Human resources, the dilemmas of education and training, strategies and practice with focus on the Pacific

*If you wish to plan for a year sow seeds*
*If you wish to plan for ten years plant trees*
*If you wish to plan for a lifetime, develop people*
*Kwan Chung Tzu, 7th C BC*

Elizabeth Latham
A thesis submitted for the degree of Masters of Tourism at the University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand
Date: 05 November 2008
Abstract

This research explores human resource issues in the tourism industry within the context of the Pacific with focus on New Zealand and Samoa, analysing the effectiveness of education and training. This is referenced to human resources in both developed and developing countries. The research also investigates the current relationship between industry, government agencies and education and training providers in New Zealand and Samoa and assesses the relevance and currency of education and training provided both off the job and on the job.

Thirty-two interviews were conducted in the field in Samoa and New Zealand with a range of stakeholders relating to tourism and hospitality human resources. Individual, indepth, unstructured interviews allowed for the collection of rich data. Interviews have been chosen to accomplish the aim of gathering qualitative experiential data.

There are a number of common themes in both contexts. There is a poor perception and low status of tourism and hospitality as a career, entry to the industry is easy and many staff have a low basic education. There is poor pay, poor staff retention and transience in and out of the industry. Some employers in both contexts fear that if people are trained they will have expectations of higher pay. Employers believe they cannot afford to pay more so do not invest in training. Skills shortages are also a key feature. In Samoa it is a shortage of people with the right skill set. In New Zealand it is a lack of ability to attract people to the industry.

Both contexts show few trained and experienced supervisors and managers with a lack of clear career paths. This is principally to do with the quality of people entering the industry. In both countries this links with service and product quality and poor management and planning information about human resource matters. Policy and government response is reactive. Developments generally have been ad hoc, uncoordinated and fragmented.

In terms of education and training, ideally there would be a mix of both pre employment and on job training with training for employees in tourism businesses matched to individual business needs. There is a tension between training for industry job roles versus providing an education that prepares people for careers. Currently education and training is focused on skills and knowledge required to do jobs rather than being focused on developing individuals holistically within a career structure.

There is a striking similarity in both countries in the inherent lack of respect for teachers and educators by the industry. This has a flow on effect to the way in which off the job training is valued in general. Communication between industry and training providers has become distant or dysfunctional, however it is also understood that it is important to build better and stronger relationships. This research concludes by stating that there needs to be a more strategic examination of human resources, qualifications reviewed, organisations rationalized, funding mechanisms examined and all parties working more collaboratively to progress human resources for tourism and hospitality.
Acknowledgements

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<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>APTC</td>
<td>Australia Pacific Technical College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATITB</td>
<td>Aviation Travel Industry Training Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTTO</td>
<td>Aviation, Tourism and Travel Training Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHOCHS</td>
<td>Council of Caribbean Hospitality Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFT</td>
<td>Equivalent Full-time Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ExQ</td>
<td>Experiential Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HANZ</td>
<td>Hospitality Association of New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCITB</td>
<td>Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HITO</td>
<td>Hairdressing Industry Training Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSI</td>
<td>Hospitality Standards Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HTTC</td>
<td>Hospitality and Tourism Training Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITO</td>
<td>Industry Training Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITP</td>
<td>Institute of Technology and Polytechnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Modern Apprentice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTO</td>
<td>National Tourism Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUSIHE</td>
<td>National University of Samoa, Institute of Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUS IoT</td>
<td>National University of Samoa, Institute of Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVQ</td>
<td>National Vocational Qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZAID</td>
<td>New Zealand Aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZHC</td>
<td>New Zealand Hotel Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZQA</td>
<td>New Zealand Qualifications Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZITT</td>
<td>New Zealand Institute of Tourism and Travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTE</td>
<td>Private Training Establishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QMS</td>
<td>Quality Management System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBEC</td>
<td>Small Business Enterprise Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFRITO</td>
<td>Sports, Fitness and Recreation Industry Training Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHA</td>
<td>Samoa Hotel Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIS</td>
<td>Small Island State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SITA</td>
<td>Service Industry Training Alliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SME</td>
<td>Small to Medium Enterprise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQA</td>
<td>Samoa Qualifications Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STA</td>
<td>Samoa Tourism Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STM</td>
<td>Standard Training Measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVB</td>
<td>Samoa Visitors Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAFE</td>
<td>Technical and Further Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCSP</td>
<td>Tourism Council of the South Pacific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THC</td>
<td>Tourist Hotel Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIA</td>
<td>Tourism Industry Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSA</td>
<td>Tourism Satellite Account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Tourism Organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1
Introduction to the Thesis

1.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the purpose of the research and provides a brief description of the six chapters of the thesis. It then introduces the two cases that form the basis of the research with information about the tourism industry and human resources for the industry in each location and the education and training for tourism and hospitality.

1.2 Purpose of the research

This research intends to explore human resource issues in the tourism industry within the context of the Pacific with focus on New Zealand and the Pacific Island of Samoa, specifically analysing the effectiveness of tourism education and training. The findings of the research will be referenced to a wider context of human resources in both developed and developing countries. The research will aim to explore the similarities and differences that may emerge and the conclusions that can be reached relating to current human resource management for the tourism industry.

It is apparent that in New Zealand and at an international level there are skills shortages within the industry, problems with seasonality and retention of staff, poor technical skills of staff and poor quality of service. There is also considerable debate about the relevance of education and training and the manner in which training needs are established (Tribe 2004, Pollack and Ritchie 1990). There is a gap between the development of national and regional human resource strategies and the effective implementation of them (Baum 1994). It appears that these issues are also felt within the Pacific Islands and are exacerbated by a lack of adequate human resources to maintain and grow the industry (Burns 1999, Black and King 2002). The New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015 highlights the needs for an appropriately skilled workforce however the steps to gaining this workforce are significant.
1.3 The aim of the research

The research aims to:

- Analyse the current state of the tourism and hospitality industry in terms of human resources, specifically in terms of education and training – using New Zealand and Samoa as examples.
- Investigate the current relationship between industry, government agencies and education and training providers in New Zealand and Samoa.
- Assess the relevance and currency of education and training provided both off the job and on the job.
- Identify barriers to successful human resource development in the industry.
- Make some comparisons with the current human resource issues that face the New Zealand and Samoan tourism industries specifically.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

Chapter 1 introduces the purpose and aims of the research and some of the key questions of the research. It also provides the background context to the current situation in both Samoa and New Zealand in terms of human resource issues and education and training.

Chapter 2, the Literature Review, introduces and defines the tourism and hospitality industries, then looks at the wider human resource issues facing tourism such as tourism policy and planning, labour shortages and skills shortages, the status of the industry, attitudes to tourism, international mobility and immigration, labour markets and international responses to issues. The role of education and training in international tourism is explored with examples provided from Canada, England, Scotland, Australia and Ireland. The New Zealand situation is discussed in more detail. Island states are then examined with specific discussion of the Caribbean, Asia Pacific, the Cook Islands and Samoa.

In Chapter 3 the Methodology for the research is explored. First the essence of the enquiry is established. Ontological and epistemological questions are answered and the purpose of the research is identified. The intellectual puzzle is defined. The methods of data collection and sampling are discussed. The interview process is detailed and participant profiles are outlined. Data management and analysis is described and challenges of the research described.
In Chapter 4, the case of Samoa is explored with findings organised and discussed based on the themes that have emerged in the management and analysis of the data. The findings have been divided into two parts. First, there are findings that relate to the industry in general and the key features that affect industry human resources. Second, there are findings that specifically relate to education and training with a focus on the training offered at the National University of Samoa, Institute of Technology. Each theme is briefly described with quotes from interviewees to provide evidence to illustrate each theme. Each section has a concluding section which links the findings back to the literature.

In Chapter 5, the case of New Zealand is explored with findings organised and discussed as in Chapter 4. The findings have been divided into two parts. First, there are findings that relate to the industry in general and the key features that affect industry human resources. The findings in this section have been grouped into four categories: industry characteristics, attributes of staff, attributes of owners and managers and a licence to operate. Second, there are findings that specifically relate to education and training. The findings in this section have been grouped into three categories: general issues relating to education and training, pre employment training or off the job training and on the job training. As with Chapter 4, each section has a concluding section which links the findings back to the literature.

In Chapter 6, the overall conclusions of the research incorporate all the findings from Chapters 2, 4 and 5 to reach overarching conclusions that identify the key salient points of the research relating to both developed and developing country contexts with reference back to the intellectual puzzle that guides the research.

1.5 The case of Samoa

1.5.1 The tourism industry and its place in the economy of Samoa

Independent Samoa consists of two main volcanic islands, Upolo and Savaii, located 13° south of the equator in the Pacific Ocean with seven smaller islands making up the Samoan archipelago (see Figure 1). Samoa lies just west of the international dateline making it the last country in the world to see the sun each day. There are 185,000 people living in Samoa. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Samoa 2005). Apia, the capital city and the only town of any size, has a population of around 35,000 and is located on the island of Upolo. Approximately 45,000 people live on the other main island of Savaii. Samoa’s economy is based on agricultural production, fishing, tourism and remittances from families living abroad. There are more Samoans living outside of Samoa than within the country. In September 2007 Samoa was graduated from the least developed country status by the United
Nations General Assembly. This follows on from the major economic transformation that has occurred in the past decade, resulting in an annual average Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate of 3 percent; ‘The latest economic transformation has been driven by recent innovations in airline transportation and telecommunications that provides a solid platform for rapid economic growth in tourism, commerce and financial services sectors’ (Vaai 2007).

Figure 1: Samoa map

In the list of industries that are significant contributors to the economy, tourism is not identified as an industry in its own right. Hotels and restaurants are identified as a sector with 2.7% contribution to real GDP. The remainder of tourism activity is identified within other industry groupings such as transportation. This lack of recognition of the tourism industry as a collective industry in its own right is reflective of a similar trend in New Zealand that only changed with the creation of the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) which was designed to measure the financial benefit of tourism receipts to the country. Samoa is clearly not at that point yet. Brocx (2008) highlights the dilemma of whether tourism is an industry or a consumption group. She maintains tourism ‘overlaps a number of industries and is a combination of partial outputs of many industries’ (Brocx 2008, p11).

Significant developments in Samoa in the last 3 decades include the expansion of Faleolo International Airport in 1983 and in 1984 the Visitor Bureau Act was passed establishing the Samoa Visitors Bureau - a statutory corporation responsible for marketing, development, tourist information and liaison with industry and government now renamed Samoan
Tourism Authority (STA). There have also been a number of tourism plans written to develop tourism in Samoa. In 1984 a tourism master plan was written funded by United Nations Development Project (UNDP)/World Tourism Organisation (WTO). A subsequent plan, the 1992-2001 Western Samoa Tourism Development Plan was created with assistance from the Tourism Council of the South Pacific. Later the Samoa Tourism Development Plan 2002-2006, funded by NZAID, shows a number of initiatives, funded by international aid agencies. Major impacts on Samoa in the 1990’s were the economic recession in Australia and NZ, cyclones, taro blight and crisis for Polynesian Airlines. The 2002-2006 Development Plan attributes tourism as contributing 7-12% to GDP. This represents more than either agriculture or remittances.

Tourism arrivals increased from 48,000 in 1990 to 68,000 in 1997. Total visitor numbers for the three years 2003-2006 show the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>98,155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>101,807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>115,882</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(STA 2007)

There was approximately 13 percent growth from 2005-2006. This represents significant annual growth. However the growth rate from 2001-2006 shows about 5 percent growth per year which is still higher than the average for the Oceania region of around 3 percent.

New Zealand, American Samoa and Australia are the major inbound markets for Samoa with 80 percent of total visitors in 2006 coming from these three markets (STA 2007). Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) has always been hugely important in terms of visitor flows, given that more Samoans live outside Samoa, however in recent years the gap between VFR and holiday visitors has reduced considerably with only 3,100 less holiday arrivals in 2006 than VFR. In 2007 there were seventy-two properties listed as members of the Samoa Hotel Association (SHA) with 1,339 employees registered across these properties (SHA). The SHA divides properties into budget, medium and top end. The majority of staff are employed in top end properties.

There are a wide range of visitor attractions available ranging from surfing, diving, kayaking, trekking, fishing and windsurfing. Many of these activities are family operated businesses that do not employ additional staff. The Samoan Tourism Development Plan 2002-2006 estimated that there would be approximately 300 staff involved in travel and tourism operations, activities operations, airlines, car rentals, beach fale accommodation (traditional Samoan houses with thatched roof and open sides), attraction sites and
handicrafts in 2006 at the high end of growth predictions. Tourism activity is mostly centred around resorts, many of them quite small in size. The majority of commercial tourism activity takes place in Upolo with all businesses in Savaii being small enterprises.

Further information on Samoa can be found in Section 2.5.4.

### 1.5.2 Education and training in Samoa

There are a variety of significant issues that are facing the tourism industry in terms of education and training. There has been ad hoc training relating to tourism through a number of agencies since the 1980’s. Samoa Business Enterprise Centre (SBEC) offered courses in Tautua Samoa (Serving Samoa), The University of the South Pacific offered extension courses in tourism, the Samoa Polytechnic commenced a Diploma in Tourism in 1995, and trainers came to Samoa through the 1990’s from Tourism Council of the South Pacific (TCSP) to offer short courses organized by the Samoa Visitors Bureau (SVB), designed to be delivered on the job, mostly in the area of front of house hospitality skills. This training was only offered once a year and whilst Polynesian in focus it was not Samoa specific. In 1994 village training began in Tourism Awareness to show people in the village the value of tourism to the economy (Burger 1996).

In the mid 1990’s a joint initiative of the New Zealand and Australian governments commenced to upskill the youth of Samoa and to strengthen Samoa Polytechnic in a range of different disciplines. One of these areas of development was catering and hospitality. I was employed as a consultant for Polytechnics International to develop hospitality programmes within the project on behalf of NZAID. This project commenced in 1997 and was completed in 2001. The initial objectives relating to hospitality within the master plan of the project were very minimalist and related only to the delivery of short courses. After a needs analysis of the industry, at the time, it was evident that there were far greater requirements for training than the project master plan had identified and the objectives were subsequently significantly enlarged.

Within the five year period, 1997-2001, there were a number of achievements. Chef training facilities were created in a simulated commercial kitchen, a restaurant space was also created and a house converted to teach reception and housekeeping skills. These facilities were equipped with commercial equipment that reflected current industry practice in the Oceania area including New Zealand and Australia. Curriculum was developed and processed through the quality management system (QMS) of the Polytechnic. The QMS was simultaneously being created for the institute as part of the NZAID project. Programmes
were written at Level 2-4 (of the New Zealand Qualifications Framework (NQF). A Certificate in Tourism and Hospitality with strands in Cookery, Food and Beverage, Front Office and Housekeeping was developed that contained practical technical skills training plus a component of core skills required for a career in the industry. This included tourism awareness, industry knowledge, customer communications, English and computer skills. These skills were seen as essential prerequisites in the western context of commercial hospitality. In addition a Certificate in Tour Guiding was also developed with a training manual to support the learning and assessment of the programme. This manual was funded by NZAID with the purpose of providing trained tour guides for the industry. This was seen as a key area for development of tourism in Samoa.

The content was modeled on an international curriculum relating to training in these fields. This was seen as a positive step to ensure that the learning was at the same level as that found in a developed country context. For example the cookery curriculum was based on International City and Guilds. There was discussion with the management of Samoa Polytechnic at that time that they may apply to City and Guilds for accreditation to award this international certification.

A number of staff were hired and received professional development and teacher training both in Samoa and in New Zealand. The programme co-ordinator was a key staff member and then other staff were hired to teach cookery, food and beverage, housekeeping and front office and tour guiding. There were significant difficulties in being able to find suitably qualified staff to teach in the area of tourism and hospitality who had both the industry background and relevant qualifications. The pool of suitable people was extremely small and the project was very fortunate in being able to hire a programme co-ordinator who was Samoan and had many years working in hospitality in Australia. She had excellent leadership and organisational skills and contacts in industry and within other relevant agencies in Samoa. It was not easy to fill the other teaching positions with suitable staff and this remained the most significant risk at the time of the project. There was also the risk of the programme co-ordinator not remaining in her job and the likely difficulty in finding a replacement for her.

After the completion of the project in 2001, the New Zealand and Australian aid donors left and the Polytechnic was left to its own devices to ensure the ongoing quality delivery of their programmes. Over the next few years a number of key developments occurred. First the programme co-ordinator resigned, then in 2006 new facilities were opened for the institute funded by the Japanese government. Figure 2 shows the plaque noting the donation of the Japanese people.
This included new buildings for tourism and hospitality (see Figure 3). In the same year the Polytechnic merged with the National University of Samoa to form two institutes, the Institute of Higher Education (IHE) and the Institute of Technology (IoT). The IHE was the old university and IoT was the old Polytechnic. The two institutes are located adjacent to each other on a sloping hillside with the building of the IHE above and the buildings of the IoT below, now spread out as a continuous campus (see Figure 4 for the layout of the campus).
Since the original purchase of equipment in the NZAID project around 1999-2000 there has been no replacement of major equipment items or computer software and although the Japanese government created new buildings, they did not provide new equipment. A considerable amount of the equipment has been broken, lost or has worn out in this time. The original curriculum is still being used in all of the programmes on offer although it is proposed to fully review that curriculum for the first time in 2008. The school trains approximately fifty students a year in the tourism and hospitality programmes. No record has been kept by the university of employment outcomes of graduates from their tourism and hospitality programmes. Table 1 shows graduates from NUS IoT in both the Certificate in Tourism and Hospitality and the Diploma in Business (Tourism) from 2002-2007.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Graduates Certificate T&amp;H</th>
<th>Graduates Diploma B&amp;T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NUS 2008

The latest development is the introduction to Samoa, of Australia Pacific Technical College (APTC). This Australian initiative will invest more than $15 million over 5 years into the Pacific, partly to ensure that people entering Australia have the skills to contribute to
industries in Australia that are currently experiencing a skills shortage. The following explanation is given in the promotional material relating to the APTC; ‘This is an Australian government initiative that will deliver Australian standard qualifications with the aim of skilling and qualifying Pacific Islanders for a range of occupations throughout the Pacific Region’ (APTC promotion brochure 2007).

The APTC will have training centres in Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Vanuatu and Fiji. They have selected those islands that have existing facilities that can be used by them. APTC will then provide the additional equipment needed to ensure that the Australian qualifications can be delivered to the standard required. The programmes will only be offered by Australian trainers. Their brochure goes on to say; ‘The APTC School of Tourism and Hospitality is a centre of Training Excellence aimed at training Pacific Islanders for a growing range of occupations in Hospitality and Tourism throughout the Pacific. It has campuses in Fiji, Samoa and Vanuatu offering a wide range of vocational courses in areas such as cookery, patisserie, baking, pasty, cooking, hospitality supervision, tourism operations and hairdressing. It will not duplicate or compete with programs already available but will complement those courses by adding a new dimension and value to existing qualifications. Training will be delivered by Australian registered training organisations in partnership with Pacific training organisations’ (APTC promotion brochure 2007).

The first training programme in Samoa was scheduled to begin in early 2008. At the time of the field work the first staff person had arrived and negotiations were under way with NUS IoT for purchase of new equipment to update the facilities and vigorous marketing of the courses was occurring with industry.
1.6 The case of New Zealand

Figure 5: New Zealand map

Source: Jacaranda Atlas of The Pacific Islands
1.6.1 State of the industry in relation to human resources

Tourism in New Zealand and most other parts of the world is made up of many different sectors. Tourism in New Zealand is the largest contributor to foreign exchange and the industry directly employs about 5% of the New Zealand workforce with a further 5% in indirect employment (TSA 2007).

Jobs within the industry are varied, the common factor in almost all sectors, are jobs that have direct contact with customers. All direct providers have front line service roles: transportation, accommodation and hospitality, attractions and activities and sales distribution. All of these front line service roles are characterized by relatively low pay to start. Some jobs such as adventure tourism guides, travel agents and flight attendants will quite quickly increase their rates of pay based on qualifications and experience.

Developments in education and training in New Zealand are also the result of the dramatic growth in tourism that occurred through the 1980’s and 1990’s with annual growth rates in double numbers on a number of years (for example, 1984-1988 13% per annum, 1993-1994 14% per annum, Collier 1999). This growth in international visitor numbers to New Zealand facilitated a much greater awareness of the industry and the possibility for jobs and careers began to emerge. Also in some sectors of the industry, regulations such as the Civil Aviation (Passenger Agents’ Commission Regime) Notice 1983, meant that travel agents were required to be members of NZITT or hold the Advanced Certificate in Travel Competency. One member of an agency must hold this qualification and one other must be working towards the qualification or the agency will not be able to receive commission on the sale of international travel (Collier 1999). This training is mandated by legislative and regulatory requirements. These sectors also have clear career paths and the labour market characteristics are relatively strong. Other sectors, such as hospitality, have weak labour market characteristics and minimal requirements for pre employment training, particularly for front line customer service roles. This variation in practice makes it difficult to generalise about the state of the wider industry.

The industry is characterized as being an environment with varied and often ad hoc human resource practices. These practices are discussed in detail in the following chapters. This ad hocism as discussed by Baum and Kokkranikal (2005) is said to come about because industry leaders are essentially ambivalent about investment and planning to do with people. This is exacerbated by the vast number of support organisations involved in the industry. It is hard to see through the clutter and be clear of the positive impact of so many organisations with such a vested interest in specific sectors of the industry.
New Zealand tourism is currently characterized by the following features in the labour market: unemployment at very low levels, a rise in labour to full utilization levels, tourism specific skills shortages, demographic changes in the NZ workforce with baby boomers leaving the workforce, significant tourism volume growth had been possible through relatively cheap labour being available. In the current labour market workers will flow to the most productive areas of the economy; in other words those that pay higher wages (MoT 2007).

1.6.2 The New Zealand tourism and hospitality education and training scene

New Zealand followed other countries with the development of education and training relating to tourism and hospitality during the 1980’s. By the mid 1980’s there were a few hospitality programmes on offer in Polytechnics, generally in the area of hotel management or cookery. Both international (City and Guilds) and national (HCITB 75 series) courses were on offer for chef training and an apprenticeship scheme for the delivery of cookery training was the popular mode of delivery with block courses off the job and the remainder of training occurring in the workplace. There were also hospitality certificates in food and beverage service and front office and reception skills (HCITB 82 series). There were no national programmes in tourism available at this time. Some Polytechnics were involved in local tourism training with national qualifications also available for the travel sector through the Aviation Travel Industry Training Board (ATITB). There were no degree programmes in tourism in the 1980’s, but specific institutes offered hotel management diplomas to support hotel chains such as the government owned Tourist Hotel Corporation (THC) chain.

Through the 1990’s there was a dramatic proliferation of tourism and hospitality education and training, partly through the creation of Industry Training Organisations (ITO), through the Industry Training Act 1992, the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) and the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). This was the first time that there was an attempt at a comprehensive framework placed around training, and a centralized approach to development of qualifications, that training providers around the country could access. Until this stage there was a fragmented and individualistic approach to qualification development with no overarching quality assurance relating to programme development or delivery. Three industry training organisations were created that had a relationship with the tourism, hospitality and leisure industries: the Aviation Tourism Travel Training Organisation (ATTTO), Hospitality Standards Institute (HSI) and Sports Fitness Recreation Industry Training Organisation (SFRITO).
ITO activities are to set national skills standards to be registered on the NQF, to ensure training is provided and assessed both on the job and off the job by accredited providers and registered workplace assessors, to develop arrangements for the monitoring of training, to raise the level of structured on the job training linked to national qualifications, to promote upskilling in industry and assist the industry to adopt strategies to maintain and develop skilled staff levels (Collier 1999). Funded by the government and facilitated by the ITO’s, a structured programme of on job training and development began. Workplace training managed by ITO’s took off slowly through the 1990’s but by the mid 2000’s ITO’s had active programmes and significant numbers of workplace trainees studying qualifications on the job.

As national qualifications were developed and registered on the NQF, institutes around the country began offering national qualifications in Cookery, Food and Beverage, Front Office and Reception, Travel, Tourism, Tour Guiding, Adventure Tourism and Outdoor Recreation. This latter development of adventure tourism came in the wake of a:

‘wave of innovators that gave New Zealand a style of its own by using spectacular landscapes as the back drop for tourists adrenalin thrills. These entrepreneurs provided activities that combined one of the traditional elements of travel - the desire to go as far as possible from ordinary life - and the modern yearning for intense experiences. Their inventions were daring versions of the old roller coaster and ferris wheel, shifted from the fairground to gain a special aura among ravines, rivers and mountains. The dramatic landscape in turn was mythologised in new ways and the Extreme NZ was born: fresh, young and exhilarating. New Zealand was the ideal place to develop activities for thrill seekers. New Zealand took for granted that they could use the outdoors as an extension to their daily lives and had already developed skill in training and safety in the outdoors. Their pioneering knack of making do had developed into a tradition of technological innovation’ (McClure 2004, p270).

At the same time tourism began as a university subject. Following a world wide trend tourism and hospitality slowly became accepted as a discipline of study at an undergraduate and later a graduate level of study in a variety of university departments ranging from geography to resource management to business schools. By 2008 all of the universities in New Zealand: Auckland, AUT, Waikato, Massey, Victoria, Lincoln, Canterbury and Otago - contained tourism and hospitality in some form of undergraduate and graduate study.

