*insert the job title and location from self completion questionnaire*). \_\_\_\_\_ . Has this role had any impact on your subsequent career?

**If YES ensure that you gain details of:**

- **How the role has impacted their career to date.**

**If NO ensure that you gain details of:**

- **Why they think that the role has had no impact on their career.**

5. In that role who was the most influential person that you worked with in regards to your training or emersion into the job?
6. What effect, if any, did \_\_\_\_\_ (as they described in question 5) have on your subsequent career choices?

**Ensure that you gain details of:**

- **Who it was.**
- **What effects they had?**
- **What was it about the person or the job that they did that affected them?**
- **Did they have any role models?**
- **What they think the individuals main career focus or interest was?**



7. When you took the position at (*insert the new position from self completion questionnaire*)\_\_\_\_\_, did that have any effect on your career?

**If YES ensure that you gain details of:**

- **How the position has impacted their career to date.**
- **Why they feel there has been an impact on their career.**
- **Any change of direction that may have resulted.**

**If NO ensure that you gain details of:**

- **Why they think that there was no or little impact on their career.**

**7A, 7B, 7C,etc: Repeat this question for subsequent positions.**

8. In the time that you have been involved in golf, what has been your overall impression of the golf profession?

9. What is your opinion of professional education delivered by the PGA?

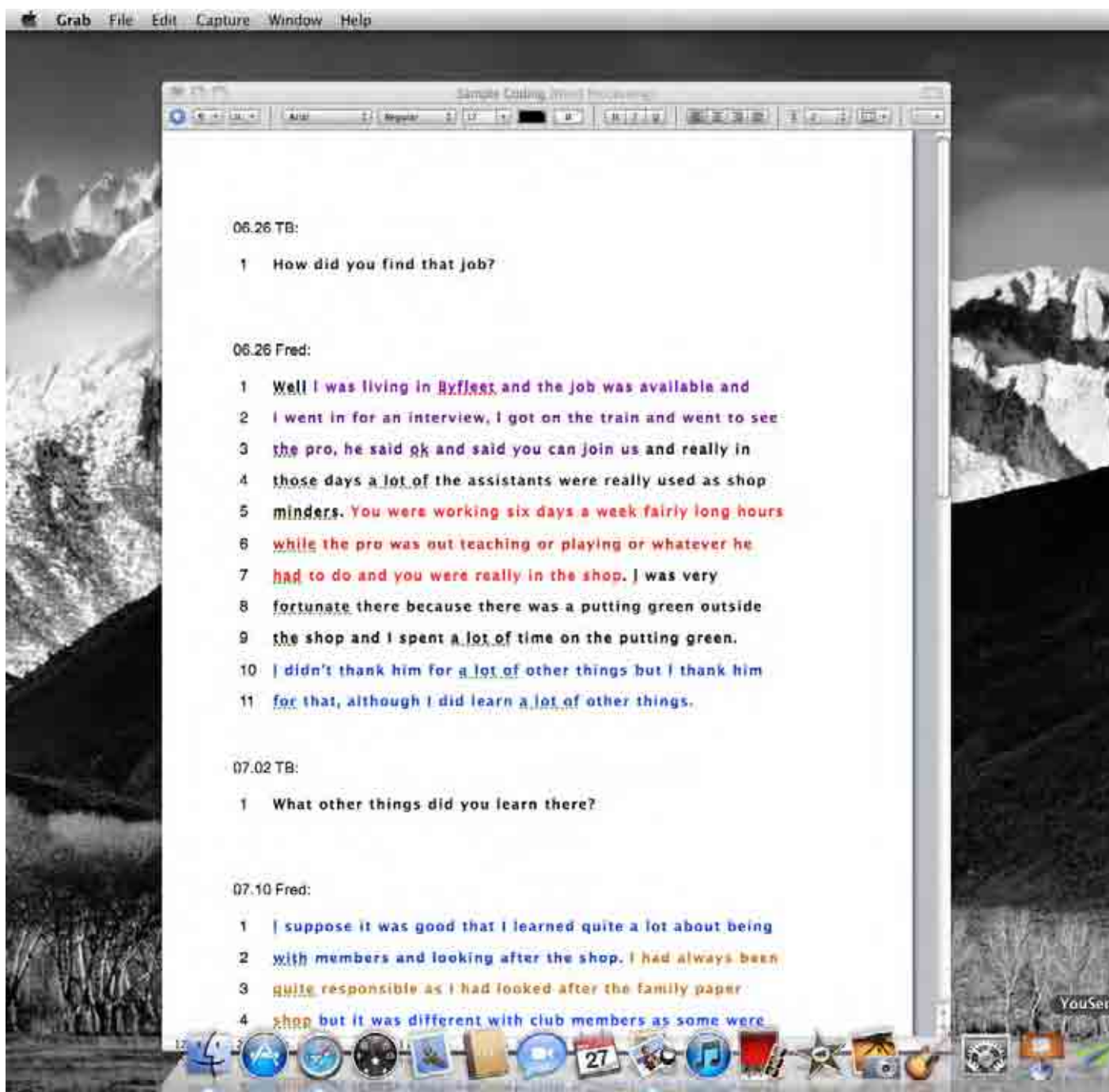
**Ensure that you gain details of:**

- **Have they attended any further education delivered by the PGA?**
- **What type of further education would be of interest to them.**

10. Do you have a view on the role of a PGA professional today compared with the role that a professional had when you first entered the profession?

11. What in your view is the current role of a golf professional?
  
12. In your view what characteristics makes a good golf professional?
  
13. Is there anything else that you would like to add in relation to the development of your career pathway?

## 6.6 APPENDIX F: SAMPLE CODING



## 6.7 APPENDIX G: TAGGED DATA

Influential people	Code	Context	Text
26	FC.20.04 (12-16)	A good teacher	I said to him "Mr Cotton, I am a professional from England Fred Cotton is it possible for me to just watch you teach little while" and he said yes young men come along and so that it was the beginning of quite a good relationship.
30	ST.04.47 (16-23)	Second boss	getting a teaching position as a head assistant in another county under a fellow called Gary Spraxe and he wasn't a good golfer. Sadly, he unfortunately died a couple of years ago, but I was inspired by Gary. He was a very good player, probably in hindsight, he didn't help me with my golf as much as perhaps he should have, but that's no detriment to him because he was so wrapped up in his own game and he carried a lot of respect and so I learnt a lot.
31	EP.02.09 (3-5)	First boss	was with John Caygill where I learned everything that there was to know about golf. John was a very good teacher and he had me as a sort of playing assistant.
32	EP.02.09 (10-12)	Club members	the members always used to have a whip round when I was going to a competition and that covered my expenses.

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