Likewise in 2008, tourism and hospitality education and training is available from senior classes in secondary schools to some form of certificate or diploma programmes in all of the
sixteen Institutes of Technology and Polytechnics’s (ITP’s) in New Zealand. There is also training available in a large number of specialist Private Training Establishments’s (PTE’s) throughout the country, also funded by the government.

The education and training scene is characterized by a proliferation of education and training programmes and education and training providers. From secondary school programmes delivered at the lower levels (Level 1-3 of the NQF) to PTE’s and ITP’s and workplaces (at Levels 3-5) and universities (at Levels 5-8). This mass of provision results in thousands of graduates a year with qualifications that are recognized by industry and yet the problems of staff retention, skills shortages, lack of career paths, poor working conditions and poor pay remain central to human resources within the industry (Leadership Group 2006).

1.7 Conclusions

This chapter sets the scene for the research. The structure of the thesis is outlined and then the two cases of Samoa and New Zealand are introduced with information relating to the tourism industry, human resources and education and training. This is preparatory information for the findings of the field work, detailed in Chapters 4 and 5. These findings are informed by the writings relating to human resources that are described in Chapter 2: the Literature Review.
Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a comprehensive review of the literature relating to human resources in both a developed and a developing country context. First, the research context is explained and the tourism and hospitality industries are defined. Then the wider human resource issues are discussed in relation to where human resources sit within tourism policy and development and key specific human resource issues are identified. Thirdly, the role of education and training in international human resources are analysed with international examples provided. Finally the focus narrows to the New Zealand situation and then to literature relating to island states focusing on the Caribbean and the Asia Pacific as well as the Cook Islands and Samoa.

2.2 The research context

2.2.1 Defining the tourism and hospitality industries

Tourism is a global phenomenon that has expanded hugely over the last sixty years, particularly since the advent of jet aviation. It has become a multidisciplinary area of study that has gained both popularity and rigour as an academic subject. However there is a lack of agreed recognition of tourism, some writers see it as an industry (Smith 1988) whereas others see it as a subject or a process (Leiper 1995). It has no universally agreed principles and because it is multidisciplinary, with each discipline viewing tourism from their perspective, there is a huge amount of terminology and varying definitions. There is also a tension between academics and practitioners with a divide between academic research and the applied requirements of the tourism industry who are looking for practical solutions to business problems (Hall 2005, Page and Connell 2006). Formal study of tourism began in Austria in the 1930’s and became an academic discipline in the United States in the 1960’s (Jafari 1977). General texts relating to tourism appeared in the 1970’s such as Burkart and Medlik (1974).

The word tourism itself has as many definitions as there are authors. The definition is usually based in the discipline of the author; ‘the very nature of tourism, segmented and multi disciplinary creates conflicting views for the development of undergraduate tourism programmes or degrees’ (Lewis 2006, p16). Jafari (1977, p106-107), provided the following definition of tourism:
‘the study of man away from his normal habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the hosts’ socio-cultural, economic and physical environments’.

He later identified fifteen main disciplines in which tourism research occur showing the breadth of analysis of tourism from so many different perspectives (Jafari and Aaser 1998, p407).

Whether tourism is an industry in its own right is a much debated topic (Baum 2006b, Collier 2007, Hall and Kearsley 2001, Page and Connell 2006) which only adds to the general confusion surrounding a definition of tourism. In fact there are parallels between tourism not being viewed as an industry nor being regarded as a discipline that reinforces the ambiguity that exists in establishing the parameters of tourism.

Baum and Szivas (2008) point out that one of the reasons there is an industry debate is that there are so many organisations private, public and voluntary that the concept of being an industry is limiting. In a recent discussion around what constitutes an industry in the New Zealand context as defined in the System of National Accounts, tourism is seen as a consumption group of all tourists and what they spend and this is measured by the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA). Tourism is seen as overlapping a number of other industries; ‘If tourism consumption were to cease this will result in a reduction of the output of a number of industries, the biggest of which is the transportation industry’ (Brocx 2008, p11). The TSA, however, provides us with vital data about the contribution of this ‘industry’ to the economy and in the context of the TSA there are parameters placed around the people who are considered to be working within the context of the tourism industry.

In other writing on the subject, tourism is recognized as an industry in its own right in New Zealand partly because it generates enormous levels of foreign exchange, and as a result of this, the government sees it as its own sector. In this analysis, the industry is being defined on the basis of consumption – expenditure by people traveling away from home being catered to by a range of production and service sectors who also provide the same goods and services to local residents (McDermott 1998).

Collier (2006) suggests the ‘one industry concept’. This is the idea that in the eyes of the traveler there is one experience that begins with the booking of the trip on the internet or with a travel agent, to the experience of the trip from the time they leave home until they return again, and all the suppliers along the way being part of the chain of the visitor
experience. The tourism product is therefore everything that the tourist sees, purchases, experiences and feels from the time they leave home until they return home again.

Hall and Kearsley (2001, p7) state that the tourist industry is an economic sector ‘providing the product that tourists consume, no matter how loosely’. They state that the product is equally broad and of ‘direct relevance to tourism as well as the support industries providing for tourism as a minor part of their activity’ (ibid, p7). They are critical of Collier’s definition of the tourism product stating that ‘by this definition such things as community attitudes, the nature of the rural scenery, the daily lives of residents and the behaviour of the traffic are as much a part of the tourism product as are hotels trips, attractions and airlines’ (ibid, p7). They conclude that the tourism industry applies to the provision of the ‘core tourism product’. They further discuss the difficulties of defining the tourism industry. Tourism is a service industry and the service component of tourism is intangible and is therefore defined in terms of the customers (a demand approach). Other authors provide supply side definitions - focusing on what tourism produces, so from this view, the industry is an ‘aggregate of all businesses that directly provide goods and services to facilitate business, pleasure and leisure activities away from the home environment’ (Smith 1988, p183).

Tourism can also be viewed as a system (Leiper 1990, 1995). The systems approach sees tourism as being made up of elements: a geographic element, a human element and a business element. The business element is the tourism industry and is made up of all the people and organisations that have a part to play in the delivery of the tourism product to the tourist or visitor.

Tourism in the New Zealand context can be described to include a range of industry operators in a range of sectors and the organisations that support the industry operators both public and private. The sectors of the industry are defined as transportation, accommodation, attractions and activities, sales distribution and ancillary services including food and beverage, shopping, financial services, entertainment, publications and information. Ancillary services are also those services that rely on the general public for a proportion of their business and give rise to the debate about the breadth of the industry and how it should be defined. In this definition hospitality is an integral part of tourism (Collier 2006).

It is interesting to look at the way in which the industry defines itself and the categories for the New Zealand Tourism Awards can be used as a reference point (Hall and Kearsley 2001). The 2008 New Zealand Tourism Awards categories are divided into visitor accommodation (with the following sub categories: budget, boutique, holiday park, hotel, self contained and
serviced); visitor activities and attractions (divided into: adventure, culture and heritage, leisure, visitor attraction, events, meetings and incentives) and tourism and transportation services (divided into: tourism distribution, tourism marketing, tourism service providers and visitor transport) (Tourism New Zealand 2008). Hospitality in the context of Collier’s definition, or even as the tourism awards describe it, is definitely as a subset of the tourism industry.

There is also considerable debate in the literature about hospitality and what it is. Lashley and Morrison (2000, pxvi) reflect on what hospitality is and whether it is an industry or more than that. They say:

‘the study of hospitality encompasses commercial provision of hospitality and the hospitality industry yet at the same time recognize that hospitality needs to be explored in a private domestic setting and studies hospitality as social phenomenon involving relationships between people’.

Jones (2004) discusses the debate between Slatterly (2002, 2003) and Brotherton (2002, 2003) showing the controversy around the notion of hospitality and the multitudes of schools of thought relating to it. However at a pragmatic level, those working in hospitality inevitably will view hospitality as its own industry with its own organisations supporting it and giving it voice. Hospitality is undeniably central to what a tourist experiences when they travel. This is mainly food and drink and accommodation away from home, ‘hospitality has its roots in supplying to travelers, through the market, the basic elements of food, drink, shelter and rest’ (Walton 2000, p57). Food is clearly vital to the tourism experience. In fact more of the tourism dollar is spent on food and beverage than any other service (Brotherton 1999, Lashley and Morrison 2000, Mill and Morrison 1998).

The hospitality industry in New Zealand is characterized with the following participants: hotels, motels and motor inns, hosted accommodation, backpackers and youth hostels, caravan parks and camping grounds, pubs, taverns and bars, cafes and restaurants, commercial catering services, clubs – Returned Serviceman Association’s, sports clubs and takeaway food retailers (BERL Report 2005). It is important to note that a number of the participants in this definition of the hospitality industry, clearly rely on the general public for all or most of their business and do not cater for tourists either domestic or international. For example sports clubs and many commercial catering services are provided for local residents and workers and would not be frequented by tourists. This in some ways reinforces the earlier comments of Lashley and Morrison (2000). Suffice of to say, many hospitality businesses rely on tourists as their main source of income, increasing the interconnectedness
of tourism and hospitality. Given that hospitality is one of the key components of the visitor experience it is essential to view them together.

For the purposes of this research the tourism and hospitality industries are those that include the range of industry operators in the various sectors of transport, accommodation and food and beverage, attractions and activities and the organisations that support the industry operators both public and private. Direct providers of the tourism product are those that are directly involved with the tourist and the delivery of the product and the indirect providers are those that support that provision.

A key factor in defining the industries is to acknowledge the breadth of the industry and the variation in labour market characteristics between different sectors of the industry (Riley 1993; Baum 2006b). It is impossible to make broad generalizations about the issues in the industry because some sectors, such as the airlines and retail and wholesale travel exhibit strong labour market characteristics whereas the hospitality industry exhibits weak labour market characteristics. This will be discussed in detail later.

2.3 The wider human resource issues

The complexity of human resource management for the tourism industry is punctuated with a number of issues that transcend geographical boundaries and are articulated repeatedly in the literature on the subject. People who work in tourism most likely know that their job satisfaction will come from helping others; ‘This desire forms the raw material of human resources that permeates the industry and determines the success or failure of a destination. When purchasing the tourism product the client is also in a sense buying the skills, service and commitment of a range of human contributors to the experience that they are about to embark on’ (Baum 1993, p4). The variety of sectors within the industry results in diverse jobs with varying technical requirements, and educational need.

There are universal themes relating to human resources that pepper the literature. It is almost as if the industry has a bright side and a dark side with both sides being seen in juxtaposition with each other. The origin of work in tourism and hospitality is rooted in the post feudal master - servant relationship resonating with issues of social class (Baum 2006b), however there are sectors of the industry that have largely been exempt from this. Airlines are associated with the glamorous side of work in the industry. On the one side there is an image of the industry (promulgated by employers and training providers) as upbeat with opportunity, variety and mobility, with a strong people dimension. On the other hand is the picture of drudgery, low pay, antisocial hours, lack of job security, poor treatment by
employers and contempt from customers. Both sides of the picture are accurate given the
variety of sectors in the industry and the difference in internal labour markets within these
sectors.

Westwood (2002) describes an industry with low pay, low prestige, low dignity, low benefit,
no future job. Keep and Mayhew (1999) assign work in the industry with the following
attributes: a tendency to low wages, except when a skills shortage changes this, unsocial
hours and family unfriendly shifts, little equal opportunity, poor or non existent career
structures, informal recruitment, lack of good practice HR, lack of trade unions, high levels
of turnover and difficulties in recruitment and retention.

Baum (2006b) adds that a high proportion of the work force is in the semi or unskilled
category, there are weak internal labour markets, work is seasonal, part time, largely
populated with women and casual employment. There are traditions of tipping that can be
seen to hold down pay rates as well as the creation of ‘McJobs’ - jobs that anyone can do so
the price paid for them is low. The perception of the industry as low paid becomes a self
fulfilling prophesy and is low paid compared with other industries. Levels of pay are linked
to market demand for the skills on offer and in tourism and hospitality these are relatively
easily and cheaply accessible in the marketplace. Poor pay also does not foster a working
environment that has a sustained customer focus (Baum 2006b).

Conditions of work are also an issue in that legislation often does not cover part time or
casual workers and those areas of the industry that have stringent legislation are generally
there to protect the customer rather than the worker, as in the airline industry or in retail
travel or adventure guiding. Along with this goes the lack of trade unions in the industry to
support workers and fight for better terms and conditions.

There is also the link between human resource concerns with service and product quality,
poor management and planning information about human resource matters in the tourism
industry and the development by governments of reactive policy and initiatives rather than
proactive policy and strategy. To attract people into the industry and keep them there
requires strategic planning and so industry leadership is challenged to have more of a focus
on strategic human resource management (Brien 2004). There is an additional problem in the
New Zealand context of the large number of small to medium enterprise’s (SME) and their
lack of perceived need for human resource management, in Samoa it is more the lack of
people to be involved in the industry and the net migration from Samoa to other countries.
The issues of skills shortages and lack of recruitment and retention are not new and they are currently exacerbated by the full employment being experienced both in New Zealand and in other countries. The concept of hiring any warm body was discussed at least fifteen years ago, see for instance Bonn and Forbringer (1992). Even before that, a report by the International Hotel Association (1988) said the three fundamental issues for the 1990's would be the availability of labour, monitoring and motivating labour and the provision of training opportunities. It would appear that these issues have not abated in the early stages of the 21st century. Brien (2004) notes that turnover rates of between 48 to 110% are not uncommon in the industry. The issues continue and the call for strategic planning become louder. Attempts to address this in a New Zealand context are seen in the Tourism Strategy to 2015 (2007) and the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy (2006) that will be discussed later.

This picture of the ‘dark side of the coin’, (Baum 2006b) is brought into sharp relief with the inherent contradiction in travelers needs in the 21st century. These travelers are sophisticated and desire experiences that will enrich their way of life. This is an experience economy where consumers seek an integrated bundling of products and services that will generate responses to their intellectual, emotional and aesthetic senses (Bryman 2004). These people expect to be provided with service and experiences that reflect their own lives and expect that those who are providing this for them can anticipate their needs. In order for this to occur the workers must have a similar understanding and world view. Pine and Gilmore (1999) talk about the dramatis personae being critical to the delivery of the experience. Bryman (2004) identifies features of the skills that are required to meet the needs of experience consumers. Baum (2006a) suggests that it is in fact Experiential Intelligence (ExQ) that is required in hospitality workers. This concept is discussed further in 2.3.2.

### 2.3.1 Human resource issues within overall tourism policy development and planning

One of the underlying problems is the status of human resource issues within overall tourism policy development and planning. Human resource planning is not a strong feature in most governments planning processes let alone corporations or small businesses. It is essentially neglected from a macro to a micro level. The priority appears to be for product and marketing development and planning. Yet the main challenge ongoing into the 21st century will be around human resources. Baum and Kokkranikal (2005) argue that tourism is characterized by ‘ad-hocism’ because industry leaders are ambivalent to investment and planning relating to people. They point out that this underinvestment in people over a long period of time has resulted in a global concern about labour shortages for the industry.
The lack of connection between overall planning and development in tourism at a national level and the human resource requirements of the industry was potently seen in early example in Singapore with its 1988 ‘Product Development Plan’ when they failed to include human resource considerations in national planning. The Singapore Product Development Plan covered a multitude of issues such as urban regeneration, infrastructure and events but the plan did not cover the human resources implications for all of the planning. The Singaporean labour market was constrained and the plan described about 15% growth in tourism. They subsequently realized the gap (reactively) and there have been some attempts to upgrade education and training to meet the needs of the industry (Baum 1993). The Singapore 21 Strategy more recently focused on human resource issues in tourism as a key concern (Singapore 21 Committee 1997).

Baum (1993, p14) points out that; ‘As a general axiom - effective human resources strategies require considerable lead time in order to support tourism development and ideally should be in place before the bulldozers and diggers move in’. It is critical that human resource considerations are built into product and marketing development at both a macro and micro level and the direction of national tourism organisations in countries such as the UK, Ireland, Canada and New Zealand all appear to include the importance of building human resource capacity and capability as a key component of what they do.

At a micro level, management practices in SME’s tend to be ad hoc and staff are reduced when the season ends. ‘Short termism’ characterises planning for human resources with instability and uncertainty impacting on the quality of the service delivered; ‘The process of most small businesses in the industry is that recruitment and redundancy follow the cycle of seasonality of demand without any sense of anticipation or planning’ (Baum 2006b, p241). Although planning is complex, given the range of factors that influence demand, there are methods that can be used to ensure that planning is incorporated into business practice. Planning means that human resources cannot just be viewed in the short term but requires the same forward thinking, just as for other planning for a business.

Human resource planning at a destination level is often complicated by the fact that there is usually a multitude of organisations involved in the decision making process and this fragmentation makes comprehensive planning fraught. Baum (1993) proposed a framework for planning. He asserts it is comprehensive, integrated and cohesive and is designed to support coordination in order to make policy formulation and planning occur. He describes five key areas to consider when planning that must also be informed by accurate and timely research. The areas are: the tourism environment, tourism in the community, tourism and the labour market, tourism and education and human resource development in the industry.
If the framework is followed then it is possible to ameliorate many of the current problems that beleaguer tourism today.

Baum and Szivas (2008) go further to say that successful human resource management (HRM) requires significant planning and support at all levels from the business to the destination and that governments are key players in ensuring successful HR management.

### 2.3.2 Labour shortages and skills shortages

Labour shortages and skills shortages are central to the current situation within the industry globally. Given the economic conditions of the present time there is full employment across many industries. The situation varies somewhat from developed to developing countries. In the developed world, tourism and hospitality compete with all the other industries in the global marketplace and the overall perception of the industry does not make tourism and hospitality a good competitor. In many developing countries it is not a shortage of labour but a lack of the necessary skill sets, however the perception of the industry, in both a developed and developing context is an issue (Baum 2006b).

There has been much written over the last decade on the skilled-non skilled debate (Baum 2006b, Westwood 2002, Bradley et al 2000, Wood 1997, Shaw and Williams 1994, Riley 1993). Early research by the UK Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board (1984) classified skills in four tiers: management (6%) supervisory (8%), craft (22%) and operative (64%). Skilled and unskilled was differentiated based on whether vocational education was required for the job. Formal education roughly defined skill. Unskilled work could solely be trained on the job. The main thrust of training was on the job training of unskilled labour. Elsewhere in the literature the workforce was divided into 64% unskilled and 34% skilled (Knight 1971, Walsh 1987, HCITB 1984).

The large percentage of unskilled workers came about largely because of seasonality and corollary adjustments in labour to control costs. This also puts a downward pressure on pay rates. Weak labour markets take in and train newcomers but make no effort to retain people. When labour is cheap you can hire more people to cope with fluctuations in demand; ‘The ever present fluctuations in consumer demand, creates the ever present incentive to deskill’ (Riley 1993, p55). More recently this has been recognized as not necessarily working in the favour of effective human resource management and in various countries and certainly within companies, there have been moves to stem this turnover and to retain, train and develop employees. This is currently accentuated in New Zealand with extremely low
unemployment which means there is not the pool of people to call on that previously may have been the case. In Samoa there is not the pool of people at all.

There are those who espouse that there is a need to go beyond the unskilled/skilled paradigm. Baum (2006b, p128) cites the work of Burns (1997) who ‘argued a postmodernist case that categorizing hospitality employment into unskilled and skilled is a social construct’. Here the definition of hospitality ‘goes beyond the purely technical capabilities that those using the unskilled or low skilled descriptors assume’ (ibid, p128). Ritzer (2004) also confirms this by using the drama analogy for the service workplace saying that there is much more than technical skill required. Emotional demands are an additional dimension of hospitality skills (Burns 1997 cited in Baum 2006a, p129). This idea of emotional intelligence (EQ) (or emotional labour) is discussed by a number of authors: (Bardzil & Slaski 2003, Goleman 1998, Hochschild 1983, Mayer and Salovey 1997, Seymour 2000). Baum also discusses another dimension of skill described in the work of Warhurst (2000) and Nickson et al (2003) of aesthetic labour, namely the ability to reflect the customers attributes and the ability of front line staff to understand and engage culturally with the customer (Baum 2006a, p129).

This concept of emotional intelligence, or the need for aesthetic labour of workers all point to the fact that the demands on front line workers in tourism and hospitality are much greater than just seeing work as being either skilled or unskilled. International hospitality is firmly rooted in a western paradigm. Workers in a western context will have much more of a shared understanding with the guest, however in developing countries there is often a significant gap between the worker and the guest. In developed countries it is likely that the workers will mirror the customer in terms of breadth of experience. For instance university students fill seasonal, part time jobs in the industry. The socialization and experience of these workers is the same as the customers they serve. In less developed countries this is less likely to be the case and the social distance between worker and guest is considerable.

‘Social distance relates to the extent to which a combination of cultural and participatory exposure permits those working in the hospitality sector proximity to their guests … where there is close proximity the additional levels of learning and skills development required in order to meet the requirements of the job are relatively small and much hospitality work in that context can rightly be described as low skilled. However where social distance is wider and where those working in hospitality do not have the same cultural or participatory exposure to hospitality then the additional levels of learning and skills development required are likely to be far greater’ (Baum 2006a, p132).
Baum (2006a) introduces the concept of experiential intelligence (ExQ). Where there is considerable social distance and lack of shared ExQ between the worker and the guest, it is not just technical skills that are a requirement but also the development of generic emotional and aesthetic dimensions within the worker. Jobs may be considered unskilled or low skilled in developed countries, where it is assumed there will be greater similarity between the guest and the worker, yet in developing countries it is often the converse because of ‘differing experiential, cultural, communications, linguistic and relationship assumptions that underpin work in less developed countries’ (Baum 2006a, p127). In reality, the situation of differing ExQ may well be an issue in the developed world as well, particularly when workers have little basic education, or they are immigrants with limited language skills. ExQ becomes a vital component in ‘understanding the training and development needs of hospitality workers from less developed countries whose experience and cultural backgrounds are not in close proximity to that of the hospitality sector within which they work’ (Baum 2006a, p126).

In the developing world employees are not necessarily westernized and their knowledge of western living habits can be very limited, particularly in term of food types, service styles and eating habits. This makes technical learning more difficult than it would be for someone from a shared culture. The social understanding has to be created before the technical skills can be embraced. As pointed out earlier, this situation is not only an issue for developing countries but also is an issue when immigrant labour is used and workers come from developing countries or where the basic level of education and socialization of the worker is very different to the guest. The most desirable option is to be able to recruit ‘style workers’ who physically and emotionally match the work environment (Nickson et al 2003). Baum calls this the ‘democratization of participation in both consumption and work … creating a narrow or non existent social distance between the workers and the customers in hospitality’ (Baum 2006a, p131).

Pine and Gilmore (1999) have argued that culturally and participation induced experience skills are essential for workers to function effectively in international hospitality. Schmitt (1999) states that companies need to hire employees who are knowledgeable and experienced in the environment in which they will be operating. Baum (2006a, p133) argues that ExQ represents the capability set that allows the worker to ‘empathize and identify the expectations and requirements of their customer’ to be able to ‘place themselves experientially and emotionally in the shoes of their customer’. This is even further complicated by the fact that the nature of work in the industry has changed in that there are now more generic skills required, so the tool box of skills workers should have must be
increased to include communication skills, information technology, problem solving as well as the emotional, experiential and aesthetic components.

The challenge for employers in developing countries is how to bridge the gap. This requires action in terms of recruitment and training as well as in vocational education programmes and the content of them. What is perhaps less obvious is that it can be equally relevant in countries that are using migrant labour to meet employment needs, or where employees have not had the experiences and the lifestyles of the customers they serve and the social distance between them is sufficient that they do not exhibit the required ExQ.

### 2.3.3 Status of the industry

The status of the industry varies between countries and particularly between developed and developing countries. In developing countries where alternative employment opportunities are less, the relative status of the industry improves. Status is also influenced by the extent to which regulation is imposed on access to work in the industry, for example Switzerland requires specific qualifications for certain management and skill areas in tourism and hospitality and this contributes to the status of that work, therefore in countries where the industry has been able to professionalize itself, status tends to be higher. Those sectors of the industry that have training and development as a requirement in terms of employment also have higher status. For example, the airline industry requirements for training and development for pilots and flight attendants adds status to the work. Likewise the regulatory environment for retail travel agents where staff certification is required for agency bonding adds status to work in the industry and provides clear information regarding career paths and structures. Ultimately perceptions of work in tourism and hospitality are influenced by motivation and levels of job satisfaction of those working in the area; ‘High levels of job satisfaction will rub off on family and friends and create a positive image of the industry’ (Baum 2006b, p142).

A cautionary note remains however, particularly in the hospitality sector:

‘the perceived low status of work in the industry in many developed countries means that employers fail to attract the level of skill and ambition that they desire and as we have seen employ workers from social groupings that are frequently perceived to be low status and marginalized within the society. The employee profile in turn fuels external perceptions of the status of work within the society as an environment of poor conditions, remuneration and limited opportunity’ (Baum 2006b, p131).
The extent to which service is equated with servility will impact on status and remain a significant problem; ‘The shadow of servility remains at the root of the image of the work, especially in the hotel and restaurant sector, has in the minds of potential employees and their families. This acts as a barrier to many as they evaluate, in particular longer term career and education and training options’ (Baum 2006b, p141).

### 2.3.4 Attitudes to tourism

Attitudes to tourism are also integral to the human resource issues that face tourism. In a study of human resource challenges in the Caribbean, a participant said; ‘The truth about hospitality and tourism education is that people have not really accepted it as a respectable choice. It was referred to by a teacher in one of our leading schools as a soft option … I think that the problem with our society is that we look down on practical jobs like bartending’ (Norma Holder cited in Butcher et al 2004, p420).

In terms of perceived value, tourism does not compare well with other industries such as dairy, forestry and fisheries. It has been a long haul to gain recognition for tourism as a significant contributor to the New Zealand economy. It can be argued that it is the lack of something concrete such as a log, or a side of lamb or a catch of fish. It is the intangibility of it that causes this perceptual problem. However since the creation of the Tourism Satellite Account and the generation of statistics that show that tourism accounts for 9.2% of GDP to the economy it is much harder to argue that it is not a major industry within New Zealand (as described by economists such as McDermott 1998 and cited in the TSA 2007).

In small island states however the value of tourism is considerably different, often it is the only source of employment outside of agriculture and the economy is over reliant on tourism. The political upheavals in Fiji, for example, provide a Pacific example of how vulnerable a place can be to internal politics as well as fluctuations in global or regional travel patterns.

### 2.3.5 International mobility and immigration

In terms of addressing labour shortages, international mobility has a significant role to play, (as well as national mobility) and this is likely to grow as countries allow immigration to meet this skills shortage. It is debatable whether this is good or bad for international tourism (Choi et al 2000, Aitken and Hall 2000). It has to be an advantage if local employees are scarce and foreign labour is available and willing to fill the job vacancies. Tourism is a global
industry and one of the attractions of jobs in tourism is the ability to work around the world with relative ease. However it also inherently carries problems in terms of foreign labour as the face of a destinations tourism industry. A balance is probably desirable. There are also issues with dealing with immigration laws and policies and issues can also arise with the attitudes of the host population to immigrant labour. Managing cultural diversity is a challenge that needs to be faced effectively (Baum 2006b, Failte Ireland 2005).

As the industry continues to grow it will have to face the critical question of how to achieve a balance between supply and demand in labour. It is a labor intensive industry with approximately one employee for every hotel room worldwide (Choi et al 2000). Most of the world’s population is in developing countries and in these countries there are vast sources of potential labour. Labour emigration can have benefits, it can relieve unemployment and it is a source of foreign exchange. Skilled and educated migrants are welcomed in the international labour market however immigration is costly for the emigrating country and creates a drain to the country concerned. The benefits accrue disproportionately to the labour importing countries (Choi et al 2000).

| 2.3.6 Labour markets |

Internal labour markets and associated modes of human resource management can be viewed in terms of two extremes of strong and weak labour markets. Strong labour markets feature specified hiring standards, high skill specificity, continuous on the job training and strong workplace customs. Whereas weak labour market feature unspecified hiring standards, low skill specificity, no on the job training and weak workplace customs (Riley 1993, pp49-50).

Tourism labour markets are dynamic in nature. Any strategies addressing labour issues in tourism must accept the dynamics of labour markets. Tourism is characterized by a range of complicating factors. There is inter-business mobility as well as movement in and out of the labour market and upward mobility. There are direct access careers competing with the products of vocational education. Many jobs are unskilled or semiskilled and consequently many new employees require on the job training (Riley 1993, Baum 2006b).

The industry worldwide, features a high level of SME’s and a key human resource issue for SME’s is their inherent lack of capacity to support training and development because of seasonality, low profitability and weak labour market characteristics in general. Riley (1993) asserts that the weaker the internal labour market the lower the pay levels and reduced attraction to vocational education. Also, the greater the dependence on vocational education
by the industry and the greater the range of skills required of vocational education, the harder it will be to match courses with jobs and careers. Tourism tends to be characterized by weak labour market characteristics. The stronger the labour market, the stronger and qualitative will be the demands on vocational education and the easier the match between courses and jobs and careers.

Riley’s (1993) work citing tourism and hospitality as a weak internal labour market is reinforced by other authors such as Keep and Mayhew (1999). However other authors such as Burns (1997) and Baum (2006b) have tried to go beyond these stereotypes and argue strong labour markets exist in some sectors such as airlines and travel companies where structures are much more clearly defined.

### 2.3.7 International responses to the issues

There is not an overall homogenous international response to the issues raised, probably because of the sheer diversity of the industry and the variation between sectors in terms of labour market characteristics and the fact that the industry is fragmented with both small and large businesses creating duality and quite different human resource requirements. The number of organisations involved in human resources around the world reinforces proliferation and fragmentation (Baum and Szivas 2008).

Countries appear to deal with human resource issues based in their local traditions, culture and systems which also includes employment laws specific to individual countries (Baum 1993). The role of governments in leading human resource management practices is unclear and varies from country to country. Baum and Szivas (2008, p784) point out that both private and public sector involvement is critical to ‘enable the tourism sector to recruit, manage and develop human resources in an optimal manner. Key players are local, national and transnational governments and their agencies’.

One of the challenges for the wider industry is how to resolve the inherent contradictions that exist around human resource management. It is generally recognized and agreed that quality service requires a skilled and trained workforce. However training and development is expensive in terms of time and money and staff turnover is high so if a staff member is going to leave why would an employer invest in them? If a staff member is highly skilled this also makes them attractive to other employers, therefore training is benefiting the competition. Yet at the same time employers know that training will increase staff motivation, commitment to the business and productivity (Baum 2006b).
There are a variety of potential solutions to reduce the dilemma but they also demonstrate an inherent contradiction. Some solutions emphasize staff, such as flexible rosters and shifts to better meet employee needs, enhanced in house training, better benefit packages and incentive schemes. Other solutions emphasize profit such as reducing service levels, job deskilling through changes in product to reduce labour costs or the use of technology to save labour.

It is not a totally bleak picture; ‘There are increasing numbers of initiatives, in training and accreditation that are transnational, assisted by the growth of multi national companies that demand common qualifications and HR practices’ (Baum 1993, p11). Other research asserts that through analyzing the literature it is possible to see that there is a move towards ‘greater education and professionalism’ (Singh et al 2007, p136).

2.4 The role of education and training in international human resources

It has been said that there are three approaches to the ‘development of links to promote developmental transfer of knowledge and competencies between industry, destinations and education: an arms length approach with both sides critical, a cooperative approach where certain projects are beneficial to both with a minimal change to the practices of each side, a strategic alliance approach with both sides jointly seeking innovation’ (Botterill 1996 cited in Go 2005, p486). It is usually the first or second approach that occurs and very seldom the third as there is a lack of common context; ‘There must be better links between industry, destination and education to ensure “cooperative distributed learning”’ (Sawhney and Prandelli 2000 cited in Go 2005, p486).

There is a distinction between education and training and the relationship with the wider tourism industry and how this has been interpreted over time and in different destinations. Tribe (2002) discusses education as broader and relates to more holistic development of the individual and that training is more focused and narrow and relates to specific job roles. A curriculum that is vocationalist is where tourism is conceived as a phenomenon which is organized to bring profit to enterprises and satisfaction to the paying tourist whereas a tourism curriculum that is ‘framed soley for liberal ends may be criticized as one that turns its back on the world of work’ (Tribe 2002, p345-346). Go (2005) says that education is about the process of imparting knowledge and that training may be defined as the process of bringing a person to the agreed standard through practice and instruction.
In many countries tourism education and training focuses on job role training and as Go (2005, p485) says as a result of this; ‘tourism education is positioned against the stakeholder-buyer/vender and destination host/guest relationship and their conduct determines the tourism phenomenon’. This places tourism education and training in the business transaction in a sense and the immediate needs of the industry govern content and direction. The learning is quite shallow in that it remains focused on meeting the requirements of jobs and the skill sets that relate to those jobs. Compare this with education and training in medicine for example, where the context of the learning is very much focused on developing the individuals to think and analyze and make decisions. Tourism education, as such and distinct from training, exists at a university level. Yet university education in tourism is criticized by the industry for not being applicable enough to meet their needs (Page and Connell 2006). A tourism qualification can be constructed with the overriding aim of delivering graduates to work in industry and key attributes of the curriculum will be utility and relevance. Many tourism programmes are developed at universities in Business and Management Schools as a management subject, which aligns the learning much more closely with industry.

Go (2005) discusses tourism education evolving through the pioneer phase, rationality phase and most recently the value adding partnership networks phase or communities of creation phase. The pioneer phase began with Hunziker and Krapf in the 1940’s. Later in the 1970’s with authors such as Medlik and Burkhart, Gunn and McIntosh, nearly all tourism programmes were developed as a result of academic enterprise rather than being led by industry. Tourism education in the 1970’s and 1980’s was primarily educator driven (Christie-Mill 1978 and Lawson 1974 in Go 2005, p485).

The rationality phase of the 1980’s-1990’s was characterized by Jafari and Ritchie (1981) who expanded the scope of tourism education and placed it in a broader context. They looked at alternative disciplinary approaches to the study of tourism and focused on critical issues in tourism that should be explored. They identified a lack of empirical research on which to base tourism curricula. In other words, programmes were being designed in isolation by individual educators. They asserted that it was essential to adequately acknowledge the multi disciplinary aspects of the tourism experience with associated impacts; social, economic, political and cultural. The study of tourism must be from the perspectives of many disciplines; economics, sociology, psychology, anthropology and geography. Learning should be integrated and transdisciplinary. It should start with the problem or issue and through problem solving bring to bear the knowledge of these disciplines to contribute to a solution or resolution hence tourism is seen as an applied area of study that draws on a wide range of disciplines.
Tribe (1999) describes a number of stakeholder groups that impact on the development of tourism curriculum. On one side he places industry employers, professional bodies, students, academics and teachers, often located in business departments, who promote a vocational curriculum. On the other side are the local community, government groups, environmentalists and other interest groups who are more focused on a liberal tourism curriculum with a more open perspective to the content of the curriculum. He later describes the ultimate individual graduating from a tourism education as a philosophic practitioner (Tribe 2002). This involves not only being able to practice in the industry but also to be reflective on vocational actions and to also be philosophical, developing skills and knowledge that transcend the vocational and utilize a broader range of knowledge (ibid 2002).

The challenge is to find the desirable mix between the conceptual learning and development as embodied in the concept of the philosophic practitioner, and the functional skill development evident in most vocational programmes. This raises the key question of whether individuals should be trained for life long careers rather than the focus on entry level job skills training. Career training must develop the ability to think creatively and philosophically rather than just on the ability to perform certain tasks.

What is, actually, required remains elusive as long as the tourism industry remains populated with businesses struggling to be profitable where the focus is on survival. It is likely to remain elusive for some time to come as issues come back to business, the bottom line and profitability both in tourism businesses and in educational institutes. This is further complicated by other realities of the 21st century. Tourism exists within a globalised world of transnational networks. Enterprises are being transformed from hierarchical and complex organisations to decentralized network oriented organisations with complex jobs. Education in tourism needs to consider ‘the complex interlocking networks within business, culture and education’ (Go 2005, p487). This third phase of tourism education is a ‘shift towards dialectical, relational and integrative approaches in a global context’ (ibid, p487). Information technology plays a huge role in this phase. A European grouping called High Level Group on Tourism and Employment identified one of the challenges for the future as being how to ‘upgrade human resources in tourism as a consequence of the refocusing of core competencies, deskilling of tasks in some sub branches of tourism and the need to create new professional profiles for meeting tourists needs and preferences’ (Anon 1998 in Go 2005, p496).

For the most part, tourism programmes have been developed which are functional and designed to serve the needs of a specialized component of the industry, such as hotel
management or travel agent training. Functional programmes contain functional courses and lack the breadth of study which can be seen as essential to fully develop individuals as Tribe (2002) has described. Tourism is seen from a commercial perspective with the emphasis on vocational training. Most of this learning is at a lower level and a shorter duration than a university education in tourism. Technical requirements of jobs have formed the basis of training programmes throughout the world. Jobs in hospitality, for instance, were constructed on the basis of accumulation of skills required for specific technical tasks. Changes in the nature of work, technology and customer expectations have forced a fundamental reevaluation of the relative roles of technical and generic skills in hospitality work. Skills shortages are increasingly seen in terms of generic rather than technical competencies. This is reinforced by studies of employer expectations, where employers say that communications, people management and problem solving are the priority (Baum 1993, Baum 2006b, Christou 2001, Christou and Eaton 2000, Eaton and Christou 1997, Whitelaw 2005, Tas 1988).

In a study by the Hospitality Training Federation (HTF 2000) generic skills are a priority. They recommend that generic skills are built into full time training programmes and to fund training providers to deliver key skills and develop appropriate aptitudes in students. They also recommend that providers are developed to be able to deliver key skills and ensure recruitment practices encompass generic skills requirements; ‘Employers want self assured, independent thinkers who can communicate effectively with a range of stakeholders but instead got graduates who are under confident in their first jobs’ (Baum 2006b, p211 cites Tomkins 2004). People entering the industry will need both education and training to develop these emotional and aesthetic components. Baum (2006b) also notes that increasingly expectations in the workplace are around mobility and change and that people will move often in jobs, each stage will require training of some kind and the acquisition of further qualifications. Training therefore has an ongoing role.

### 2.4.1 International examples relating to education and training

A common theme that emerges in the literature is the need for a comprehensive framework within which to design and deliver education and training programs in a more effective manner (Pollack and Ritchie 1990). Some parts of the world and specific institutions have been addressing this for some time (Jafari and Ritchie 1981). In Canada they recognized the role of educational institutions to ‘enhance the competence of industry employees over the long term’ (Pollack and Ritchie 1990, p570).
These authors also discuss that industry leaders have:

‘recognized that while considerable progress has been achieved in better preparing the youth for positions in the tourism industry this progress has been to date entirely unequal to the magnitude of the task at hand. Developments generally had been ad hoc, uncoordinated and fragmented which reinforced strengths rather than attacking weaknesses. This led to job training rather than career development and compared with other industries management roles were not really addressed. There was useful preparation for specific jobs but a general lack of strategy that did not address the long term. The goal must be to develop recognized career paths in the industry’ (Pollack and Ritchie 1990, p570).

Pollack and Ritchie (1990) discuss two Canadian provinces and their approach to addressing the education and training needs of the tourism industry. The ‘Alberta Model’ derived in 1984, focused on educators and government responding to industry needs. They proposed an integrated series of programmes for existing tourism and hospitality staff to improve their skills and to view the industry as a career. This is very similar to the role of industry training organisations (ITO’s) in New Zealand in that their key role is to meet the present and future training and education needs of the industry.

The Alberta scheme was limited in that it focused on the job/skill training. It was followed by the British Columbia model that recognised that there are different sectors within the tourism industry with different training needs. Each sector differs in terms of size, scale and sophistication. Training needs vary between sectors but it essential to look for areas of overlap or commonality. Within each sector, jobs roles can be identified at different levels - front line, supervisory, management, senior executive (Pollack 1986 cited in Pollack and Ritchie 1990).

The British Columbia model also articulates the need for strategic thinking about the delivery of education and training. The model allowed for the establishment of career paths with developed standards and a means to recognize and reward achievement as well as improving the profile of the industry with active partnership between government, industry and educators and effective use of resources (Pollack and Ritchie 1990). The overarching goal of any strategy has to be to improve the quality of service within the industry. The quality of service is determined by the quality of the people entering the industry plus the quality of training received. This presupposes that an education and training system can develop professional standards and show the progression from the development of competency in one area to development in the next with clear career paths (Pollack and Ritchie 1990). This is an ongoing requirement and has more recently being addressed with
the Sea to Sky Tourism Human Resources Strategy (2006) and the Kootney Rockies Tourism Human Resources Strategy (2007). This emphasis on strategic planning is echoed by other authors (Baum 1993, 2006b, Brien 2004).

The career path model is now beginning to be espoused in New Zealand. The Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy (2006, p19) Goal 3 states; ‘People with experience and expertise are retained within the tourism and hospitality sector because they have opportunities to grow and build satisfying careers’ with a recommendation to map out available career pathways in the tourism and hospitality industry to assist in attracting and retaining people in the industry’. Following on from this in 2008, the Career Maps and Pathways Project managed by the ATTTO and HSI is being undertaken to map careers in the industry, link them to education and training provision and communicate them to potential employees. Career maps however are only a very small part of a process to ensure progression from an entry level job to a higher level position.

There must be a way for people to pursue a variety of steps and methods to achieve a path that will ultimately take them to a senior executive position, also recognizing that this may not be what everyone wants to achieve. Each job level has its own peculiar characteristics and therefore the education needs to reflect that. An essential component of the career path model is saying to potential employees that there is an opportunity for career advancement and challenge (if they want it) when they enter the industry. There are a variety of road maps to follow to achieve the goal and these will be punctuated with training and rewards as milestones are reached. The British Columbia model was predicated on the establishment of organisations whose role it was to oversee the process, similar to the New Zealand model of ITO’s.

A significant issue is whether the industry takes on board the education and training programmes that have been developed. Currently in New Zealand, the lack of available labour means that off the job education and training programmes are being sidestepped as industry’s need for staff means that employers are not too concerned about whether potential staff are trained or not. The other significant issue is the lack of a comprehensive framework to provide both direction and vision for the design of programmes. Training programmes to date are developed because of a perceived need by a sector group rather than a comprehensive and strategic approach being taken to analyse current and future human resource needs.

The interesting factor is whether strategies are effectively implemented and whether the implementing organisations have the resources (financial and human) to make it happen.
Success is predicated on the determination of people on the ground to make it happen, their ability to do so and whether the environment is conducive to allowing it to happen. Government policies and legislation will impact significantly on this (Baum and Szivas 2008).

In other parts of the world there are variations on the same theme. In Scotland, a strategic framework has been developed to address the issues facing human resources in tourism. ‘Tourism People’, an industry led body, focuses the industry on meeting and exceeding customer expectations by investing in people working in the industry (Watson and Drummond 2002). The organisation consists of people who are seen as industry leaders and manage with best practice principles. The organisation follows on from Tourism Training Scotland who developed a range of training programmes with 60,000 people completing training programmes and where ‘more than 40% of businesses reported that training had an impact on their bottom line. As a result of the training, the majority of businesses reported changes in attitudes, enthusiasm and involvement of their staff along with lower staff turnover and absenteeism’ (Watson and Drummond 2002, p253). Now, their focus is on management and leadership as a priority to ensure that the culture of training and investing in people will permeate through organisations. This reflects current thinking in New Zealand as stated in the NZ Tourism Strategy to 2015 (2007) and the Skills Strategy Discussion Document (2008).

A key priority for ‘Tourism People’ has been to improve communication in the industry on skills issues through information dissemination (Watson and Drummond 2002). To encourage tourism businesses to meet and exceed customer expectations of their workforce by ensuring that they participate in training and development by ‘highlighting the link between such an investment and improved business performance’ (Watson and Drummond 2002, p254) and ensuring that businesses stay competitive by accessing relevant industry information and research.

Part of their plan is to implement an Industry Licence to Practice that would have people skills as a key focus. They note that such a development would have to be industry led and that it would need to be linked to quality assurance programmes (Watson and Drummond 2002). Discussions relating to these concepts have been raised in New Zealand in industry circles for some years but have been very difficult to get off the ground. However, with the continual strengthening of Qualmark in New Zealand it is possible that in the future there could be a developing role relating to something similar to a Licence to Practice within the portfolio of Qualmark.
Ultimately education, training and development should be partnerships between industry, public and private sector organisations and the specialist providers of courses. There are a variety of formats around the world, from official structures in countries such as Switzerland and Germany, to other more ad hoc relationships. In Germany the apprentice system is totally regulated, with both on the job and off the job components with clearly stipulated curricula. In Germany there is a high level of investment by employers. It is in fact led by employers.

In the UK more recently, the development of the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ), and in NZ, NZQA and the NQF, allows for both generic and technical skills to be delivered in the workplace and the training provider context and allows for and recognizes prior learning. There are elements of partnership in this system with industry training organisations working alongside industry and training providers but in a sense, the industry is now in competition with training providers. The ability to study on the job and gain government funding to do so, means that ITO’s and industry are competing with providers for the right to train people and to access government funding to do so.

In Australia, vocational programmes in tourism and hospitality began in the 1960’s and higher education programmes began in the late 1980’s. There has been a steady increase in undergraduate degree programmes and emergence of niche tourism education. Between 1989 and 1994 graduates of programmes expanded tenfold (Craig-Smith et al 1995). The education and training scene in Australia is described as competitive, with a political agenda advocating open competition in the provision of education. Education is deregulated and universities and Technical and Further Education’s (TAFE) compete for students; rival programmes proliferate. It is questioned whether this is good use of resources and whether it might be better use of time and money to develop a national strategy for higher education (Spennemann and Black 2008). Australia has a similar structure to New Zealand with industry training organisations responsible for skills development in specific industries. Tourism Training Australia is the industry training organisation for both tourism and hospitality and is responsible for the implementation of a national training system in Australia. At least in Australia, tourism and hospitality are included in one industry training body. The situation in Australia does not seem cohesive and given the similarities in the structures between Australia and New Zealand, it is not necessarily the place to be looking for best practice for New Zealand moving into the future.

The Irish model is probably the most interesting to examine because of the far reaching steps they have taken to integrate and develop cohesive planning and policy. They also experience all of the issues that other western countries experience with fragmentation of the industry,
seasonality, SME’s and labour market characteristics but they appear to have used foresight and sound planning to effect change in their human resource practices. The organisation charged with the overall responsibility for tourism is called ‘Failte Ireland’. It is the National Tourism Development Authority, established under the National Tourism Development Authority Act 2003 to guide and promote tourism as a leading indigenous component of the Irish economy. The organisation provides strategic and practical support to develop and sustain Ireland as a high quality and competitive tourist destination (Failte Ireland 2008).

Failte Ireland works in strategic partnership with tourism interests to support the industry in its efforts to be more competitive and more profitable and to help individual enterprises to enhance their performance (Failte Ireland 2008). It operates under a board which represents all stakeholders: industry, government, training providers and unions. They have three principal areas of operation: marketing, quality assurance and building human resource capability in the industry (Failte Ireland 2008). This involvement in human resource development by a national tourism organisation is an interesting example of a model that could be adopted by other countries.

Failte Ireland is unique because it has the strength of position to take a broad national view of labour issues in Irish tourism (Baum 2006b). One of its strengths is the research that informs the organisation in both policy and practical terms. They undertake labour market research every two years and have data back to the early 1980’s. The research is both qualitative and quantitative relating to employment, changes in labour structures on businesses, the impact of labour market and training initiatives and a variety of predictive studies (Baum 2006b). These studies directly impact on education and training provision as well as what programmes of study should be in place for the industry going forward. They also have specially focused studies that may examine a specific sector and determine that there is an urgent need for training for that sector and then implement the training. This research has meant that Failte Ireland can quickly respond to the government with the primary goal being, meeting the need for skilled labour.

They have also developed cost effective and responsive programmes to meet short to medium term needs of the industry. They have been able to meet a need that existing education and training providers have not been able to because of their own financial constraints. They have developed training centres around the country to deliver training throughout the year which means that they are much more productive than mainstream education providers (Baum 2006b). They have also been involved in training migrant labour as well as recruitment of labour from Eastern Europe. They are also involved in the design and implementation of curricula and work hand in hand with the research arm of the
organization and; ‘this common responsibility within Failte Ireland means that there is close association between the interpretation of research findings and their translation into new education and training initiatives within tourism’ (Baum 2006b, p268). They also have a wide range of initiatives in terms of supporting and mentoring students and prospective employees including the management of industry placements. They also ensure that the government funding for education and training is used judiciously to gain the maximum benefit for all.

In 2005 Failte Ireland published a national human resource strategy that is linked to the wider economic development of Ireland and validates the organisation’s role at the centre of developing people. The strategy ‘is a critical assessment of the role of people in achieving a high quality internationally competitive tourism, hospitality and leisure sector within which the knowledge element in the deployment of human capital is given precedence over traditional manual skills’ (Baum 2006b, p269). This Irish model is seen by Baum (2006b) as having the potential to be used in a developing country context to create extremely effective human resource planning and management.

### 2.4.2 The New Zealand situation

In New Zealand, the Industry Training Act 1992 created industry training organisations in over fifty industries with responsibility to manage on job training as well as develop qualifications. The Act and its ensuing policies and procedures and organisation development (NZQA) in part addressed the need for a comprehensive suite of programmes in tourism and hospitality. This is as close as New Zealand has come to a comprehensive framework for the delivery of education and training. The process of qualification development remains ad hoc and responsive rather than strategic and there are too many organisations involved for a country the size of New Zealand. The wider tourism industry has three industry training organisations directly involved in qualification development, ATTTO, HSI, and SFRITO. Each ITO has its own sphere of involvement and this causes a lack of cohesion and the qualifications are criticised for duplication. Human resource development is vested in individual industry training organisations in a fragmented model with no one organisation charged with a strategic overview of the human resource requirements of the industry. This lack of strategic overview is not helpful in the current environment. A recent initiative of cooperation between ITO’s. SFRITO, HSI, ATTTO, HITO and Retail have formed an alliance on specific service industry projects under the name of Service Industry Training Alliance (SITA). This may be the first step in rationalizations of ITO’s. Recently, there have been attempts for government and industry to work together, to develop a strategy to address skills shortages and the general training needs of industry (NZ

The outlook for tourism in New Zealand is generally positive despite recent concerns relating to carbon footprints, the price of oil and escalating fuel costs that will inevitably impact on the price of air travel (Inside Tourism 2008). These more obvious economic issues do not mitigate against the most fundamental problem that faces the industry of developing sustainable human resources. A 2004 study of the New Zealand hotel industry and human resource issues, discussed the fact that sustainable growth in tourism will not be achieved unless it is matched with quality service from industry employees; ‘the challenge to ensure there are sufficient numbers of employees of the right calibre, in the right position, at the right time, is pressing’ (Brien 2004, p88). He points out that industry leadership will need to be adjusted to a stronger focus on strategic human resource management (SHRM). This strategic approach, Brien (2004) argues, breaks away from the knee jerk mould. A knee jerk mode comes about because of such high turnover which forces managers to have to urgently find new staff repeatedly, so there is no energy left to be strategic. Being strategic however, is vital.

The realisation of the problems facing the New Zealand industry were documented in Collier (1999), Tourism 2000 Conference (2000), the Tourism Strategy to 2010 (2001) and two years later by Warren et al (2003) in a study commissioned by the ATTTO. It had become clear that a strategic approach was required to move the industry forward to attract the required workforce. A subsequent BERL report in 2004 also described the looming skills shortages threat.

These studies led to the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy (2006). A leadership group was formed consisting of membership from Tourism Industry Association (TIA), NZ Hotel Council (NZHC), Hotel Association NZ (HANZ), the Bus and Coach Association, New Zealand Maori Tourism, ATTTO, HSI, SFRITO, the Ministry of Tourism and the Department of Labour. It is interesting to note that the key stakeholder list does not contain any education and training provider representation. The strategy document states that the leadership group thought they were looking at a workforce issue but realized that it was a workplace issue; the challenge for businesses being the upskilling of people at all levels, and then lifting productivity and profit to attract investors and pay people more (Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy 2006, p3).

In Brien’s (2004) study, the most difficult position to fill was that of qualified chefs. He notes a high correlation of difficult to fill positions with working hours. He also notes a decline in
the calibre of applicants with applicants having a perception of the industry as an easy
industry for drop outs and a job in hospitality being a job until you can get a real job (Brien
2004). Job roles such as food and beverage, reception and housekeeping are all jobs that
were seen to not require any formal qualifications whereas chefs should be qualified. The
irony of this situation is that those in food and beverage roles have the least training, the
highest turnover and the greatest contact with customers. Some hotels in the study (35%)
agreed that employee turnover impacted on customer retention (Brien 2004, p99). He points
out ‘well trained, competent employees effectively interacting with customers, have the
potential to generate more income for the hotel than staff not well trained and competent. It
would therefore seem reasonable that a retention method of increased pay or performance
payments could lead to reducing the intent to leave by some employees’ (ibid, p99). He
concludes that the industry must consider its image and needs to be seen as the career of
choice rather than a job until you can get a real job. Brien (2004) highlights that
New Zealand lacks a strategic plan that offers hope to address the challenges and that there
is no holistic organisation(s) to promote the industry and therefore the challenge of
recruitment and retention continues.

The Workforce Strategy (2006) reinforces these continual problems with a third of businesses
reporting difficulty in finding skilled staff. Shortage of staff was stated as a key determinant
in constraining growth by 20% of businesses (Leadership Group 2006). Tourism businesses
are therefore reliant on casual labour, migrant workers and unskilled labour largely because
of the issues of seasonality, low wages and the general perception of the industry.

Key results of the BERL report (2004) that are discussed in the Tourism and Hospitality
Workforce Strategy (2006, p6) show that 100,000 people were employed in the industry in
2003 and that the industry requires an additional 100,000 people to maintain the industry,
with 5,000 people a year required for expansion in the industry. Turnover is a major issue
with three quarters of the numbers required being to replace staff. They also noted that pay
rates are uncompetitive. A conclusion of their findings is that the key to growth lies in lifting
productivity, therefore having to focus on how well people work. They also conclude that
there must be coherent career paths with people feeling valued and rewarded with learning
and development opportunities and good pay (Leadership Group 2006, p9).

The Tourism Satellite Account (2006) identifies 108,000 directly engaged in tourism
employment, 5.9% of total New Zealand employment. Add indirect employment, and the
total tourism employment figure jumps to 183,000 or 9.9% of the total New Zealand labour
force. The 5.9% of total employment is compared with tourism generating 4.8% of direct
value added. Value-added is the ‘value’ businesses add to the raw material goods and
services they purchase and use in the process of producing their own outputs. The average labour productivity of tourism is considerably lower than the average labour productivity of non-tourism related industries, tourism is also known to be more (relatively) labour intensive. New Zealand’s labour productivity growth has been low over many years; ‘An hour worked in New Zealand produces approximately 30% less than an hour worked in Australia’ (Skill NZ 2008, p6)

The vision of the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy 2006 is; ‘people working across tourism and hospitality are appropriately skilled and able through the application of their expertise to contribute to the growth and development of a sustainable, productive and profitable tourism and hospitality industry’ (Leadership Group 2006, p10). They identified six goals and related strategy (refer to Appendix 1 for the goals and strategy). The New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015 (MoT 2007) also addresses the issues highlighted in the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy, and in fact has basically incorporated the Workforce Strategy into the implementation of the Tourism Strategy. Human resources feature as part of one of the key outcomes but people do not warrant their own outcome and they most definitely do not play as important a role as other issues such as sustainability. This benign neglect poignantly reinforces the general worldwide trend that human resources actually play a minor role in the strategic direction of tourism, despite any protestations to the contrary.

Human resources features in The New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015 in Outcome 2 (MoT 2007, p32) ‘New Zealand Tourism sector is prosperous and attracts ongoing investment’. The context is; ‘the success of New Zealand’s tourism sector is ultimately dependent on the performance of its businesses. Successful tourism businesses are those that use resources efficiently (staff, capital, energy) and compete successfully for quality people. It discusses workforce challenges identifying that tourism is a labour intensive industry’ (MoT 2007, pp33-34).

The strategy also highlights that immigration will be required to match the projected labour needs. However large scale immigration to meet the needs of the industry could dramatically change the face of the industry and potentially undermine the distinctiveness of the NZ visitor experience. This situation can currently be seen in Queenstown with large numbers of foreign hotel workers (www.workpermit.com/news 2007). This problem is seen worldwide where the use of foreign labour can create social ghettos and isolation for immigrant workers and all of the corollary effects of discrimination and alienation of migrant groups. There are of course many instances where the; ‘availability of foreign skills can add value to the international service transaction’ (Aitken and Hall 2000, p83).
The strategy (MoT 2007) talks about a whole sector approach and refers to the work of the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy Group (2006) as key to addressing the issues. The strategy (MoT 2007) also identifies that training and development are crucial and that there needs to be a focus on education and training. It links training with job satisfaction, enhanced productivity, better service delivery and therefore financial gains to the business.

The key actions from these issues are that there needs to be a coordinated response to workforce issues and these should be led by the tourism and hospitality leadership group. These actions include increased advocacy with government policy makers, improvement of pay rates, investment in technology to support the existing labour force, targeted immigration, development of labour productivity measures for tourism businesses to be able to monitor and improve the contribution of people and closer links with training providers.

What is lacking in the strategy are ways in which education and training providers can be integrated as integral stakeholders in the tourism industry, although a key action item of the strategy is to seek active partnerships with the education and training sector. This lack of acknowledgement of education providers as key stakeholders explains a lot by its omission. Active and effective partnerships with providers must be based on seeing them as key stakeholders and this omission from the strategy (MoT 2007) reinforces the earlier research of Botterill (1996) and Sawhney and Prandelli (2000); ‘There must be better links between industry, destination and education to ensure ‘cooperative distributed learning’ (Sawhney and Prandelli 2000 cited in Go 2005, p486).

Further work on human resource issues, commissioned by the Hospitality Standards Institute (2007a, p5-7) is described in Appendix B. Primarily the research shows an increasing demand for high level skills. The study claims that the growth in employment by qualification reflects the trends in occupational growth and the increasing demand for high level skills. In absolute terms the greatest increase will be for jobs with only school qualifications, but highest growth in percentage terms is for people with bachelor degrees or intermediate or advanced vocational skills.

The most recent publication ‘The New Zealand Skills Strategy 2008: A Discussion Paper’ (Skill NZ 2008) discusses the full range of industries in New Zealand and draws together the relationship between industry and training providers and identifies a number of key factors that must be in place going forward as well as discussing the links between productivity and skills development. The paper points out that New Zealand’s economic growth has been around labour utilization with more people working longer hours rather than labour productivity growth, where each individual in the workplace produces more per hour,
rather than working longer hours (Skill NZ, p6). The recruitment of extra labour rather than increasing the capability and retention of existing labour, increases wage costs without necessarily lifting productivity or profitability.

A key driver for labour productivity is the ability of managers to utilise available resources, such as equipment, technology, work processes and skills of workers. Management and leadership capability is seen as key to this; ‘Managers and management systems have to become more sophisticated in New Zealand, it is a business imperative to enhance the ability of managers to better use, retain and develop the skills of their employees’ (Skill NZ 2008, p30). It goes on further to say that ‘the perceived availability of management skills in New Zealand is lower than Australia, United Kingdom and many Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, and while many managers have skills and abilities they often do not or cannot apply them effectively’ (ibid, p31).

The skills shortage currently occurring in New Zealand is not just caused by having fewer skilled people than are needed; there are industries where there is considerable supply of people with the right skills but they will not take the jobs because of the pay and working condition; ‘Workplaces therefore have to make themselves more attractive in order to retain staff’ (Skill NZ 2008, p19).

It is also noted that industries in general are not maximizing on the funding that is being provided to education providers; ‘The government can directly influence the quality and type of skills through what education and training it invests in’ (Skill NZ 2008, p20). The strategy document also discusses that the government has introduced a new investment system for tertiary education where there is a requirement for greater and closer connection between education providers and their stakeholders.

A sobering fact that also contributes to the current skills issues, relate to the literacy and numeracy of the New Zealand population. An Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey (2006) found that 1.1 million New Zealanders, 43% of adults aged 16-55 have literacy skills below those needed to participate fully in a knowledge society. It also showed that 51% percent have low numeracy (Skill NZ 2008, p27). These levels of literacy and numeracy are seen to be connected to low productivity and also affect the level of engagement in the workplace and the potential of individuals in the labour market.

The Skills Strategy (2008) also notes that it is critical that New Zealand businesses are provided with targeted assistance to build their capability and that partnerships are vital
between clusters of industry groups and tertiary education organisations. Links need to be better forged between businesses and tertiary education providers.

### 2.5 Island States

Issues pertaining to small island states and whether they reflect the issues identified at a world wide level are discussed in a number of publications (Apostolopoulos and Gayle 2002, Baum 2006b, Burns 1999, Conlin and Baum 1994, Charles 1992, Lewis 2005). The focus has generally been on employment in developed countries and yet in developing countries there is a real need for tourism policy makers, planners and personnel. Also as suggested in section 2.3.2, there are social and cultural differences in the training needs of developing countries (Jafari and Ritchie 1981).

Island states and the issues relating to them vary around the world. Mediterranean islands have a high level of socio economic development and established democratic systems of government whereas the Caribbean and Pacific are ‘remnants of colonial system of exploitation’ (Apostolopoulos and Sonmez 2001 cited in Apostolopoulos and Gayle 2002, p4) with primarily plantation economies they feature scarcity of resources and few viable alternatives. They have become ‘pleasure peripheries’ catering to sun seeking package tourists (ibid, p4).

The Caribbean has been identified as the most tourism dependent region in the world (Gayle and Goodrich 1993) with over 25% of the region’s earnings coming from tourism (Tewaire 1997). In the Pacific, tourism revenue is about 50% of GDP (Kkazu 1994). The impact of tourism on fragile natural environments is a big concern in the 21st century. Island states have been very eager to reap the benefits of tourism for revenue generation often at the expense of the natural environment and with little coordinated effort to manage the process in a sustainable manner. There is also a tendency to move away from monocrops in favour of tourism.

Island states have also been characterized by MIRAB - migration, remittances aid and bureaucracy (Apostolopoulos and Gayle 2002). They are considered to be highly subsidized economies with tourism becoming the industry of choice for modernizing developing regions. More recently the trend has moved from MIRAB to TOURAB - tourism, aid, bureaucracy societies (Apostolopoulos and Gayle 2002). They question whether the transformation is complete or not and whether the tourism dependency will bring about sustained growth.
Island states generally present these characteristics: few ecological and economic options, provision of utilities and public services are difficult, human resources are scarce, development is hindered by geographic isolation and size and development might conflict with local culture. In the 21st century, island states provide a bird’s eye view of the extent to which tourism and travel affect policy making, employment, culture, natural resources, political stability and the balance of payments.

A key component of rapid tourism development in island states has been the awareness of the need for tourism education (Lewis 2005). Unfortunately part of this rapid development has been the importing of western models of education without taking sufficient notice of the local environment. Theuns and Go (1992) describe the development of courses that are geared to the management of western hospitality in third world settings with narrow business oriented training.

### 2.5.1 The Caribbean

An analysis of the Caribbean can produce parallels with the Pacific. The diversity of ethnicity and language and associated cultural and social differences gives rise to a wide variety of destination choices for travelers and considerable variety in quality of standards of service. There is also the; ‘geographical dispersion and economic condition of the islands’ (Conlin 1993, p148).

The islands are isolated from their main markets and are dependent on air transportation (and frequency of service) to bring visitors to the islands. Most islands are characterized by
weak economies and dependence on tourism with large numbers of SME’s. There does not appear to be a perceived need for human resource development compared with larger destinations. These island states therefore do not have the capacity to build up a; ‘solid national base of skilled tourism workers through education and training’ (Conlin 1993, p149). The issues for human resources in the Caribbean can be summed up by saying; ‘we have failed to deliver it, pleasantly, courteously and professionally – everytime, everytime’ (Holder 1992 in Conlin 1993, p150).

Tourism education in the Caribbean does exist at a tertiary level but the programmes are seen as being under funded and having low status. A study at the University of the West Indies in the Bahamas identified that students studying tourism and hospitality became increasingly concerned during their study about the image of the industry and the poor terms and conditions of employment (Charles 1992 in Conlin 1993).

Conlin (1993) stresses the importance of institutional strengthening as a key factor for the success of human resources in the Caribbean. Programmes in tourism need to gain more respect from their institutions to gain necessary resources. He discusses a move towards this in the formation of several groups of educators such as Council of Caribbean Hotel Schools (CHOCHS) and also the Pan American Confederation of Hotel and Tourism Schools that are examining such factors as regional accreditation of programmes.

Training is also inconsistent across the Caribbean region and not seen as a high priority. Hotels do not adequately fund local training (as distinct from their own in house training) and there are not suitable foundations for progression in the industry. The result of this is an uncompetitive level of customer service (Bell 1991 in Conlin 1993).

The Caribbean Hospitality Training Institute based in Antigua runs a multitude of training programmes that can be adapted and customized to suit regional needs. It also assists with industry placements and provides other services such as scholarships and consultancy work (Conlin 1993). The training institute faces conflict with the international aid agencies in the region that provide free training. Free training is unfortunately preferred, regardless of quality; ‘The situation underscores the continuing lack of prioritization by the industry for human resources development and its failure to appreciate fully the linkage between education, training and the level of quality service necessary for success’ (Conlin 1993, p156).

In the early 1990’s an additional development for the region was the creation of the Caribbean Regional Hotel Training Project, a joint project of many educational facilities of the region as well as governments to establish an integrated education and training programme for the Caribbean region.
The Caribbean has been said to present a distinct case for tourism education. Small island states are more sensitive to the impacts of tourism because of size and frequency and intensity of interaction with tourists (Baum and Conlin 1995). These authors also point out that well educated, trained and motivated hospitality and tourism professionals are crucial to the industry’s success; ‘Tourism education is crucial not only in terms of supporting the industry but also in terms of responding to broader issues within tourism development that affect the wider society’ (Lewis 2005 in Lewis 2006, p14). Lewis (2006) discusses stakeholders that are critical to the development of curriculum and reinforces the need to consider the economic, socio-cultural and environmental issues relating to tourism development in the islands and the importance of consultation with all the stakeholders to develop education and training to meet the needs of the small island states (SIS).

Lewis (2005) maintains that SIS have features and experiences which make them distinct from developed countries. This is largely a result of the difference in the role that tourism plays in the economy and the resources that the industry is dependent on. She postulates that it is within this context that tourism curriculum must be developed. It must be timely and relevant and context related rather than context bound. Her research in three Caribbean islands found that curriculum needs to embrace both vocational and liberal elements (Lewis 2005). She concludes that the aims of the curriculum should; ‘prepare students to deliver better tourism services in the islands, services of a high quality with a high level of professionalism that reflect a positive attitude towards the industry … it should prepare students to contribute to the creation of an improved society in the islands. A society where the development of tourism is planned, there is proper stewardship of the natural resources and the local culture is preserved’ (Lewis 2005, p12). A key factor relates to the improvement of society and the lives of locals. Lewis (2005) believes that this is a crucial difference between the aims of most western curriculum and what a curriculum should be in an island context.
2.5.2 Asia Pacific region

Figure 7: Asia Pacific region map

Source: Jacaranda Atlas of The Pacific Islands
Tourism in the Asia Pacific region is a vast industry with 376,000,000 visitors in 2008 (PATA). Many Pacific governments have encouraged tourism as a means of economic development and as a source of foreign exchange. Tourism in the South Pacific island microstates offers the potential to decelerate outward migration and create employment opportunities although the small size and lack of suitable skills among the indigenous population is a limiting factor. The Pacific Islands, like the Caribbean, are characterized by MIRAB (Black and King 2002). A controlling factor is the cost of training an indigenous workforce relative to the resources of island governments. They therefore rely on aid (Burns 1999, Hall 1997, King 1996).

In a study of Vanuatu, Black and King (2002) noted that the Vanuatu Tourism Master Plan made little reference to human resource issues in enough detail to address training issues. One of the issues identified in the Vanuatu study, that has close parallels with Samoa, is the poor quality of basic education. They noted two particular threats to effective human resource development; ‘competition and suspicion of operators and sectors and fragmented and uncoordinated approach to tourism by aid organisations’ (Burns 1999 cited in Black and King 2002, p107). This indicates that funding for human resource development is inadequately integrated with tourism development and education.

Black and King (2002) and Burns (1999) describe the dependence of the South Pacific nations on foreign aid for tourism training. It is questionable whether this is good for the development of quality local training. A compounding problem is the financial capacity of governments and the competition of other projects for limited financial resources. Although many islands have policies and development plans emphasizing greater self reliance; ‘this is more rhetoric than reality’ (Hall 1997 cited in Black and King 2002, p115). The absence of resources means that dependence is a feature of the situation.

Usually development (including planning, policy and implementation) is funded by international aid agencies and carried out by professional consulting companies. This raises its own issues because of the potential lack of knowledge of pertinent research that could inform the work of consultants. Jenkins (1999) asserts that there is a fundamental difference between consultants implementation oriented work and academic research. The results of consultants work are usually confidential reports that are not able to be published and inform academic learning. Also the methodology used is driven by; ‘pragmatism and is informed by experience rather than theory’ (Jenkins 1999, p58). Tourism consultants are not necessarily aware of the latest issues, developments and concepts in the field yet they are the ones who are leading the developments.
As part of this international aid issue, there is also a need for the evaluation of training funded by public agencies in developing countries. Very little has occurred. This could be a result of the function of consultants rather than academics at the forefront of research in this area. There should also be evaluation to determine whether the training has achieved its objectives and been effective and this evaluation should influence further training and training related decisions and actions (Black and King 2002).

Training is usually evaluated using a euro centric approach that does not acknowledge cultural differences and focuses on the extent to which occupational standards are achieved. Further, evaluation studies should be completed to determine if overseas assistance to developing countries for tourism is the most effective (Burns 1999). Tourism consultants who normally complete this kind of aid work, operate in a business environment where work is contractual, project specific and profit driven and knowledge dissemination is through project reports, plans and studies. Most project work is funded by the World Bank, European Union (EU), UNDP, Asian Development Bank and donor country funding such as NZAID and AUSAID. They are often very large projects with parts then subcontracted to academics as project specialists (Jenkins 1999).

Other literature relating to the Asia Pacific region shows that decision making in developing countries about tourism is top down. Developments are based on the interventions of governments and large tourism businesses, often with the dominance of external (often foreign) capital that marginalizes local people (Liu and Wall 2006). Insufficient attention is paid by governments in developing countries to how the local people are going to be able to engage in the industry. Often there is relative neglect of human capital in tourism planning compared with infrastructure, marketing and transportation. Although human resources appears in planning documents it is often focused very narrowly. A policy-industry-locality framework can be a guide to reexamine tourism employment and tourism human resources in developing countries. This implies that it is important to move beyond the narrow boundaries of the industry to recognize ‘the profound effects that policy initiatives as a directive for future action have on local involvement in tourism’ (Liu and Wall 2006, p166).

The challenge in developing countries is to enable host communities to acquire control over the development and to assume productive involvement in the tourism industry. More attention needs to be given to increasing the capability of the host population. Many communities need the catalyst of external aid to make this happen (Hall 1996 cited in Liu and Wall 2006).
A feature of developing countries is the ‘development plan’ and the proliferation of these. In 1989, WTO established that there were over 1,600 country development plans (Liu and Wall 2006 cite Pearce 1989). These plans are generally created to facilitate international funding from banks or aid agencies. These plans however, are not meeting the needs of communities either because of the content of the plan or the lack of implementation; ‘they bear an altruistic face, integrating diplomatic interest, cultural exchanges, social improvement and even world peace but goals and objectives are often specified in numbers of visitors’ (Liu and Wall 2006, p169). The significance of people is often expressed in narrow quantitative terms, as in the number of jobs, whereas the quality of jobs and the qualification requirements are barely mentioned (Liu and Wall 2006).

Academics and tourism planners involved in creating plans, have recognized that it is essential to have community involvement in tourism, yet they do not articulate how this will happen and therefore it is seldom implemented. The tourism plan of Malaysia provides no mention of how the indigenous population should participate in tourism (Din 1997 cited in Liu and Wall 2006). In some plans the local culture and indigenous way of life have even become part of product development.

Tourism strategy implemented in developing countries is inherently government led and is prioritized to meet their own social and economic agendas (Liu and Wall 2006). In developing economies, deficiencies in human capital have been the main obstacle preventing the host populations effective participation in tourism. Large scale operators support the promulgation of education and training that are narrow in focus and relate to service quality and technical skills. There is an oversight of governments to see the connection between education, ability to deliver a quality tourism experience and the need to develop a sustainable tourism industry (Barron and Prideaux 1998 cited in Liu and Wall 2006). They also say that:

‘It is essential that the complex and dynamic relationships that exist between tourism policies and their effects on the structure and distribution of employment and the status of tourism jobs be evaluated in the human resource planning process for the tourism sector’ (Liu and Wall 2006, p165).

The planning process in the Pacific is also reactionary and uncoordinated and is often too heavily reliant on foreign aid. There is an over reliance on national governments to provide training and foreign governments to fund it. A collaborative and strategic approach to relationships in training and education for tourism in Pacific Island countries would benefit everyone as distinct from taking a reactionary approach. It is essential as the island states need tourism to survive. Countries that have provided courses of any kind have; ‘created
the foundation for other initiatives’ (Burns 1999 p103), such as the rural education and tourism awareness programmes in the villages of Samoa. Employers in the region understand that human resources are key to business success but this does not necessarily mean investment in people. There is a gap between the intellectual awareness of the value of training and that translating into actual activity as will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4. There is quite a disparity of views, some seeing training as essential and others viewing it as a waste of time given staff turnover and low occupancy rates in accommodation. There is often a lack of understanding of what constitutes suitable training. There is progress towards improvement of the training products but it is slow and uncoordinated and dependent on single people rather than strategic collective decision making.

Since the time of Burns (1999) writing on the subject there has been some significant developments in the Pacific, mostly with the recent implementation of the APTC. This development is primarily paternalistic in approach in that it has been designed to address skills shortages in Australia by training and recruiting in the Pacific Islands and has not been designed with a strategic view of increasing the capability of indigenous human resources, or the betterment of the Pacific people although this could well be a side benefit (this is fully described in section 4.4).

### 2.5.3 The Cook Islands

Recent research in the Pacific Islands by Catherwood and Twining Ward (2006) shows that the Cook Islands tourism currently contributes approximately fifty percent of the Cook Islands GDP and the industry is characterised by skills shortages, labour shortages and skills needs. There is a need for significant investment in tourism training to develop the skilled workforce required for the industry to be internationally competitive. Both general foundation skills such as customer service and cultural awareness and specific skills such as guiding and supervisory skills are lacking. Catherwood and Twining Ward (2006) also identify a lack of clarity of the roles and responsibilities of the organisations involved in human resource development.

One of the key outcomes of the research was to identify the need to link to a New Zealand certified training provider and to encourage the delivery of NZQA courses in the Cook Islands as well as enhancing workplace training options as well. This concept of applying the NZQA (and therefore New Zealand contextualized) qualifications and competencies into a Pacific Island has many potential repercussions in terms of relevance and suitability within another culture. This can also be said of the APTC scheme. The debate is about whether a
developed country education and training scheme and the skill and knowledge contained within it can simply be transplanted to a developing country. Given the research already discussed relating to emotional intelligence, experiential intelligence and social distance, (Baum 2006a) it is debatable whether this is a suitable solution or whether it will serve the needs of a developing country in a sustainable way.

There is discussion in the Cooks relating to the desirability for an accreditation system to ensure consistency of standards. They discuss the need for institutional strengthening of the Hospitality and Tourism Training Centre (HTTC) as a key requirement. The institute is currently grossly under funded and lacking in any kind of strategic planning. The current status of the HTTC shows inadequate support. It is; ‘underutilised, understaffed and underfunded. The situation is highly unsatisfactory and must be addressed’ (Catherwood and Twining Ward 2006, p20).

The research also identified that the perception of tourism as a potential career was weak with negative community perceptions and attitudes about work opportunities in tourism. There is also the poor image of the study of tourism compared with academic subjects in schools. A common theme in the research was that SME’s could not release staff for training and that there must be flexible, alternative forms of delivery. There is also little evidence of a strategic and co-ordinated approach to tourism education and training; ‘which would provide coherent and structured pathways to internationally recognized qualifications’ (Catherwood and Twining Ward 2006, p20).

The Cook Islands share the same issues as many other island destinations with a shortage of people across the industry, with a perception that jobs in the industry are undesirable, a lack of awareness about career paths and high turnover. In the case of the Cooks, jobs in the industry are seen as a stepping stone to traveling overseas. Similar to Samoa, more Cook Islanders live overseas than in the Cooks. There is a considerable lack of skills at the supervisory levels with little or no training occurring at that level. There is a need to encourage young people into the industry, to attract Cook Islanders to return and the need for a greater focus on productivity of workers.

2.5.4 Samoa

Samoa was the first Pacific territory to gain independence in 1962; ‘throughout 60 years under German and then New Zealand colonial administration Samoa retained its cultural independence. Fa’a Samoa, the Samoan way of life, pervades every aspect of life from birth to death, commerce to politics, architecture to musical expression, providing a unique and
authentic experience for tourists as does the varied geography of the islands’ (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p262).

Samoa has been described as being a middle order South Pacific destination, well behind Fiji and French Polynesia and remains; ‘small scale and in the very early stages of development’ (Pearce 1997, p263). In 1995, tourism was estimated to provide 1500 direct jobs and 500 indirect. Since this analysis tourism has remained small scale but recent changes to air capacity have increased visitor numbers and the general feeling about tourism is very positive.

The government of Samoa has always been concerned about the impact of tourism on cultural values and is therefore cautious about development. Tourism was still given low priority by the government in the Sixth Development Plan of the country 1988-1990 with the government constraining funding for tourism and refusing to formally endorse the Tourism Master Plan (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p263). Economic hardship in Samoa in the 1990’s resulted in the government having little option but to agree to the 1992-2001 Western Samoa Tourism Development Plan, created with assistance from the Tourism Council of the South Pacific. The plan stressed the importance of environmentally and culturally sensitive tourism. ‘Low volume high yield’ (ibid, p263).

Tourism in Samoa consists almost exclusively of family owned local businesses. There are growing numbers of beach fale accommodation (traditional Samoan houses with thatched roof and open sides), and growing numbers of restaurants, bars and night clubs. However; ‘despite the improvements in recent years tourism facilities in Samoa remain sparse and unsophisticated’ (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p267).

Islands inherently attract visitors because of romantic images, however tourism microstates nearly always suffer from issues such as limited air access (this is critical to arrival), limited domestic productivity, weak institutional organisations, and lack of human resources (Conlin and Baum 1994, Milne 1992). Samoa is no exception to this. Access controls every aspect of the visit: the price, length of stay and time of arrivals (Twining Ward and Baum 1998). Samoa is a medium long haul trip needing wide bodied jets and issues with carrying capacity and seat allocations for tours affect arrivals considerably. The recent addition of Polynesian Blue, in providing air services to Samoa, has improved the capacity and the cost of flights to Samoa. Increases in visitor arrivals have resulted.

Small tropical islands lack institutional, legislative and human resource capability (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, Milne 1992, Conlin and Baum 1994) and this is also the case in
Samoa. Organisations have improved in Samoa but still lack resources. The Samoa Visitors Bureau is described as; ‘small youthful and multi functional’ (Pearce 1997). The National Tourism Organisation (NTO), now Samoa Tourism Authority (STA), remains small and multi functional today. Human resource issues are significant in that the size and skill level of the domestic workforce remains a constraint to future development; ‘Human resources are still taken for granted and undervalued as a factor in the success of the tourism industry’ (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p268).

The Samoan way of life and hospitality are central to the experience of visiting Samoa. This can be viewed as a barrier to tourism development and progress in that there are complex land use rules, strong cultural values and strict communal obligations. Eighty-one percent of land is owned by customary landowners and this includes almost all coastal land. It cannot be sold or transferred. Despite these constraints it has resulted in a; ‘more socially equitable and ecologically sustainable tourism industry than is found in other Pacific Island countries’ (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p270). There are high levels of local participation that are not dependent on foreign investors and expatriate staff although it is noted that local people must be provided with sufficient training to allow them to gain formal employment in new developments.

The latest strategy document relating to Tourism in Samoa is the Samoa Tourism Development Plan 2002-2006 (TRC 2002). A number of initiatives funded by international aid agencies has strengthened and improved Samoa’s human resources situation but not to any great extent and this is possibly because Samoa has; ‘pursued a cautious planned approach to tourism development’ (TRC 2002, p18). With 157,000 arrivals planned for 2006, the size of the islands tourism industry is larger than the Cook Islands (87,681). The actual arrival numbers proved to be lower than this at 115,000 (STA 2007). The development plan states that there is a lack of common direction and limited resources and lack of focus. However the plan does not seem to particularly address how to create this focus and the recommendations are made at a micro level. It identifies that there needs to be greater coordination between training providers, industry, SBEC and STA and that this could be achieved through a newsletter. This seems quite trite in terms of the size of the issue and the lack of coordination, direction and lack of focus.

Human resource development is one of the seven key platforms for the development strategy however, again, the stated objectives are micro in approach. The key recommendations relate to improving staff training, awareness of tourism issues in rural areas and broadening the scope of business advisory services for small to medium businesses (TRC 2002). To meet these needs, specific action items are identified: a train the trainer
programme, Samoa and overseas study tours, continued workshop based training, tourism awareness programmes, and an expanded role and capacity of Samoa Polytechnic with a new Diploma in Tourism and expansion and enhancement of the existing certificate programme in tourism and hospitality. Tourism case studies should be introduced into secondary schools and increased coordination and information about human resources opportunities should exist (TRC 2002).

Issues that currently face the industry are the need for workplace training with a workforce in many areas that is drawn from the villages with no previous skill and knowledge and culture and social patterns that are very different from the visitors that are being served. This raises the issue as to whether the visitor should be educated rather than the workforce trained. Despite short courses being offered and on site training being delivered in the past, staff quickly fall back into old patterns if the training is not reinforced by supervisors on a consistent basis. The train the trainer concept is an attempt to focus on the supervisors and the consequent transferal of skills. These findings reinforce the previous discussion of Baum (2006a) relating to social distance and the requirements this places on education and training relating to development of experiential intelligence.

The development strategy also emphasizes the need to continue with the courses that support SME’s in basic business skills (TRC 2002). These courses are funded by foreign aid from New Zealand, as are workshop based training and tourism awareness programmes provided through the STA. Both New Zealand and Australia provide considerable aid to Samoa as do other countries such as Japan and China.

There has been ad hoc training relating to tourism through a number of agencies since the 1980’s. These were discussed in Chapter 1. Vocational training has been available at Samoa Polytechnic (now renamed National University of Samoa, Institute of Technology - NUS IoT) since 1999 through an NZAID project to upskill the youth of Samoa and to strengthen Samoa Polytechnic, (see Chapter 1, Section 1.5.2). The NZAID project ended in 2001 and was subsequently reviewed by Lincoln International (2001). The review was positive about the improvements that had taken place in hospitality but there was concern relating to communication skills and the need to maintain the Samoan flavour as a natural part of hospitality. Employers also voiced concern about the level of English and communication skills of graduates.

The latest development of the APTC, described in Chapter 1 and later in Chapter 4, shows varying views about APTC as to which of the motivators for this initiative is more important. It certainly adds another dimension to the situation and reinforces the views of writers such
as Burns (1999) and Hall (1997) that foreign aid is critical to the ability of island states to participate in training for tourism given their small resource base.

Given earlier discussion about the skill required in a developing country context there is still much that needs to be done to enhance the education and training that is currently being provided in Samoa to ensure that skills needed in the experience economy are being developed. The education and training currently being delivered in Samoa is considerably more than in other islands in the Pacific such as the Cooks or Vanuatu, although new initiatives such as APTC are still not addressing the more holistic, generic skill development that Baum (2006a) suggests is critical to ensure that quality service is provided in island settings.

2.6 Conclusions

The literature review provides the theoretical frame for this research. The context of human resources in both a developed and developing world has been explored with similarities in both contexts but there are particular issues that affect island states. The role of education and training has been examined at an international level with particular emphasis on New Zealand as well as the Pacific Island context. Key themes have emerged relating to the perception of the industry, the value placed on people and the ambiguous role of education and training. This is all contextualised within an environment with very little comprehensive human resource strategic planning and development.
Chapter 3
Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter methodology for the research is explored. The essence of the enquiry is discussed and an ontological and epistemological position is established and the purpose of the research is identified. The intellectual puzzle is defined around key questions and the methodology explored. The methods of data collection and sampling are discussed. The interview process is detailed and participant profiles are outlined. The data management and analysis is described as well as the challenges of the research.

3.2 Qualitative research

The research process can be seen as a journey with a complex interplay of choices and decisions (Thomas 2004). The final decisions about research strategy and method are the end result of the connection between the researcher and the research paradigm which in turn is a result of ontological, epistemological and methodological positions (Denzin and Lincoln 2000).

Qualitative research falls within the interpretivist sociological tradition but as well it has a vast range of; ‘philosophical underpinnings and many methodological techniques and practices’ (Mason 1996, p3-4). She goes on to say:

‘These different traditions, schools and discipline operate with distinctive views about what makes the social world go around what is important in the social world, what the social world looks like and so on ... in my view it is a great strength of qualitative research that it cannot be pigeon holed and reduced to a simple and prescriptive set of principles.’

Qualitative research, being grounded in an interpretivist position means that it is concerned with how the world is interpreted, understood, experienced and produced. Qualitative research; ‘aims to produce rounded understandings on the basis of rich, contextual and detailed data’ (Mason 1996, p4).

As Denzin (1997, p220) said; ‘there are no stories out there waiting to be told and no certain truths waiting to be recorded, there are only stories yet to be constructed’. Goodson and Phillimore (2004, p4) say that with; ‘qualitative approaches the emphasis is placed on
studying things in their natural settings, interpreting phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them, humanising problems and gaining an emic or insiders perspective’. Eyles (1989, p207) said; ‘that qualitative methods all share the view that is the task of the researcher to uncover the nature of the social world through an interpretative and empathetic understanding of how people act and give meaning to their own lives’.

This research follows this qualitative approach, which is interpretative in nature. The focus is on quality and richness (Decropp 2004). As the research falls within the interpretative paradigm as described by Goodson and Phillimore (2004) or the constructivist paradigm as described by Guba and Lincoln (2005), it requires the researcher to be transparent about their methodology and justify their approach and that; ‘research should focus on the individuals role in the active construction and reconstruction of reality through interaction with others and the meanings they attach to various aspects of tourism’ (Goodson and Phillimore 2004, p40).

The research is specific, delineated and localised, it is experiential and reflexive. This type of research is described as the fifth movement of qualitative research (Denzin and Lincoln 1994). Social agents are central to the construction of knowledge and the researcher’s voice is one among many that influence the research process (Jamal and Hollinshead 2001, p67).

### 3.3 The essence of the enquiry

#### 3.3.1 Ontological position

Ontology requires the researcher to examine fundamentally what the research is about. The key question is what is the nature of the phenomena or social reality which I wish to investigate (Mason 1996, p11)? Hollinshead (2004, p64) says; ‘Ontological questions of perceived reality and human experience, underpin qualitative enquiry’. My view, in terms of this research, is that individuals hold attitudes and these attitudes are a meaningful component of the social world. Social reality can be established through the attitudes, beliefs and views of individuals. Their understanding, ideas and interpretation of reality constructs a view of the world. The stories that are told and my interpretation of them constructs social reality. My ontological position is that people’s knowledge and understanding and interpretation of the world are meaningful parts of social reality and my research questions intend to explore these understandings.
3.3.2 Epistemological questions

Epistemological questions are what we regard as knowledge or evidence of the social world. In other words, what might represent evidence of the social reality I wish to investigate? What are the principles by which social reality can be known (Mason 1996, p13)? My view is that evidence of peoples’ attitudes and views can be generated by gathering the opinions and viewpoints of individuals to construct the social reality. Attitudes and values are knowable and it is therefore possible to generate evidence from them. My epistemological position is that in order to gather data about these interpretations of the world it is necessary to interact with people and to talk to them and listen to their viewpoints.

3.3.3 The topic of research

The research is about the people who are involved in tourism and who generate a livelihood as a result of the tourism phenomenon. It examines relationships between various groups who work within tourism and the value that is placed on people and how this influences the progress and development of people who work in tourism.

3.3.4 Key questions of the intellectual puzzle

The topic of the research essentially creates an intellectual puzzle that can be fathomed as the research unfolds. Mason (1998) argues that the intellectual puzzle should link to the ontological and epistemological questions of the research. This intellectual puzzle will form research questions that form the; ‘backbone of the research’ (Mason 1998, p14).

The key research questions in a New Zealand and Samoan context are:

• Are people really valued in tourism?
• Is education and training valued by people working in tourism or is there a lack of value and what causes this lack of value?
• Is education and training for tourism effective?
• Are people developed in a manner that meets the need of the society in which tourism is a part?
• In developing countries is the western paradigm simply foisted on them in terms of development of people and is this appropriate and effective?
3.4 Purpose of the research

The specific research topic that follows on from the key research questions, and stated in Chapter 1, explores human resource issues in the tourism industry within the context of the Pacific with focus on New Zealand and the Pacific Island of Samoa, specifically analysing the effectiveness of tourism education and training. The findings of the research will be referenced to a wider context of human resources in both developed and developing countries. The research will aim to explore the similarities and differences that may emerge and conclusions that can be reached relating to current human resource management for the tourism industry.

3.4.1 Background

My role within the research must be acknowledged. I am inextricably entwined in the very topic I wish to explore. Researchers influenced by interpretivist inquiry, believe that the complex social world can be understood only from the point of view of those who operate within it. All findings are the product of the interaction between the researcher and researched and viewed as fundamentally value mediated (Holland and Ramazanoglu 1994 in Goodson and Phillimore 2006, p36, Guba and Lincoln 1998).

I have been involved in education and training for tourism and hospitality for the last nineteen years and have spent the last fourteen as a Head of School of Tourism and Hospitality in an Institute of Technology in New Zealand. Prior to that I held a number of jobs in tourism and hospitality. I have also been involved in the development of qualifications and educational resources at a national level in New Zealand and have held positions of advice and support to industry training organisations within the field of tourism. I was employed as a consultant in a NZAID project to upskill the youth of Samoa from 1997-2001 to develop tourism and hospitality education and training at the Samoa Polytechnic. The project was ostensibly successful but it is now seven years since the end of the project and many changes have occurred in Samoa since that time. The sustainability of the project outcomes were always questioned once the aid project was completed. I was very interested to see what has happened in the case of Samoa, post the NZAID project and to evaluate the effectiveness of a foreign aid project such as this and to assess what significant issues there are for the ongoing viability of education and training for tourism and hospitality in Samoa.

The work of Tribe (2003) has echoes of great resonance for me. This conundrum is a key question for the research. He reviews a tourism curriculum project in Moldova which he
says was both a success and failure. It was successful because it met the objectives agreed to with the EU funders but he says:

‘Far from being a neutral exercise in curriculum development, the project is saturated with taken for granted meanings and values. This in turn undermines the notion of meaningful bottom up participation and contribution. Rather the project is open to criticisms that its implicit values and meanings - its ideological baggage - facilitate the process where a developing country - Moldova - may be subsumed into Western hegemony and neo-colonialism’ (Tribe 2003 in Tribe 2004, p56).

Other significant components of the intellectual puzzle are present in New Zealand, in terms of human resources in tourism and hospitality in issues with industry viability, poor service, low levels of management capability, declining numbers of people entering some pre employment training and increasing numbers of people embarking on traineeships in industry managed by ITO’s. It has raised the issue of the relevance of current education and training to meet the needs of industry and the New Zealand society and the models that are used to develop the education and training. I was also interested in how the situation in the Pacific Islands compares with the current situation within New Zealand and whether there are similarities between developed and developing world contexts.

I am aware that my role within the subject I wish to explore colours my views and that after many years of experience in a range of roles I have a voice but have not been able to fathom the intellectual puzzle that has given rise to the research. My voice underpins the research and for that reason I have wanted a wide range of other voices to be a part of the research and to inform it. Reflexivity is an essential part of this process. Hall (2004, p148) points out that it in terms of what we research it is impossible to ignore the personal. Yet it is usually ignored in discussion of tourism research; ‘The personal subjectivity of our experiences are vital to our choice of research paths yet are unacknowledged’ (ibid, p148).

Reflexivity is the process of reflecting critically on the self as researcher, the human instrument (Guba and Lincoln 1981). We must question and interrogate ourselves about our research, about how we shape the research but also in our interactions with research participants. The good and bad news of reflexivity is the duality of; ‘multiple selves that give rise to more dynamic, problematic, open ended and complex forms of writing and representation’ (Guba and Lincoln 2005, p210).

Galani-Moutafi (2000) refers to reflexivity as a the conscious use of the self as a resource for making sense of others, this requires researchers to acknowledge and question their own
culture and identity in order to provide insight into their understanding of themselves in the context of their interactions with others (Goodson and Phillimore 2004, p41).

## 3.5 Methodology

### 3.5.1 Qualitative research in the field

The emphasis in the research is to obtain depth and complexity of data. As a research strategy, qualitative research aims to generate theory out of research and places emphasis on; ‘understanding the world from the perspective of the participants and views social live as the result of interaction and interpretations’ (Goodson and Phillimore 2004, p4).

The decision was made in this research, to examine two contexts or cases, Samoa and New Zealand. Within each of these environments, individuals would be interviewed to gain their viewpoints relating to the intellectual puzzle I am attempting to fathom. These methods were seen to be able to generate the data that matches my ontological and epistemological position.

### 3.5.2 Case studies of Samoa and New Zealand

The wider issues of human resource management and valid and relevant education and training is considered in relation to the specific cases of the education and training that has been developed in Samoa and New Zealand. Case studies provide rich and detailed accounts (Burton 2000).

The case study as a qualitative research method is very useful in enhancing understanding of complex issues. Case studies provide detailed contextual analysis and explore their relationships. It investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context (Yin 1994).

Critics of the case study approach say that a small number of cases do not create reliable or general findings. The use of a single case has limitations in terms of analysis and its generalizability as well. A comparative approach is generally favoured, hence in this research the decision to look at human resources in two contexts, one developed country and one developing country. The method however depends of the trustworthiness and professionalism of the researcher (Vershuren 2003).
The results of a case study are in principle generalizable to theoretical propositions, not to populations or universes (Yin 1994). In case study research we rely on logical inference instead of statistical inference (Vershuren 2003). As well, analytical generalizations can be made from case studies (Burton 2000).

### 3.5.3 Indepth interviews in the field

The basis of interviewing people lies in the interest in understanding other people’s experiences and the meanings they ascribe to those experiences; ‘Interviewing allows us to enter the other person’s perspective’ (Patton 1990, p278). Rich data can be generated by interviewing people in a largely unstructured manner, bearing in mind that talking to people; ‘will not get inside their heads; and that interviews only provide insight into what is revealed in interviews’ (Mason 1996, p40).

Thirty-two individual interviews were conducted in the field in Samoa and New Zealand. These were with a range of stakeholders relating to tourism and hospitality human resources. In depth and mostly unstructured interviews allowed for the maximum amount of rich data relating to personal views, sensitive or possibly controversial information (Di Cicco-Bloom & Crabtree 2006). Interviews have been chosen to accomplish the aim of gathering qualitative experiential data.

Advantages of interviews are numerous and potentially the most important reason why we interview is to ascertain those things that we cannot observe (Patton 1990). There are other advantages such as adaptability, gaining face to face insights, the ability to analyse non verbal communication and to develop empathy. There is validity in the approach in that interviewers can ensure that the questions that are asked are understood by the interviewee by adapting wording or probing for greater meaning. Disadvantages of in depth interviews are that individuals may feel threatened by the intense process of examination (Di Cicco-Bloom & Crabtree 2006).

Open ended questions were used to encourage the free flow of responses and to allow for the observation of non verbal communication. A set of questions were used as a guideline for the interviews but the interviews were allowed to unfold in a free form manner to allow for depth of data (refer to Appendix C and D for the list of questions). Questions were asked in no particular order and were changed and adapted depending on the particular individual being interviewed. As Patton (1990) says of interviews, they should minimize the imposition of pre determined responses when gathering data.
Subjectivity and bias are obviously present in interviews in that the interviewer is directing the conversation and if the interviewer interrupts the interviewee it can change the direction and flow of the interview, especially if the interruption is an interjection of their own views (Burton 2000). This must all be considered in the data analysis phase.

### 3.5.4 Data collection

During the interviews, comprehensive notes were taken and this was supported by a digital audio recording of the interview. After each interview, which lasted between one and two hours, the notes were written up as soon after the interview as possible. The data from the audio recording was downloaded into a computer and stored to listen to and transcribe in full, building from the notes that had been taken. Pile (1990, p217) points out that; ‘verbatim transcripts of the tape recorded sessions provide the only viable data for this kind of analysis (of language)’. The interview material is both rich and full of language subtleties that provide individual flavor. Notes on non verbal communication were also made alongside the notes of the actual conversation. Photographic evidence was also gathered throughout the field work to support written evidence. Each interview transcript was stored in preparation for data analysis.

### 3.5.5 Sample

The logic behind sampling is to be able to make meaningful comparisons relating to research questions. The size of the sample should be determined to help in understanding the process rather than to be statistically representative of the population (Mason 1996, p97). The purpose of the sample is to both gain a close up look at the area of study and then to; ‘encapsulate a relevant range of units in relation to the wider universe’ (Mason 1996, p92). The range selected in this research is to gain a variety of experiences in different areas within tourism. As Mason (1996) points out, it is important to select a sample in a way that will test your explanation as well as support it. This will enable the researcher to examine ideas that do not fit in with their ideas and ensure greater reflexivity in the process.

The individuals that were chosen for interviews were selected on the basis of establishing a cross section of views across sectors and organizations, both public and private. In order to maintain confidentiality the names of interviewees have not been given but the views are categorized by the type of organisation in which the person is a participant. Given the size of Samoa, particularly, and the likelihood of easy identification of individuals, every attempt has been made to maintain confidentiality.
The majority of the interviews were in Samoa with twenty-four taking place in the month of October 2007. An additional eight interviews took place in New Zealand between January and April 2008. Fewer interviews were completed in New Zealand in part because of my integral role within the education and training sector of tourism and hospitality and my knowledge within this context and also because eight interviews was seen to be sufficient to gain a valid cross section of views. Although I have also played a part in the development of education and training in Samoa, it was time bound between 1997-2001 and I therefore felt that I have less up to date awareness of the context and therefore needed to gain more views from a wider group of individuals.

The interviews are listed below in the order in which the interviews took place.

**Table 2: Samoa**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewees/organisations represented</th>
<th>Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aid Donor</td>
<td>NZ representative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Organisation</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTO - Government Organisation</td>
<td>All sectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Management</td>
<td>Management NUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainer/Educator</td>
<td>Tourism NUS</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trainer/Educator</td>
<td>Hospitality NUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainer/Educator</td>
<td>Hospitality NUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainer/Educator</td>
<td>Tourism NUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism Educator</td>
<td>Hospitality NUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Organisation</td>
<td>Quality Assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Enterprise</td>
<td>Economist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aid Project Management</td>
<td>Trans government</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aid Project Management</td>
<td>Trans government</td>
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<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
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<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education Management</td>
<td>Ex NUS</td>
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<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
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<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Trainer/Educator</td>
<td>Ex NUS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: New Zealand**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Training Organisation</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Tourism Organisation</td>
<td>All sectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainer/Educator</td>
<td>Tourism and hospitality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Sector</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Operator</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Training Organisation</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Organisation</td>
<td>All sectors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5.6 Selection process and ethical considerations

Gaining access, which is critical to the research process (Burgess 1998), was made easy for me because of my professional involvement with the people being interviewed. I think this gave special privilege in conducting the research and I am mindful of that privilege in terms of ensuring confidentiality of participants and their viewpoints.

**Samoa**

All participants in Samoa were contacted by my previous counterpart in the NZAID project from 1997-2001. She has a position within Samoan society of some rank and has access to a wide range of people. She introduced the research to them and in many cases the individuals approached, were people that I had met during the time of the project. The individuals were selected to get a cross section of views, both in terms of parts of the industry and different organisations, but also geographically within Samoa as well. I personally communicated with the Vice Chancellor of the National University to seek permission to complete the research project and to interview various members of staff of the university. I also sought support from NZAID in Wellington. The interview schedule was set up prior to my arrival in Samoa, but was modified on my arrival, largely due to the availability of some individuals. At the beginning of each interview the interviewee was given information sheets relating to the research which detailed the purpose of the research. They were also asked to sign consent forms to participate in the research. These forms had been approved by the Human Ethics Committee of Otago University prior to the fieldwork.

**New Zealand**

The eight interviews conducted in New Zealand between January and April 2008 were selected based on geography to gain perspectives from around the country, from organisations both public and private, from a variety of sectors and job roles to gain contrasting views. I made the contacts myself and, just as in Samoa, at the beginning of each interview the interviewee was given information sheets relating to the research which detailed the purpose of the research. They were also asked to sign consent forms to participate in the research.
3.5.7 Data management and analysis

If many voices compete for researchers' attention during the data gathering process, there are certainly no fewer voices striving to be heard during the process of information analysis (Russell & Kelly 2002).

Similarly, from another viewpoint:

‘all texts metaphorically speak with many voices … it is up to researchers to listen carefully to these voices and to listen especially carefully to the voices that are quietest and to those that may be absent. Reflexivity requires that we suspend our judgment, our propensity for foreclosed inquiry, and our enthusiasm for the early answers that usually seem to present themselves … we must overcome our passionate wish to draw conclusions. We have to sit with the information at hand long enough, and with enough openness, to understand not first what it says, but rather how it wants to talk with us.’ (Manning and Cullum-Swan 1994, p469)

This process of suspending judgement was essential to the process I followed during the analysis of the data. The method described by Stroh (2000, p211) was followed to analyse the data. Each interview was read through thoroughly, and re-read, after the verbatim transcribing of the data. Words or phrases or concepts were circled that reoccurred in the text. The circled words were linked together and the process of coding began. These codes were then used to establish themes that emerged in the text of all the interviews. At the completion of this analysis for each case of Samoa and New Zealand, a table was created with themes in one column and examples of rich text that exemplified the themes in the other column. All the text that related to these themes was identified and catalogued. The original transcripts were then checked again to ensure that nothing had been missed and that all themes had been identified. The themes were then categorized into more general overarching themes for discussion in the findings chapters. This process was completed manually, although I did consider the use of a computer program. The task was relatively straightforward and the amount of data was not too onerous to manage the process manually. Categories and subsequent themes clearly manifested themselves.

The findings were then written up for each case/context and form Chapters 4 and 5 of the thesis. The themes are interpreted and discussed with key quotes from the text provided, to exemplify and validate the interpretations.
At the end of each thematic section a conclusions section is written that links the findings back to the literature and the theory relating to the subject. There are five conclusion sections within Chapters 4 and 5 with links to the literature.

The final chapter of the thesis draws on a number of salient points discovered in the research process and with a reflexive view, key conclusions of the intellectual puzzle are explored which provide further reflection and identifies factors for further exploration.

### 3.5.8 Validity

Key questions relating to the analysis of the data lie in validity. Are the findings sufficiently authentic that I may trust myself in acting on their implications? Would I feel sufficiently secure about these findings to construct social policy or legislation based on them? Another key question relates to interpretative rigour. Can the constructions be trusted to provide knowledge of a human phenomenon? (Guba and Lincoln 2005, p207).

I am expecting that the accounts of the participants views will provide the experiential and social data that will bring validity to the research. As Guba and Lincoln (2005) point out there is no final answer as to whether our inquiries are faithful enough to human construction to act on them. These authors also discuss authenticity criteria as hallmarks of valid constructivist inquiry. Fairness is when all voices are apparent in the text, ontological and educative authenticity relates to a raised level of awareness by research participants (and reflexively that must include the researcher). Catalytic and tactical authenticities refer to the ability to prompt action, both social and political from the research (ibid, p207).

Validity is also discussed by Richardson (1997) with the crystal as metaphor. Guba and Lincoln (2005, p208) say this of Richardson’s concept:

‘The metaphoric solid object (crystal/text) which can be turned many ways, which reflects and refracts light (light/multiple layers of meaning) through which we can see both wave (light wave/human currents) and particle (light as chunks of energy/elements of truth, feeling connection, processes of the research that flow together) is an attractive metaphor for validity. The properties of the crystal as metaphor help writers and readers alike see the interweaving of processes in the research: discovery, seeing, telling, storying, re-presentation’. 
3.6 Challenges in the research

There were challenges in the research relating to gathering data in two cultural contexts and the logistics of this but more importantly the fact that I was in Samoa to analyse something that I had been responsible for creating and similarly in New Zealand, in my role I have made decisions about education and training that have influenced other people’s lives. I am aware that in embarking on this research I have reached conclusions about the value of much of this education and training. It was therefore critical that I did not lead or influence interviewees in expressing their viewpoints and that I suspend judgment about what I heard until the data analysis stage.

A significant challenge was knowing when to stop the interview process, when was the sample large enough? As Burton (2000) says one way to gauge when to stop is when nothing new is being revealed in the data. I think I reached that point, although the desire was to always seek more views.

I found the process of note taking during the interviews was very helpful in focusing on interviewees’ words which helped in the process of suspending judgment. I do not think it would have been good to only rely on tape recordings in the interview process. This was a good decision in that the tape recorder malfunctioned a couple of times so my notes were essential to have recorded those interviews. Conversely the tapes themselves represented linguistic and emotional content that is rich and dense and of significant value for the research findings, without it the data would not be as potent.

Perhaps the greatest challenge is to be able to show in my findings and conclusions that I understand and am engaged in my own position, standpoint and analytical lens in a reflexive sense and that I have attempted to read my data from alternative interpretative perspectives (Mason 1996).

3.7 Conclusions

This chapter has described the essence of the inquiry within qualitative research and has described the research process from the formulation of the intellectual puzzle to the completion of the field work in Samoa and New Zealand. It has discussed the use of case studies and in depth interviews as the methods used in the field. Sampling is justified and the use of notes and digital audio recorders is discussed, data collection and analysis identified key themes and these are elaborated on in the following two chapters, enhanced by the use of rich text from the interviews to support the thematic statements. The chapter
has drawn on writers in the field of qualitative research to reinforce the discussion. Reflexivity is seen as an essential component of the research process. Challenges to the research have also been briefly identified.
Chapter 4
The Case of Samoa
Samoa Field Work

4.1 Introduction

There are a number of themes that emerged from the field work carried out in Samoa in October 2007. The interviews were analysed and themes have emerged in a number of categories. The findings are presented based on each theme and includes a brief description followed by quotes to provide evidence to illustrate the theme. The findings have been grouped into three categories: the state of the industry, human resources in tourism and education and training for tourism and hospitality. After each section, conclusions have been written that link to the literature on the subject.

4.2 The state of the industry

a. Growth of tourism

Tourism has experienced considerable growth in Samoa in recent years. Visitor numbers have essentially doubled in the last decade. The growth rate from 2001-6 shows about 5%.

‘The growth of the recent past of around 12% is not sustainable - probably more realistically about 3-4%.’ (government economist)

b. Role of the government in the development of tourism

There has been a gradual shift in the governments view about the value of tourism for the economy (see Chapter 2, Section 2.5.4) Their cautious approach now seems to be changing to a more proactive stance;

‘It is exciting because the government is putting some money behind it, in terms of marketing overseas.’ (trade organisation)

‘Tourism and hospitality is reliant on a government philosophy which is yet to be fully realized - Samoa has gone from total agriculture to having to diversify out of that scope and it is taking a while to appreciate it. In terms of dollar earnings tourism is still the highest revenue earner. It is taking awhile to appreciate it as a commercial entity and make that commercial entity grow. To make it flow there needs to be subsidies and support like in agriculture where farmers didn’t pay tax. The tourism industry is the opposite and the government is slow to appreciate.’ (industry operator)
c. Current state of the industry

There is a feeling of vibrancy and dynamicism in the industry. The level of involvement of Samoans and Samoan ownership of businesses within the industry is key to the success of tourism in Samoa. They are able to look at the development within other Pacific Islands and see how a country can be affected by tourism growth and development. They must also confront issues around legislation and most importantly, about the amount of foreign investment that is desirable for the country.

‘There is great room for growth, it is vibrant … it can be even more vibrant with greater airline seating capacity and connections into Samoa.’ (industry organisation)

‘The government is responding to foreign investment and are being proactive in the process but still balancing that with a fundamental cautious approach. They are very conscious of the fact that it is the people that make it what it is. It is clear in Samoa that locals are picking up stuff compared with other Pacific Island. They are very conscious of it. It is a very pretty place and people take pride in it.’ (industry organisation)

‘I like the way the industry has developed … there are lots of Samoan stakeholders compared with Vanuatu and Fiji. It gives Samoa a competitive edge - Sheratons are the same everywhere - here there isn’t that opportunity - it creates the difference, the eco tourism fales it is the difference that people talk about.’ (education provider)

‘It is developing at a rate of knots. I like coming here, Samoans are the stakeholders, you visit the country not the property.’ (education provider)

d. Infrastructure, controls and regulation for the industry

A current issue is around creating the infrastructure that is not in place at the moment that is required to support the industry moving into the future. The fragmentation of the industry with sector groups not working well together echoes the world wide situation. The industry is diverse and participants do not see themselves as part of a single industry.

‘The tourism industry has come a very long way in such a short time with major growth in arrival numbers and accommodation. It is growing too fast. The issues we talk about are whilst we want tourism to grow, we want it to be sustainable. We ask who do we want to be identified as? How does the world perceive us? We need strategies to determine how we develop the industry. We haven’t got the mechanisms in place, we haven’t got an Act - we need something to guide and protect us as far as foreign investment is concerned.’ (industry organisation)
‘Tourism is growing, definitely growing but we don’t have proper systems in place - there is a lack of coordination and industry doesn’t talk to each other.’ (industry operator)

‘Need to bring back a national plan, they need a new one and not done by consultants. A new tourism development plan needs to be done by Samoans - need to link to the labour market surveys. Government departments don’t talk to each other - STA needs to take the lead. Direction needs to link it to the labour market survey - link to the market needs. Government departments don’t talk.’ (government organisation)

‘The structures are there in Samoa but there are operational issues in tourism there are issues from the top to the bottom. Got to take it seriously - more people in the industry - need a Samoan product - it was identified in the last plan but industry needs to be much more involved in a new plan. We can’t compete with other countries.’ (industry organisation)

e. The type of tourism that is best for Samoa

A question at the moment relates to the type of tourism that is desirable. Is it a mass tourism model or a niche tourism model? Samoa is grappling with the dilemma that the country needs (some) foreign investment to create a critical mass of bed numbers and sufficient air capacity to ensure the viability of the industry but this needs to be tempered with wanting to maintain a niche market approach to ensure preservation of their culture and way of life.

‘Is it essential to have a big hotel? Yes it is maybe … 4 or 5 big resorts - or rather small boutique - niche market - more in line with the tourism that we think we are - cultural type experience, the relaxed atmosphere. We can’t have our cake and eat it too. We don’t want every chain hotel here is Samoa. The Warwick has been held up because of the land issue. In order for the marketing of the destination we need to open up the market, we are very mindful that we don’t want to end up with every chain.’ (industry organisation)

‘Samoa has been on the verge of a boom for the last ten years, a long coming verge. There is a lot of potential. It is good that there wasn’t a boom in the early years because the players had a different perspective of things in the early years. They wanted development for developments sake, now they have a better understanding of what has happened in other destinations. Samoa is not over developed. It is a rare advantage, we need to hang onto that advantage. It is tough to copy what Samoa has, unspoiled, uncommercialised, pristine.’ (industry operator)
f. Land ownership in Samoa and its impact on tourism development
Perhaps the greatest strength in terms of maintaining cultural integrity for Samoa is customary land laws. It does however have consequences in terms of the ability for foreign investment in tourism to take place. Eighty-one percent of land is owned by customary landowners, this includes most coastal land. Public and government land accounts for 11%, the government controls another 4% and the remaining 4% is private freehold land (TCSP in Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998). Customary land can not be sold or transferred and the land is managed by the local matai - the chiefs of each extended family (aiga). In order for land to be used the aiga must agree to its use (new legislation, a Land Reform Bill 2008 is currently being discussed by the Samoan government to liberalise the law and allow matai to sell land without consultation with the entire aiga). There are two methods for development of customary land. The land can be leased to a developer for 30 years with another 30 year extension or there can be a joint venture between the customary land owners and the investor. Negotiations over land are time consuming and cumbersome largely because all members of the aiga must agree to the transaction. This can take many years and has resulted in a number of developers withdrawing before the deal could be finalized.

‘The biggest hurdle is land - customary land laws. The land issue is still the biggest hurdle for tourism development. The finalizing of the land deals is what doesn’t happen. First you have to talk to the aiga, everyone in the family has to agree, then you have to post notices advising that there are plans for the piece of land. People can then dispute the lands and titles in court - it always happens - it is a lengthy process trying to resolve, partly because the control of the land seldom has any written records, judges take verbal testimony and the developer meanwhile will give up and leave.’ (industry operator)

g. General tourism awareness of the people of Samoa
A problem discussed by many of the people interviewed is the lack of awareness of the general population of the value of tourism. Some locals either do not like visitors or attempt to rip them off in some way. Tourism awareness training has been on offer in Samoa since the 1990’s with workshops funded by the New Zealand government. Consultants working on aid projects in the 1990’s identified that there was a need for education about the value of tourism to the country. As visitor numbers have grown there has been increasing negativity in some villages to tourists with examples of violence and stealing, despite the tourism awareness programmes.

‘Sometimes it is about teaching our people to embrace it. Samoan people to understand why tourism, why it is important, how to do tourism the p’s and q’s of it. We need to ensure that we are viable and interesting for travellers, not everybody at the village level
think about tourism - they think if I build some fales and provide hospitality I can make some money. People are seeing the dollar connection - we need to go further and a good campaign of awareness. We are still learning to work together - government and industry working together.’ (industry operator)

‘It is like when people stop to take photos anywhere and some idiot is coming out of the bushes - I don’t know what is in the people minds - not just to overseas visitors but us as well - and say that you have to pay. If it continues in specific villages we will black ball them and not send visitors there. I think in the more settled areas you may be lucky, “oh wave at the palagi they are taking photos” but if you are in isolated areas - there have been some very close calls - we don’t want that sort of image - we don’t need that sort of crap - does phenomenal damage to the industry.’ (industry organisation)

h. Samoan environment, hospitality and culture are key to the success of tourism

The Samoan culture and traditions and the pristine natural environment are key factors for Samoa’s tourism. Hospitality and the innate graciousness of the people in service roles is central to the visitor experience.

‘It is the hospitality aspect of the culture that differentiates us – tautua Samoa.’
(education provider)

‘Hospitality is integral to Samoa - it comes from the inside - this needs to be transferred into formal training. Education should build on cultural and natural resources.’
(education provider)

‘Hospitality - it all starts at home. Samoan style starts at home, eat a sardine all week and then visitors come in and we kill a pig.’ (education provider)

‘I’m also concerned that we don’t lose what we have don’t want to lose focus on who we are as people. Whatever changes are made we mustn’t lose ourselves. Tourism can be at the expense of our ethnicity. People come here because they want to watch our culture.’
(industry operator)

4.3 Conclusions about the state of the industry

There has been major economic transformation in the past decade in Samoa, with an annual average GDP growth rate of 3 percent (Vaii 2007). The fact that Samoa has been graduated from least developed country status by the United Nations General Assembly is very
significant in the development of Samoa as a country. It will have consequences in terms of the expectation on its ability to self manage and a potential lessening of foreign aid.

This economic transformation has come about despite the major impacts in the 1990's described by Twining Ward (1998) in Section 2.5.4. The introduction of Pacific Blue airlines to Samoa has meant a dramatic improvement in air services to the country with discount fares that has provided much needed competition to Air New Zealand. Thus, access is critical (Twining Ward and Baum 1998). The recent developments in Samoa make good economic news and show that there is now an ability to diversify from an agrarian economy. There is still however, dependence on remittances from overseas and on foreign aid, despite the change in its status. Island states are highly subsidized economies, characterized by MIRAB and TOURAB; Samoa is no exception (Gayle 1995, Black and King 2002).

Tourism in Samoa is not identified as an industry in its own right and reinforces the global debate about whether tourism is an industry or not (Baum 2006, Brocx 2008, Collier 2007, Hall and Kearsley 2001, Page and Connell 2006). With annual growth of tourism at around 5% with some peaks in growth of up to 12-13% in the last decade, tourism is beginning to generate numbers of tourists per annum that are close to equaling the population base of the Samoan islands. Tourism is currently small scale with no major international players involved. Ownership is predominantly local. Small resorts, located in beautiful locations such as Seabreeze Resort pictured here, are typical (see Figure 8)

**Figure 8: Seabreeze Resort Restaurant**

Source: Robert Corlett
There is general belief that the government has turned a corner in how it perceives tourism and after many years of reluctance to see Samoa become a tourism destination, there has been a gradual shift in the government’s view about the value of tourism for the economy. Pearce (1997) discussed that the government of Samoa has always been concerned about the impact of tourism on cultural values and is therefore cautious about development. The idea of ‘low volume high yield’ has proved difficult for the country which is still in the early stages of development, lacks the necessary high quality facilities and services to attract the luxury market (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p264). The Samoa Tourism Development Plan 2002-2006 shows a number of initiatives, funded by international aid agencies, that has strengthened and improved Samoa’s human resources situation, however Samoa has continued to; ‘pursue a cautious planned approach to tourism development’ (TRC 2002).

The level of involvement of Samoans and Samoan ownership of businesses within the industry is a key component relating to the success of tourism in Samoa and the flow on effect that this has in terms of creating a more authentic feeling to the visitor experience. The country is grappling with issues around sustainability in terms of culture and environment and the role that tourism plays within that. They are able to look at development within other Pacific Islands and learn from the experiences of other island states, while exploring some of the questions relating to identity and how culture can be affected by tourism growth and development. They must also examine the amount of foreign investment that is desirable for the country. The challenge in developing countries is to enable host communities to acquire control over the development and to assume productive involvement in the tourism industry (Hall 1996 in Liu and Wall 2006, p160). Many communities need the catalyst of external aid to make this happen. Samoa is an interesting example of a country that does have control over its own resources, yet it is still very dependent on foreign aid.

Samoa is grappling with the dilemma that the country needs foreign investment to ensure there is hotel development and enough air capacity for industry viability, tempered with maintaining a niche market approach, to ensure preservation of their culture. As one respondent said, ‘We need a handful of the big boys to ride on their backs while they take their money out of here’ (industry organisation). This is all exacerbated by land tenure, fa’a Samoa (traditional way of life) and village protocols, yet perhaps the greatest strength in terms of maintaining cultural integrity for Samoa is customary land law. It does have consequences in terms of foreign investment in tourism (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998). The customary land controls mean that developers lose interest and move elsewhere in the Pacific. This is the double edged sword of Samoan tourism and in many ways separates
Samoa from other island states in the Pacific. An industry operator pointed this out, saying, ‘without the laws in place it would all have gone for an easy buck. They would have sold their land and not realized the consequences until later’.

A current issue is around creating the infrastructure that is required to support the industry move into the future. There is generally a feeling that this is not in place at the moment and that organisations within the industry tend to talk past each other. The fragmentation of the industry with sector groups not working well together echoes the worldwide situation (Baum 2006b, Collier 2006). The industry is so diverse with many sectors that do not see themselves as part of one industry.

There is a perceived lack of awareness of the general population of the value of tourism. This is a common theme in more developed countries as tourism has emerged as a significant industry for that country. New Zealand first developed Kiwi Host in the late 1980’s to address this issue, having bought the “Super Host” programme from Canada. Canada had a similar problem with the host population’s general lack of awareness and negativity expressed to tourists. Despite tourism awareness training, Samoa is currently experiencing a range of negative interactions between tourists and local communities.

The intactness of the Samoan culture and traditions and their pristine natural environment are key factors contributing to their unique place in Pacific tourism. Samoan hospitality is central to the visitor experience. Samoa has a; ‘more socially equitable and ecologically sustainable tourism industry than is found in other Pacific Island countries’ (Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998, p270). There are high levels of local participation that are not dependent on foreign investors and expatriate staff, which again differentiates it from other island states, however local people must be provided with sufficient training to gain formal employment in new developments.

### 4.4 Human resources in tourism in Samoa

**a. Status of the industry**

Samoans view of delivering a service experience is complicated by the social structure within the country. The highest status in fa’a Samoa is to be served by others therefore occupations that involve others providing the service have higher status than being the one to provide the service. Young people who have opportunity for further education will be encouraged into occupations that reflect that status. The general trend for young Samoans who succeed in the education system is to leave the islands and go to either New Zealand or Australia for tertiary education opportunities. Many of these young people then return to Samoa and take
up occupations in government. There is a considerable number of well educated young Samoans in good jobs with an increase in the young intelligentsia. The people who are entering the tourism industry are generally those who have not done so well in the education system, or are those of lower social status, particularly in the hospitality sector.

‘People in our culture are funny they kind of look down on tour guiding almost like a cleaning kitchen hand/making beds ... look down on it … what does she know.’
(education provider)

‘A certain sector see it as a not very dignified career, it is just causal work.’ (education provider)

**b. Lack of career paths in the industry**

There is a lack of understanding of career paths and where a job in tourism will lead. Many of those that do enter the industry are not necessarily demonstrating management potential, based on their educational and social background. There appears to be a real lack of knowledge of potential supervision roles and a major lack of suitable candidates to assume these roles. If there was a clearer understanding that there is a pathway, maybe the industry would retain staff. Most businesses owners use family members for supervision roles because of a lack of staff they can trust and who have the skill and knowledge to perform these supervision roles.

‘We have always tried to drum into staff that they can make a career out of it … we show them where they can be we need managers, we would like to be able to leave the keys with someone and pay accordingly … in 8 years time you may be the manager and we push that through to staff.’ (industry operator)

‘Constantly show them the highest level they can go to, they don’t have to be just a runner a bartender, they could be duty manager, maitre’d and if there are scholarships so that they can be put through management courses I would like to see our staff being pushed.’ (industry operator)

‘People coming into the industry need to see the highest level they can aspire to. They need to be exposed to the industry from school, it needs to be embedded earlier - young classes 9-10-11-12. It is good for industry too to be out there marketing themselves.’ (industry operator)
c. **Cultural and social differences**

There is a lack of shared understanding between the Samoans working in front line supervision roles and the visitors they serve. A significant issue for the industry is the ability to attract people into the industry who will be able to provide a quality service experience. There is also a perceived difference between the village people and the town people in terms of their ability to represent their culture in an authentic manner. Differing cultural norms also are a factor, where employment fits in with cultural priorities remains a challenge.

‘The way people live in the villages - especially in the outskirts hasn’t changed. People live in houses with no walls and share communal toilets - that is what they are used to so they think differently - we need to change the way they are thinking - can’t change how they are living. Leave your problems at the gate. Got to look at when you come through that gate you have to think I am here to clean for palagi. I show them pictures of how they (palagi) live - it is a matter of trying to change the way of thinking - about what is good enough for them may not be good enough for guests - education is needed into different lifestyles out there that they are not used to what you are used to.’ (industry operator)

‘You can easily tell the students from the outer villages rather than ones being brought up in town. Town students are very global, they think they know it all, they come out to be cultural oriented rather than being global oriented, they want to do a night club tour. I say be cultural rather than town focused. For the village students they have the gift of the gab, for Samoan lingo, some of them are really gifted in the formal village language. The village is the classroom, good at formal learning of the traditional, they are more intact about the culture.’ (education provider)

‘In Apia it sounds like they are European already, they are losing their legends - fagogo (folklore).’ (education provider)

‘Work ethic is an issue, the Polynesian approach to work, village and family activity take precedence to work - the challenge for us - being Samoan ourselves we know how to work with it … it is trying to compromise and meet them half way and be understanding towards their requirements - very difficult when you are trying to run a business. We all have cellphones now, there are no more excuses with cellphones for not letting you know, they can check in, I don’t know how many times their mum and dad have died. All of our staff is from the village.’ (industry operator)
d. Honesty of workers

The honesty of staff represents a significant problem for employers. This is linked to social and cultural values as well as the amount that staff are paid compared with the wealth of the visitors. Within Samoan culture, ownership is collective and things belong to the aiga rather than the individual, so the sense that the individual belongings of guests cannot be touched or taken is a foreign concept. More importantly, staff are paid very low wages and they have significant personal financial demands of making payments for cultural and religious events. They see the money in the till or the guests wallet with lots of cash and the temptation is too great. Samoan tourism businesses rely on family members to be the money handlers because of issues with honesty.

‘There are so many girls in and out-light fingered. If they are educated enough they are light fingered, sometimes they have the knowledge but they are not honest.’ (industry operator)

‘Trust factor and honesty is an issue - has to be family that you employ … outside the family you cant have someone else manage the place … the temptation to strong there is so much pressure with family, falafa lave … church and very little money. They take it without thinking.’ (industry operator)

e. Pay levels and transience within the industry

As discussed above, tourism is not a well paid occupation in Samoa; in fact the pay rates are very low. Front line jobs pay starts at around $3Tala per hour (less than $2NZ). This does not make the industry attractive and if the pay rates are not competitive with other industries, the likelihood is that people will not be retained. Those interviewed highlighted a general trend for transience in the industry and a high level of movement between jobs and to other industries.

‘Samoan rates are very poor - don’t think about the money I say to them. There should be a rate set by the Dept of Labour so training is recognized.’ (education provider)

‘Staff are very transient, they move around. You put time and money and then they up and leave. Especially the men. Women are more stable, more long term, men are more fickle, if you tell them off they get in a huff, they don’t come back. Women have children, they have more stickability.’ (industry operator)

‘There is a high turnover in the resorts, those that get some training and they bugger off to New Zealand and Australia.’ (industry operator)
f. Fear of employers that if they train staff the staff will leave

There is a fear that if people are trained, they will have expectations of higher pay. Employers cannot afford to pay more and are scared to make the investment in training. If staff are trained they will want better conditions and pay. Employers therefore do not advocate for training and upskilling. This in turn means that staff feel no loyalty and will look for other work.

‘Staff also need to make the commitment themselves if they want to improve pay and conditions they need to fight to upskill whether they pay for it or the employer pays for it. It is a personal call to improving oneself, if I was earning $2.50 an hour and I knew if I did this course I would double my pay, I would go for it. If it also means I might be moving to another property and if there is a chance to continually improve my pay and improve in the hierarchy.’ (industry organisation)


g. Lack of trained staff reflecting in service levels

The opportunity for in house training once staff are hired is also very limited with a lack of on the job training as well as a lack of off the job opportunities for those already in employment. This has a flow on effect onto the quality of service provided to visitors.

‘Service delivery does not meet the expectations of the middle of the road western tourists however go to Fiji or Vanuatu for that or stay home.’ (education provider)

‘In Samoa there are a lot of educated people but not enough in the service area - just that the industry is in its infancy once they realize that there is a career to be made.’ (education provider)

‘We do not have the manpower - the skilled workforce that’s a fact - we have been talking quite a bit with the hospitality guys at NUS - if we are going to grow the industry we must have the manpower - the skilled workforce. Our industry is closing in on maturity - it needs people to take it to the next level.’ (industry organisation)

‘Biggest issue is not enough resources and effective management of them. There are no refresher courses. One of the biggest problem with attitudes - people get trained up and it is all fine and a couple of months later they are back to where they were. Needs to be ongoing support.’ (industry operator)

‘Also with training I find - maybe it is because I am getting the ones who haven’t much education - it is the level of remembering things, retaining information seems to be a
struggle for people here, they will quote to you from the bible but to get them to do the cleaning the same way, I say why didn’t you do this - they say “oh I forgot”. If anything is broken we say let us know - three or four days later we find something broken and we say why didn’t you report it they say I forgot - because it is acceptable in their house to have broken things they don’t notice. There have to be continuous reminders. The difference in lifestyles.’ (industry operator)

4.5 Conclusions about human resources in tourism in Samoa

The relative status of tourism as an industry compared with other industries or occupations is low. The Samoan view of delivering a service experience is complicated by the idea that the highest status in fa’a Samoa is to be served by others, so young people who have opportunity for further education will be encouraged into occupations that reflect that status. Occupations that involve being a service giver have lower status. ‘Service not seen as a status role - those who serve and then those who get served - everyone wants to be served here!’ (industry operator). Currently it is generally those of lower social status who enter the industry, particularly in the hospitality sector. The relationship between service and servility remain a significant problem in terms of status and social distance remains a major issue in developing countries (Baum 2006, Butcher et al 2004).

There is a lack of understanding of career paths and where a job in tourism will lead. Young Samoans who are successful in the education system go to either New Zealand or Australia for tertiary education. This means that the people who are entering the tourism industry are generally those who have not done so well in the education system. Many of those that do enter the industry are not necessarily demonstrating management potential. This reinforces research conducted in the Cook Islands (Catherwood and Twining Ward 2006).

Closely related to the type of person entering the industry are issues around shared understanding between the hosts and the visitors and what this means for the quality of the visitor experience. A significant issue for the industry is the ability to attract people into the industry who will be able to provide a quality service experience. Village people and town people may represent their culture in a different manner. There are also different cultural norms between hosts and visitors and different views about the value of employment versus other cultural priorities. Their views do not coincide with the western model (Baum 2006a). This raises the issue that international hospitality is firmly rooted in a western paradigm. Workers in a western context will have a shared understanding with the guest, however in
developing countries there is a significant gap between the worker and the guest. In less developed countries, the social distance is considerable (Baum 2006a).

The honesty of staff which represents a significant problem for employers in Samoa and also relates to the idea of social distance (Baum 2006a). This is linked to differences in social and cultural values as well as the glaringly obvious difference in the wealth of guests versus staff. Differences in values relating to ownership exacerbate the situation. The very low wages and social demands of fa’a Samoa complicate this even further. Owners of businesses feel they can actually only trust members of their families with money handling.

As a result of low pay rates the industry is not attractive and people are not staying in the industry. There is a general trend for transience in the industry and a high level of movement between jobs and to other industries. This reflects worldwide trends. Tourism is characterized by inter-business mobility as well as movement in and out of the labour market (Riley 1993, Baum 2006b). Linked with this is the fear that if people are trained they will have expectations of higher pay. Employers cannot afford to pay more and are scared to make the investment in training and then the staff will want better conditions and pay. Employers therefore do not advocate for training and upskilling. This Samoan example reflects the inherent contradiction that exists in the worldwide industry (Baum 2006b). ‘Give them better pay - why would they leave if you pay them well. Pay peanuts get monkeys. There are some employers who invest heavily in their staff and will pay for the training-others that I am worried won’t support it because if staff are upskilled they are scared they will ask for more money and if they don’t get it they will bugger off somewhere else, there is a bit of a dilemma there’ (industry organisation).

The industry has grown rapidly and many of the people who are entering the industry have not been trained, and in fact many appear to have little basic education. Plus, in house training or off job training for those in employment is also very limited. This is a real dilemma for the industry given the fact that the literature shows that this has a flow on effect onto the quality of service provided to visitors. The need for emotional intelligence and culturally and participation induced experience skills and experiential intelligence remains a huge problem (Pine and Gilmore 1999, Schmitt 1999, Baum 2006a). Hence the tool box of skills required to work in tourism and hospitality requires far more than a basic education in order to provide the experience for sophisticated visitors travelling to island states. The challenge for employers in developing countries is how to bridge the gap. This requires action in terms of recruitment and training as well as in suitable education programmes.
4.6 Education and training for tourism in Samoa

a. Cost of training in island states

The resources available to deliver training of any kind in Samoa are limited both in human and physical resource terms and effectiveness needs to be measured in this context. This begs the question of what is then appropriate and how you measure its effectiveness.

‘Australia has a population of 20 million, New Zealand 4 million, Samoa 200,000 - the infrastructure costs could never provide the level that the Australian and New Zealand training systems do. New Zealand and Australia’s budget for education it is about 8% - Vanuatu’s budget for education is 26% of GDP (primary, secondary and post secondary). This is a disproportionate amount and it is not providing the outcomes that Australian and New Zealand education systems do. Training should be consistent with standard of living.’ (education provider)

b. The need for innovative people to lead the training related to the quality of current teaching staff

The availability of people to lead the training is a critical risk for the ongoing quality of training that is sustainably Samoan. Aid donors supply developing countries with human resources to lead development, but once the aid donors have left, it still requires Samoan people to be engaged in the training to ensure its ongoing viability.

Samoans also have to have the skills to become the teachers for each vocational area. With a limited resource base this is extremely difficult. It is one thing to work in industry and it is another to be a teacher of it. This is an issue in both a developed or a developing country. This requires developing new skills and not everyone is a teacher.

There is also a lack of understanding on the part of industry about what exactly pre employment training is capable of achieving in and of itself. The expectations of industry are very high.

‘It is not up to standard here. It is better to introduce the programme rather than not have it but we need proper lecturers. Hand it over when you have got the right people to do the job. Come here, dump it and say take it or leave it. If the pool of people (to be teachers) is too small why do it at all. To me it is a fake, it is not up to standard.’ (industry operator)
‘If I have a child I would never send them there. I would send my children overseas where the proper lecturers are … if I have a child that I want to put into tourism I would rather send them overseas.’ (industry operator)

‘The selection pool for staff is awfully shallow. This is a fact of life you have to live with what you have got. Administrators at NUS weep - there are pockets within the place that are delivering but if you don’t have good educators to deliver, who can interpret the curriculum, have learning management skills, assessment skills - all the teacher skills - you need a critical mass of people to make it work. The government has achieved good graduates … maybe now graduates coming back (from overseas) are going to go in to the private sector, that is emerging, they will own and run and succeed or fail in Samoan businesses.’ (education provider)

‘What isn’t working? There are two sides to the story. The connection between industry and training is critical to its success … there has to be communication and connection. You also have to put the right people in the right place. Industry is also really clicky. It is about being the initiator. We can mould the people to what is needed - we need the right people going in to the industry. It was all happening once.’ (ex education provider).

Not just anybody can become a teacher, you need to be a special kind of person, it is so hard to get good trained people.’ (industry operator)

c. Perceived value of off the job training at the NUS IoT

Many of the comments in the previous section show a lack of respect for the teachers and this has a flow on effect into the way in which off the job training is valued in general. There are mixed responses from those interviewed with a general sense that the training must add value but there are questions about the way in which the learning is delivered and about the gap between what is taught off the job and the reality of on the job requirements. Many of the comment show a lack of understanding about what is actually happening in the training environment and an expectation of the ability of the training provider to produce a product that is industry ready. The other side of this is that students may know more after their training than the industry operators who employ them.

‘The training at Samoa Polytechnic has really improved the situation - there is a professional element to the service.’ (industry operator)
'Industry is very keen on supporting NUS - really we are very keen to support them. We realise if we don’t support them we are not getting the personnel we are looking for.’
(industry operator)

‘Training has not noticeably improved things … I know what training is like with the Samoans after about 4 minutes they are staring off into the blue yonder or asleep - you need to engage them. Training needs to be engaging - must do demonstrations - look for the funny side - make the connection with humour.’  (industry organisation)

‘To be perfectly honest they try to do their best with what resources they have - some of the kids we have hired - its more than just skills - there has to be an attitude about the business – professionalism - attitudes about service.’  (industry operator)

‘The students graduating now are the backbone of the hotels.’  (industry operator)

‘A student on work experience is setting up in the kitchen. He sets up and the head chef says, “ok, hey you spend more time in your setting up. Get on with cutting it”, when he finished the chicken he went to wash the board and said, “where is the board for the salad?” and the chef says, “no it is the same board, for vegetable” so he went to wash it and the chef said, “no just sand the board”. He told the chef off and he said, “that is what you do in school this is what we do here”. It makes me sad they only have one cutting board. The head chef had very bad habits. The students get the experience about food hygiene and go into the industry and can’t put it into practice.’  (education provider)

d. Industry disengaged from training providers
Communication between industry and training providers is not effective. Industry advisory meetings, visits to industry and the use of industry speakers seems to have dwindled considerably in the last few years. It is vital for input from industry into training, to increase their involvement and participation in both the training and the employment of graduates from the programmes.

‘The industry has come a long way - education and training has come to a standstill. Industry make mention of where it is at the moment. The relationship between industry and school is no longer - no follow up with students and industry.’  (ex education provider)

‘Industry forgets that we exist - they need a constant reminder - like a reminder that I am here - if I am not doing a good service for these students what is the use.’  (education provider)
e. Industry expects too much of training providers
There are high levels of expectation about training establishments and what they are capable of achieving. It is as if industry operators imagine that providers can make a silk purse out of a sow’s ear. In a sense there is a level of naivety on the part of operators and a lack of clarity about their own obligations in the process of human resource development.

‘They expect too much and even when we explain ourselves it is still not enough.’
(education provider)

‘Expectations of industry are very high - it is intimidating for students - they need practice in the real environment.’ (education provider)

f. The need for on the job training and who should deliver it
There is a perceived need for more on job training. It is seen as essential to get service to the right level. It is clear that there is a real gap at this point in providing any on the job training. The lack of suitably trained supervisory managers who are able to provide good in house training to staff complicates the situation. The question of who provides the training remains central. Whether there is a role for the NUS in the delivery of the training is an ongoing question. There is the perception that the staff at the NUS IoT are not suitably experienced or qualified and that the institute can not respond to the training needs of industry in a timely fashion. Staff at the NUS feel that they should be providing the training.

‘Industry need to be willing to take on training - there need to be coaches in industry and we need short courses to be built into the structure of the school.’ (education provider)

‘Industry has expanded a lot more and people will be prepared to invest … to go forward a lot more of industry need to see that they need to continue to put their staff into refresher courses, regular training once or twice a year.’ (industry organisation)

‘We need both on and off the job - on the job training is when they can apply what they have learnt. They need to see the stuff applied in reality to see how it works.’ (industry operator)

‘We wanted to establish an in house training scheme - it was a very expensive exercise … and make it available to other properties - didn’t actually work out, we didn’t have the means to keep it going, we couldn’t sustain it.’ (industry operator)
'It is a role that polytech should be having but there is room for locals with a level of excellence, to run classes. We don’t want to have to wait for polytech, for they have to go through quite a process. If we feel that someone needs a refresher we can slot them in.’ (industry operator)

'We use STA for training once a year when they provide the training. Unfortunately the NUS doesn’t recognize or help with one or two day courses. There’s is basically term or year course.’ (industry operator)

'STA do the courses once a year - it is not enough when they have them once a year you think I need to send new staff but older staff need refresher If the NUS provided this kind of training it would be most attractive.’ (industry operator)

g. Training opportunities and careers in the industry need more awareness and more marketing

Awareness of tourism as a career and the training opportunities that are available are not well understood in Samoa. There is considerable discussion about the need to recruit the right students into training for tourism. At the time that students are making career decisions, the awareness of tourism is not high enough. This leads to recruits for training programmes and industry often coming from the pool of low achievers in the school system. This then has a flow on effect into the quality of people that leaves training institutes to enter the industry.

'As part of the career days they should be out there talking big time - it has been suggested that we work with them and put on a trade show and have the students come in and see how exciting the industry is. Really important for them if they knew what they are doing. Just something I have been pushing for is - hospitality needs to be introduced at a really early level in the school curriculum - should be an elective at Year 9 then at Year 11 break into these subjects.’ (industry organisation)

'NUS also needs to be more aggressive about marketing themselves and the programmes they have to offer - there is very little advertising or what they do at NUS - they also need to do a better job of putting their case forward to obtain more of the finance purse - a better business and marketing plan required - need to make an extra effort - a good marketing brochure endorsed by the Tourism minister promoting training in T&H. They can do a lot more to get the money - if they come up with a good case it is impossible to turn it down.’ (government organisation)
h. The introduction of the APTC to Samoa

The latest development is the introduction to Samoa of APTC. This Australian initiative will invest more than $15 million over 5 years into the Pacific, partly to ensure that people entering Australia have the skills to contribute to industries in Australia that are currently experiencing a skills shortage.

The timing of the commencement of the project directly coincided with the weeks of field work in Samoa. The topic of APTC was at the forefront of conversation. There were those that see it as a person gathering exercise for Australia and some are also concerned about the sustainability of the project and what happens when the Australians leave. There are also concerns about where the current training at NUS IoT fits into the scheme and whether the APTC will subsume that. Then there are those who are more pragmatic in seeing the value of it for Samoa even if it means losing a number of people overseas to work. Given that working overseas is generally seen as a benefit to Samoa as long as the people return, the introduction of the APTC can be seen as a benefit to the country. There is also the potential for it to lead to an increase in quality of delivery of teaching programmes at NUS IoT and better qualified staff and higher levels of service delivery. Staff at the NUS IoT clearly see the advantage in terms of getting resources that are needed and also see it as an opportunity for professional development.

The introduction of the APTC also raises the issue of the level of training currently being delivered at the NUS IoT. The curriculum designed in the NZAID project was at NZQA Level 2-4. The APTC programme is also designed at the same level yet the Australian trainers maintain that the APTC programme is at a higher level than the existing programme in Samoa. This raises the question as to whether the Samoa curriculum is currently being delivered at the correct level.

‘The Australian programme should be really positive because we lack the equipment - some of our books are 10-15 years old.’ (education provider)

‘They can’t get everyone to go to Australia - they pick the right person and leave the rest to do the work here.’ (industry operator)

‘Will the Australians actually build on or replicate? There is a clash there, potentially covering the same material.’ (education provider)

‘The Australian initiative is quite exciting. We need to raise the bar so to speak in terms of certification - lifting the plumb line so people understand.’ (industry operator)
‘Great if the Australians are bringing the qualified lecturers, that is great.’ (industry operator)

‘APTC are rushing it - seeing to a political agenda so it is up and running - why would you take people out of our community to develop their skills and have them migrate … it will fill the university coffers - the rent they pay but all the courses will have to be at night … its good - not good for Samoa but good for the industry.’ (industry operator)

‘APTC is initially in Samoa for 2 years - it is an evolution not a revolution. APTC bring in Australian vocational trainers that are not competing with local courses - it is complementing the local courses.’ (education provider)

‘It is a person’s individual choice as to whether they will travel to Australia - not everyone wants to leave Samoa, we know what life is like in foreign countries and the difficulties that can bring.’ (education provider)

i. **Areas where there are gaps in training**
The most obvious gap in training appears to be at a supervisory and management level where owners of businesses feel that they are unable to delegate to someone they trust outside of family members. The calibre of people coming through the ranks is not good enough to take up supervisory positions. Those that are in supervisory positions now lack the necessary skills to do the job well and provide on the job training to others.

‘There are lots of lawyers and doctors, we need hospitality managers and supervisors.’ (industry organisation)

‘First off for us what we would really like is that there is a good management level. After 12 years I would like to have management level to rely on.’ (industry operator)

‘Family businesses, it is always the family at the till - there is a lack of trust - staff being employed are earning $2T an hour - you don’t give them the temptation.’ (industry operator)

j. **The programmes must have a balanced amount of practical components and industry practice**
For the training to be effective, at the right standard and meeting industry needs the practical components must be delivered. This also means site visits to industry, industry speakers, well structured work experience. This also appears not to be happening effectively.
‘They need real life training - they need contact with customers.’ (industry operator)

‘Not enough real world and there are difficult constraints.’ (education provider)

‘People need hands on training - they have a short attention span - they need physical practical training. I have been hammering that into the curriculum guys here. All these long courses, one year and then they send them out on work experience and they have no idea. Short courses and then put them out there. There is far too much bloody talking on in there. Shorten the damn courses, make them shorter, keep them interested. Don’t try and impress them with long winded theoretical stuff. I think they are looking at shorter courses now.’ (industry organisation)

k. Level of English of students coming into training programmes and into industry

A key problem facing the NUS IoT and also industry itself, is students with insufficient English to speak with visitors. English speaking visitors constitute the largest numbers coming to Samoa. Teaching English in Samoan or spending valuable teaching time on English language rather than the curriculum raises the issue of the entry level to the training programmes and whether NUS is accepting students with insufficient language skills to successfully complete the programme and meet the expectations of industry.

‘Time spent on extra coaching for English is time taken away from the curriculum.’ (education provider)

‘They panic when speaking English and then don’t serve the customers well.’ (industry operator)

‘English was compulsory when I went to school - now the younger generation - more and more illiteracy - we interview in English - there are some that cannot put a sentence together - now they teach English in Samoan.’ (industry operator)

‘I tend to employ people who are Mormon or 7th day Adventist - they do schooling in English so these kids are bilingual. Through referrals I have been lucky. If there is a cleaning vacancy if they can speak English well I promote them through and they end up in the office. I move them then to where they are needed.’ (industry operator)

l. Quality of the students entering the programmes - links back to the experiential intelligence of potential employees

There appears to be considerable debate about the quality of the students who are being accepted onto training programmes at the IoT. This relates back to earlier discussion about
the quality of the available pool of people entering jobs in industry and their low levels of English. This also relates to the entry level of the programme and whether it is appropriate to meet the needs of the industry.

‘Elite students get scholarships and go away - the next lot go to the national university … the bottom feeders end up at the Poly.’ (industry operator)

‘Some of them are just not up to it.’ (industry operator).

‘I went back to the lunch at the Poly and it hit me that these kids are not up to scratch - need to say I think they need a refresher - Kids are not up to scratch no so slick this year - this year they have been floundering.’ (industry operator)

‘There are only so many of us with the intellectual capacity - majority of our people don’t have that - it is such a shame that they finish college and go back to the villages and sit on their backsides.’ (industry organisation)

**m. The attitudes of students**

Industry operators interviewed, expressed the view that some students do not demonstrate the attitudes that they would expect from graduates of training programmes. They either seem disinterested or do not demonstrate a good work ethic and in some instances appear to think that their training means that the tasks they are being asked to do are too menial or beneath them. When operators see these attitudes, they conclude that it is the fault of the training provider for not instilling the correct attitude in the students.

‘Students studying tourism and hospitality lack self confidence.’ (education provider)

‘The attitude is not good and it stems from the learning point. The kids who are taking these courses need to know that the economy is bad and that you have to work your way up … people come back from overseas with degrees and there is a lot of competition … My heart goes out to those kids.’ (industry operator)

‘A recent social event at Valima - a dinner - it was work experience for the certificate students to serve - it was absolutely appalling - some of the students got drunk - it was badly supervised only one student that tried - I wouldn’t employ any of them - the next day I rang people and said don’t employ anyone from the certificate programme.’ (industry operator)
n. Are the standards of the programmes being lowered to match the quality of the students?

The curriculum was designed at NZQA Levels 2-4 but potentially the level of the programme has dropped over time plus the entry criteria are not necessarily being enforced. There is discussion that this also relates to a lack of quality primary and secondary education to suitably prepare students for tertiary study.

This problem also reflects the lack of a robust process of moderation of assessment and quality audit to ensure that the programmes are being delivered at the level at which they were designed. These quality assurance methods would identify issues with levels and entry criteria. Without quality assurance it is easy to lower standards over time.

‘In terms of developed world standards they should not graduate - they haven’t learnt what they need to go out into the workforce. We should be raising the plumb line. In the school system something is going awry - something is just not right.’ (industry operator)

‘The level they operate in by in large - not average by world standards. We need to work on primary and secondary education good ones go off island, get snapped up by the government - the government paying more than the private sector - government is taking the cream.’ (industry organisation)

‘With Australian and New Zealand qualifications everything is fine because it has already been benchmarked against the teacher qualifications and the qualification competencies. The variables here are the curriculum, the teaching, the resources - until they stabilize you can’t give straight recognition, it wouldn’t be appropriate.’ (education provider)

‘In New Zealand and Australia quality is assured because the curriculum is delivered by qualified teachers, the organisation has quality assurance that ensures that the curriculum is delivered to the standard - it doesn’t happen here.’ (education provider)

‘The current process of quality review is not really an academic exercise - more just getting industry in to give their perspective on things. We haven’t had monitoring of people.’ (education provider)

o. The curriculum needs to be redeveloped

It is ten years since the curriculum was developed and there has been virtually no redevelopment of any courses, yet during these years there have been many changes to
industry practices that should be reflected in the curriculum. It also appears that as a result of a decision to standardise the length of each course within programmes at NUS, there have been some changes made to delivery time for courses that has increased the delivery hours for theory courses and further compromised the amount of time given to practical courses.

‘Courses in the programme have also been changed so all courses are now 40 hours in length - every module now is 40 hours … so the core programme has increased in length so the specializations haven’t been able to have the proper amount of time. It all needs to be redeveloped.’ (education provider)

p. Lack of resources to deliver the programme effectively

Lack of resources is a key problem that the NUS IoT faces. In New Zealand, for instance, the fees for such vocational programmes are generally high - around $6,000 for a year’s chef training programme, plus there is government subsidy to top up the student fee, which means there is approximately $15,000 per student to deliver the programme. In Samoa the students are paying $700T ($400NZ) each for a one year programme plus the government invests in the institute rather than the money being allocated to a particular school on a per student basis. These government resources are not being allocated to the school in an annual operating budget and all requests for money to spend on food purchases or equipment purchases must be processed through a central finance unit. There is no delegated authority to purchase goods at a school level. It is evident that the fee is too low and at the time of the field work this situation was being addressed to better reflect that actual costs of delivery.

The initial investment by the New Zealand government to purchase resources to deliver the programmes has not been matched by ongoing investment by the Samoan government. This is coupled with the merger of the polytechnic with the university. New systems are in place that the staff do not understand and staff do not feel that they can speak up to get resources. The institute does have a system for purchasing but the systems appear to be too complicated for the effective management of the programme. ‘They hold all the power for the money’ (education provider).

With the introduction of APTC to Samoa some of these problems will be alleviated. APTC plans to replace resources and purchase whatever is required to deliver their programme on the NUS IoT site. This however will not solve the problems of the requirement to purchase items such as food for cookery practicals and liquor for cocktail courses. Communication systems between teaching staff and management need to be addressed so that the resources are available when they are required.
Staff feel that they are unable to get the resources for the practical components of the programme. They have modified the curriculum and increased the theory components of the programme or had students work in pairs when they should be working individually in order to save money. They have not gone on field trips when that is part of the curriculum.

‘Technical and vocational training is a special area - it is a resource hungry sector, it is not a level here where industry is sophisticated enough to provide the co-investment to make it work - have to have a sophisticated industry to make it work - as in the automotive trades with Toyota throughout the pacific who will invest in meaningful training.’ (education provider)

‘It is not a valid answer to not run practicals, we need to make changes we can’t endanger the quality of the programme, the practicals should never be compromised, it is just that the fees are very unrealistic. There has been so much pressure with the merge all these things that need to be sorted out.’ (education provider)

‘They poke their nose in where they shouldn’t be. We don’t have enough money in the budget to do what you want. We have to draw up a proposal and by the time we get it, it is gone, it is then too late, we have to give 3 months notice … it never happened before, we used to have money in our kitty … and we have receipts that show what we spend it on.’ (education provider)

‘We have to make do with what we have, if it doesn’t get here we have to do something else. We were told right from the start this year that there would be little resources because the government has given money for the South Pacific Games so NUS has not got enough money. We were told we would have to put in our orders well in advance to get the money. Now it is hard. There are other outstanding debts that the NUS has and the suppliers won’t supply us. There is lots of sorting out required in the admin that should not jeopardise the practical components of our work.’ (education provider)

‘It is wrong if there is no money. There needs to be a system to make it work between finance and the staff - they shouldn’t just give up. The problem with finance is that they have looked at the fee and the students are simply not paying enough money. The fee here is $700 per year, it is not enough for all the costs in that programme, if they are not delivering they are at risk of not meeting the curriculum. We have to raise the fees.’ (education provider)

‘This year and last year it was awful. I think the money should be separated. The practical experience in the programme has to be compromised because there is no money
for field trips. What are we stupid bums compared with the higher learners? 'We have to encourage students … the feeling that you get is that our students don’t get what they should.’ (education provider)

q. Effects of the merge

The merge of the two institutes appears to have had an unsettling effect on the staff in the School of Tourism and Hospitality with generally quite negative views expressed about the relative status of the two parts of the new National University. The staff expressed that they feel undervalued and that their programmes do not have sufficient priority to get what they need to deliver it. It raises the issue of the value of higher education at universities compared with vocational training at polytechnics and the relative status of each.

‘The whole NUS thing has been a real problem - bringing in these new programmes - different institutes coming together - NUS hasn’t sorted out its own programmes - there are quality issues at NUS with their programmes - I would have hoped that NUS would have picked up the quality management system of Samoa Polytechnic. NUS could develop their own policies based on what is there from the Polytech. NUS would benefit from those policies.’ (government organisation)

‘The merge was not meant to undermine it was about rationalization of resources and creating resources.’ (education provider)

r. The advent of the Samoa Qualifications Authority (SQA)

In mid 2007 the SQA was launched to provide quality assurance of post school education and training in Samoa. The purpose of this development is to improve human resource development in Samoa.

The government says this about the development: ‘since the mid 1990’s the government of Samoa has been developing a more enterprise based and competitively structured economy aimed at sustained and sustainable economic growth. Key to this goal is the focus on human resource development to ensure a sufficiently well qualified population to take advantages of the new opportunities created by the reforms in the public and private sectors of the economy … the governments intention is for Samoa to have a post school education and training sector that is well coordinated with adequate provision to meet the needs of societies and individuals … dovetailed into the maintenance of quality education and training is the need to maintain international comparability’ (SQA 2007, p2).
This is a new initiative, expected to implement processes whereby quality standards of programmes can be maintained more effectively that appears to be the case at the present time. Currently the NUS has its own act and is self governing so can control its own quality systems without being responsible to SQA. This raises it own challenges in terms of how NUS will integrate with SQA and the quality assurance process.

‘Really support what they are trying to do - at the moment everyone has their own qualifications so this is trying to bring it under one umbrella.’ (industry organisation)

‘SQA is working with NUS on self evaluation - trying to focus on continuous improvement. It is easier to influence small training providers. NUS is so big and has its own act NUS Act 2006 it is self governing and self accrediting university - this represents a big challenge for SQA. SQA wants all providers to meet a certain minimum standard - how to do this with NUS is the question - they have to take the management of NUS along with them - NUS with its two parts Institute of Higher Education and Institute of Technology - many issues with bringing them together - IHE has a senate, IoT has an academic board.’ (government organisation)

‘SQA is arguing for all programmes and courses to be based on learning outcomes. Some of the IHE courses only have a purpose statement with no learning outcomes attached. NUS have got a really good opportunity to be involved with SQA and also with the University of the South Pacific. There could be cross institute quality programmes, when NUS is ready, SQA could facilitate an audit.’ (government organisation)

s. The training that will bring best results

There needs to be a balance of theory and practical with a strong industry connection for work experience and input from industry. Training providers have to be the initiators with stakeholders and they must ensure that they have good relationships with industry. The entry criteria must be enforced and the teaching staff must be skilled and have access to up to date resources.

‘Need to balance theory and practical need to have time in industry to reinforce skills.’ (education provider)

‘There has to be communication and connection. You also have to put the right people in the right place. Industry is also really clicky. It is about being the initiator. We can mould the people to what is needed - we need the right people going in to the industry.’ (ex education provider)
‘Need the right people to be the teachers as well as selecting the students and then being proactive in the industry and making sure that the programmes access the money and the equipment to do the training right.’ (ex education provider)

4.7 Conclusions relating to education and training for tourism in Samoa

At this point the majority of training relating to tourism and hospitality occurs at the NUS IoT, School of Tourism and Hospitality (see Figure 9).

Figure 9: School of Tourism and Hospitality

Source: Robert Corlett

The university also runs a diploma programme in tourism management. On the job training is delivered in an ad hoc manner by both the STA and the SHA. In 2006 the Samoa Polytechnic merged with the NUS. The merge of the two institutes appears to have had an unsettling effect on the staff in the School of Tourism and Hospitality with quite negative views expressed about the relative status of the two parts of the new National University. The staff expressed that they feel undervalued and that their programme does not have sufficient priority to get what is needed to deliver it; I wish we were still the Polytech, too many red tapes to cut, we should be IoT not merge with higher education, they are degree holders, we are the practical people. You can’t get a pay rise because you are not a PhD’ (education provider).
Vocational training is expensive to deliver and in Samoa the students are paying a very small amount. Resources are not being allocated to the school in an effective manner and there is no delegated authority to purchase goods at a school level. This comment by an education provider; ‘They hold all the power for the money’ demonstrates the frustration that staff feel. They see the Finance Department (see Figure 10) of the university as being isolated from them and not working with them.

Figure 10: Finance Department at NUS

The New Zealand government, between 1997 and 2001, invested in the NUS IoT training by purchasing all equipment and other resources to deliver the programmes. This has not been matched by Samoan government investment ongoing for replacement and renewal. This is coupled by other factors such as the merger of the polytechnic with the university, new systems in place that the staff do not understand and staff not feeling that they can speak up to ensure that the programme gets the required resources.

There appears to be a lack of respect for the teachers at the School of Tourism and Hospitality from the industry and this then has a flow on effect into the way in which off the job training is valued in general. There is a general sense that training must add value to the human resources situation, but there are questions about the way in which the learning is delivered and about the gap between what is taught off the job and the reality of the on the job requirements. There is a lack of understanding about what is actually happening in the
training environment and an expectation of the ability of the training provider to produce a product that is industry ready. Conlin (1993) discussed this in the Caribbean context, emphasizing the importance of institutional strengthening as a key to gaining respect. This also raises the issue of what is a realistic expectation that industry operators can place on training providers; ‘I find across industries in Pacific countries they expect brain surgeons, they pay them peanuts, when they can’t perform we complain about the quality of the education provider’ (education provider).

Burns (1999) discusses that employers in the Pacific region understand that human resources are key to business success but this does not necessarily translate into investment in people. There is a gap between the intellectual awareness of the value of training and the actual activity. Burns (1999) believes that there is quite a disparity of views; some seeing training as essential and others viewing it as a waste of time given staff turnover and low occupancy. There is often a lack of understanding of what constitutes suitable training. Progress towards improvement of training products is also seen as slow and uncoordinated and dependent on single people rather than strategic collective decision making (Burns 1999).

Communication between industry and training providers appears to have become increasingly distant. The distance is resulting in perceptions developing that may well not be real or fair. There is a disconnection between training establishments and industry. Yet consultation with stakeholders is vital in the development of a sound curriculum (Lewis 2005).

Increased on the job training is seen as essential to get service to the right level. Ideally there would be a mix of both pre employment and on the job training. There is a real gap, at this point, in providing on the job training. One issue is the lack of suitably trained individuals in supervisory management roles who are able to provide good on job training. The calibre of people coming through the ranks is not good enough.

The question of who provides on the job training and whether there is a role for the NUS in the delivery of this training is not clear. There seems to be some confusion amongst all the players about who should be responsible for on the job training and the roles of national organisations such as the STA or SHA is unclear. The introduction of APTC and its ongoing role is also uncertain.

The APTC is a key focus at the moment and there appears to be quite diametrically opposed views as to the value of this new initiative. There is the potential for it to lead to an increase in quality, generally. Yet it could be a person gathering exercise for Australia. There are also
concerns about the relationship with the current training at NUS IoT. The pragmatic view sees the value of it for Samoa even if it means losing a number of people overseas to work; ‘Samoans come home to roost. They will come back with more experience. We could be selfish and say don’t train them because they leave but then we are worse off. If half go we still get half that are trained’ (industry organisation). The introduction of APTC has been a government to government initiative and like most decisions making in developing countries, it is top down (Liu and Wall 2006). This is a definite concern with APTC.

There is an advantage in collaborative and strategic relationships in training and education for tourism (Burns 1999, Black and King 2002). APTC could fit into this category. Pacific island countries benefit from being strategic and not taking a reactionary approach. Human resources are essentially valued in the islands and island states need tourism to survive. Countries that have provided courses of any kind have; ‘created the foundation for other initiatives’ (Burns 1999, p103). However it is important to remember that training is generally evaluated, using a Euro centric approach that does not acknowledge cultural differences and focuses on the extent to which occupational standards are achieved. Burns (1999) believes that further evaluation studies should be completed to determine if overseas assistance for tourism in developing countries is the most effective method. Both Burns (1999) and King (1996) note the dependence of the South Pacific nations on foreign aid for tourism training. Burns (1999) suggest that training programmes should be decoupled from foreign aid and says that answers need to be found in the Pacific itself. In saying that, it is also critical to consider the human resource capacity of the government and the competition of other projects for limited financial resources.

The introduction of the APTC highlights the level of training currently being delivered at the NUS IoT and whether the Samoa curriculum is currently being delivered at the correct level. It appears that because of a range of circumstances, the level of the programme has been dropped over time. The curriculum is long overdue for redevelopment, the entry criteria are not necessarily being enforced and this is coupled with the lack of resources to properly deliver the programme. Again as Burns (1999) discusses the process of developing training in the Pacific is reactionary and uncoordinated and as suggested above is too heavily reliant on foreign aid.

Awareness of tourism as a career and the training opportunities that are available are not well understood in Samoa as in other parts of the world (Watson and Drummond 2002, Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy 2006, Pollack and Ritchie 1990, Catherwood and Twining Ward 2006)). There is considerable discussion about being able to recruit the right students into training for tourism and that at the point that students are making career
decisions, the awareness of tourism as an option is not high enough in their minds. This echoes back to the earlier work of Pollack and Ritchie (1990). Good students choose careers in other industries (Baum 2006b).

There is concern about the entry requirements to pre employment training and whether it is appropriate to meet the needs of the industry and also whether recruits for tourism and hospitality training programmes and industry are coming from the pool of low achievers in the school system. This has also been an issue in research in the Cook Islands (Catherwood and Twining Ward 2006), and in the Caribbean (Butcher et al 2004). Time spent teaching English rather than the curriculum or teaching English in Samoan magnifies the problem. Attitudes are also an issue. This was also the case in the Caribbean (Butcher et al 2004). Students either seem disinterested or do not demonstrate a good work ethic and in some instances appear to think that their training means that the tasks they are being asked to do are too menial and beneath them. This corresponds with the research of the HSI in New Zealand (2007) and the characterization of GenY and their attitudes towards work. Potentially this is also a reflection of social distance and lack of experiential intelligence (Baum 2006a).

### 4.8 Conclusions

There are a number of key themes that have emerged from the interviews in the field in Samoa. There are specific themes relating to the state of the industry and a number of conclusions relating to them linked to the literature. This sets the scene for the specific analysis of human resources and education and training with associated themes and conclusions. Findings mirror those discussed in the literature in other island states with specific differences found in the merge of the polytechnic and the university and the new development of the APTC. Similarities will be explored in the findings in the next chapter relating to New Zealand.
Chapter 5
The Case of New Zealand
Findings from the New Zealand Field Work

5.1 Introduction

There are a number of themes that emerged from the field work carried out in New Zealand over the first few months of 2008. The findings have been divided into two parts. Firstly, there are findings relating to human resources and the industry and secondly, there are findings that specifically relate to education and training. The findings are presented based on themes and includes a brief description followed by quotes to provide evidence to illustrate the theme. There are conclusions at the end of each section with links back to the literature.

5.2 The industry and human resources

The following findings relate to the industry in general and the key features that affect the human resources of the industry. The findings in this section have been grouped into four categories:

- industry characteristics
- attributes of staff
- attributes of owners and managers
- a licence to operate

5.2.1 Industry characteristics

a. Poor perception of tourism as an industry

The perception of the industry, certainly as a career choice and compared with other industries, is not positive. Industry operators may in fact have over optimistic ideas about how the industry is perceived. This may reflect that people inside the industry are not really cognizant of the external perception of the industry.

Some sectors fail to attract suitable candidates into job roles. There is a perception that tourism as an industry is not really taken seriously. Potentially the government may not regard tourism as important as other industries to the economy of New Zealand.

"We need to change our thinking about tourism in NZ. Inside the industry we think we have it sussed, that we are highly professional, the value to the economy etc but outside..."
the reality is different, in the dairy industry, if you said our exports are under threat unless we do this, unless we make some technical change to what we do, it would happen, but not in tourism.’ (industry organisation)

‘Any industry needs to be sexy, sound good, pay well and have good prospects. At the moment it sounds good but the pay and the prospects are not so obvious. If you are a good marketer you will be paid as well in tourism as in any other industry.’ (industry operator)

‘In the longer term it is more to do with the perception of tourism and what it is. It is difficult to see where a career will lead to, the diversity of the industry, nebulous as a career choice. The industry is as wide as running a rafting business to being the marketing manager of Air NZ. What is it tourism anyway? It is not like nursing, hospitality is seen as being not that desirable. The front end of tourism is on a par with retail to parents, the job is not the attractive. It draws a certain category of person to the industry.’ (industry operator)

‘It is getting tourism understood as an export industry that is just as vital as the other industries. We need to professionalize the industry. It is very difficult to achieve the changes needed. Need to get tourism understood as an export industry of the same value. The intangibles of tourism make it difficult.’ (government organisation)

b. Seasonality and the impact on human resources

The issue of seasonality is a major factor that tourism operators have to contend with. An intense high season from October to March, followed by a trough through the winter makes financial and people management a challenge. In those parts of the country with the highest seasonality, it impacts in a critical manner. The inability of SME’s to retain staff during the low season means that just as their staff are becoming proficient in their jobs, they are laid off and when the next season comes, the business has to start the process of recruiting and upskilling staff all over again. As the high season is relatively short, businesses also choose not to train staff beyond the basics, as they do not feel it is worth investing in the training because the staff member will be leaving anyway. The issue of seasonality is very closely entwined with lack of profitability.

‘Seasonality - particularly in New Zealand - just as staff come into their own the season ends, then you go into hibernation and gearing down and then you have to gear up and you have to retrain.’ (industry operator)
'Here we have 50 staff in the high season and down to 15 in winter - we hire people on fixed term contracts for the summer period. We try to keep the best staff during the winter season. In summer we offer the perks of the life style, in winter it is more difficult. In summer you need the people with the right attitudes to cope with the volumes. Over winter you need someone who is happy with less time and can take the slow pace.’

(industry operator)

c. Lack of retention of staff

Staff retention is also closely linked with seasonality. As the industry tends to hire staff on fixed term contracts over the high season and then lay them off, there is an obvious lack of retention. However the problem of staff retention is also a feature of those parts of the industry that have a twelve month payroll.

The industry is characterized as a casual labour environment with considerable transience and movement between jobs, within the industry as well as out of the industry. Some centres such as Queenstown have very poor staff retention and huge movement between jobs. A lack of investment and commitment to staff is seen as key to this problem. Also, there is the question of why staff choose not to stay in the industry once they have been recruited.

'Biggest issue has to be retention of staff, all sectors are suffering shortages, staff turnover, the average life span of a front line person in Queenstown is 3 months. That would be the biggest issue.’  (trainer)

'You can train people all you like, there is no shortage of people in the supply chain - the production line - there isn’t a problem with attracting people to the industry, in terms of pure bodies there are plenty in the supply chain, the problem is that the people in the supply chain are not making it to the workplaces or are leaving the sector before they can be replaced, so it is a retention problem.’  (government organisation)

d. It is essential to invest in staff and how this links to retention

Some managers and owners understand the link between investing in staff, staff retention and the cost to train. If businesses are not prepared to invest in their staff, the result will be that staff will move on to another job. As there are so many job opportunities it is easy to move from place to place and easily find new work. Loyalty to employers is at a low ebb (in part due to low unemployment levels). Staff training and development is understood by some as being a major motivator in retaining a staff member and gaining greater productivity from them. People need to feel valued in their work and investing in upskilling
and developing individuals is hugely important in delivering a quality experience. Potentially the industry lacks good managers and if good managers were in place the industry would retain staff.

‘Skills shortages. Yes definitely where there are gaps in the manager’s abilities you really see it. People who embrace their teams have got really high retention, the organisations where people are walking out reflects the managers skills. With the labour market at the moment it is hard to find people at the front line who will work 24/7 - if there are carrots people will stay - if they are treated well and respected they will stay. It is far less expensive to keep people motivated than to not spend the time on maintaining the team. You have to ask how are staff being inducted? Does it make them want to stay? In the first 3 months 90% of what I see isn’t that good. I don’t really buy into there being such a big skills shortage - what it takes is skilled leadership to make people stay.’ (industry training organisation)

‘Eventually, commercially industry has to realise that they have to invest in their staff to survive. Accor understand this but the xxxxx has had a 250% turnover in a year - covering all the roles in the hotel. The cost of that is absolutely enormous.’ (trainer)

‘What surprises me is why it has taken industry so long to understand staff retention and training. Look at Lonestar they do look after their staff and there is relatively little turnover. And one of the most successful restaurant chains in the country.’ (trainer)

‘You have to invest in training especially for senior positions. You have to upskill your staff, it helps in getting staff loyalty. If people feel that they are learning they will be motivated to stay. For senior positions you must train your staff, that is one of the ways you get loyalty. If people feel they are learning they will be motivated, more than money even it is a perk of your job.’ (industry operator)

e. Industry is under pressure

Industry operators feel under pressure for a range of reasons, none the least of which is the lack of suitable staff. Crisis management prevails and staff and managers are working long hours. There is a focus on survival, rather than forward planning. There is no opportunity for HR managers to be strategic as they are caught up in the cycle of recruitment and induction given that staff do not stay long enough to be involved in the dynamics of retention and development.
‘The industry is already under pressure in terms of staffing, head chefs are doing long hours and are doing crisis management. Most management is dealing with the daily stuff.’ (industry training organisation)

**f. Problem with pay rates**

The pay rates in the industry are low, particularly in entry level roles and front line customer service roles. Hospitality jobs do not compete with other industries and generally pay around the minimum wage. Managers and owners of businesses are concerned about the lack of retention of staff but do not seem to see that addressing pay rates may change that. Lack of profitability forces operators to dumb down the pay rates.

As seen in Samoa, some managers appear to be afraid to engage in sound human resource management practices in case the staff have expectations that they cannot meet. The dilemma is that high paying visitors are being served by low paid workers who may well not have a commitment to providing a quality experience.

‘In NZ in general we have got to create reasons for people to stay in business - so the pay has to be better.’ (industry training organisation)

‘It is a low wage economy and a low paid industry but the expectation of high paying visitors who want a high value experience.’ (industry organisation)

‘One issue I really get concerned about is pay rates and career paths. Pay rates particularly in Nelson are way lower than they should be - recent comment form one of our staff said they could get better pay as a check out operator at a supermarket.’ (industry organisation)

**g. Shortage of skilled labour**

This problem is on the tip of everyone’s tongues. Skills shortages are clearly seen as linked to the very low unemployment rate at the moment. Traditionally the industry has drawn on the unemployed to fill casual jobs, particularly in front of house hospitality roles, and now there is not that pool to draw on. Equally problematic is the need to employ staff who have had no pre employment training. These are either young people fresh from secondary school or others who are seeking jobs who have not worked in the industry before.

There is a consistent view that it would be a much better world to hire staff who had been pre employment trained but this is a luxury businesses currently cannot afford. The lack of available staff is also seen as potentially resulting in owners of businesses taking short cuts
and compromising quality. The skills shortage does not only relate to the tourism industry, so the pressure is on to compete with other industries.

‘People (are the problem) in the short term but this is a cyclic thing. There is a lack of people available and scarcity results in all sorts of short cuts and taking people with the wrong sort of skills sets. Like all things unemployment with happen again.’ (industry operator)

‘There is a lowering of skilled employees out there. The skills are different than they used to be, particularly in kitchens, it is the survival of the fittest. Chefs are not as skilled as they should be, they are having little trouble coming through the grades. There are 2 issues - it is the people applying for the jobs who haven’t been trained, and it is also that the work ethic is different now.’ (industry operator)

‘We are screaming out for staff - if someone comes along and says, “I’ve just done a summer in industry and I want to learn”, we will take that - we would like people to say, “I’ve got C&G and I have had one year of training”. We can’t afford to turn people away, we need them too much to turn them away.’ (industry operator)

h. Transience of staff
People move in and out of jobs, within the industry and also out of the industry altogether. This is a feature of the industry that both serves the needs of employers in that they need staff to be prepared to be casual because of fluctuations in demand. This also creates the problem of a lack of commitment of staff. Plus this creates the problem of perpetually having to retrain new staff, instead of developing existing staff. As the comments below show, jobs in the hospitality industry are seen as stop gap jobs before the real job begins and turnover is so high that operators that do train are essentially training for the industry rather than themselves.

‘The turnover is also so high. Sometimes I think we are training for the industry and not for our business.’ (industry operator)

‘Hospitality is still seen as a stop gap industry. ‘I’m just doing this until I find a better a job, it is something for now, its not a career and those that do chose it as a career advance really rapidly.’ (trainer)

‘Part of the issue is the ease of movement from job to job, when unemployment is high people are scared to leave their job. If you can move why wouldn’t you? People end up being poached from one job to another, people change jobs because they like change.
People are less inclined to stay in jobs, society as a whole has changed and retention is not the same across industries. It is an easy come, easy go industry.’ (industry training organisation)

i. Lack of career paths
The industry is characterized by a lack of clear career paths. There are, in fact, career paths in most sectors of the industry but they are not as evident as they should be. This is due to many reasons, one of which is the seasonality of the industry, another the inability to retain staff to develop a career path. Often SME’s do not offer enough job roles to provide a career path as many are family businesses with only a few additional staff. Larger businesses are either short of staff, or staff turnover is so high that there is not the time to focus on developing careers; their time is spent in the recruitment and induction phases and they never moving past that.

An interesting observation is that there are large enough numbers of students on pre employment courses who then enter the industry. They are soon disenchanted with the working conditions and the lack of a clear career path (or the opportunity to easily progress) and move out of the industry to another that has better conditions of work and clearer career paths.

‘There is a lack of career path. Again, with the nature of tourism being about small businesses struggling to survive, seasonality, small business lack of cash flow. There is an inability to offer a career path.’ (industry organisation)

‘People are still going on courses, continual pool of people coming through and will tolerate low pay for a period of time but after the initial gloss wears off but then the lack of career paths kick in and they look at where they can go and it isn’t obvious.’ (industry organisation)

‘HR managers are consumed because of huge staff turnover - the process of getting people to work. Training consists of induction, contracts then recruitment takes over again. They are essentially just covering their butts with employment contracts they can’t even deal with career paths. In itself it is one of the reasons that they are having problems with retention.’ (trainer)

j. Impact of immigrant labour
Importing labour is viewed in different ways. One view is that tourism is a global industry and as a result, people should be able to move around the world and take up roles within the
industry with relative ease. Travellers are also global so a global workforce suits global travelers. Immigrant labour works well if the immigrant labour is skilled and speaks English. There are also issues with the expectations of visitors wanting New Zealanders to serve them.

'The impact of immigrant labour is having some effect and I think it will increase in the next 3-5 years. It has an effect on the literacy and numeracy plus customer service. It is a double edge sword. Some of the industry indicate that they like immigrant labour from the European and US markets, they understand what it means to offer customer service. For some countries the level of English is an issue. Immigration is a good thing generally for the industry, it has actually allowed the industry to keep trading. Eighty percent are on visas in Queenstown. Regional New Zealand won’t have this problem, it is predominantly New Zealanders working in the industry. In the main centres there is more impact with immigrants.’ (industry operator)

‘This is part of the solution. If you can tap into experienced people. It is a global industry so we can import and we can export. This becomes a training issue.’ (industry organisation)

'We are not getting enough local people - New Zealanders in the industry, problematic and difficult. In Queenstown about 80% of staff are foreign. That is a real pity, they are normally travelers so they are transient. People working in our hotels have not worked in hospitality before, that is the problem. Because there is such a large turnover the industry are not prepared to invest in workers. Using unskilled foreign workers rather than skilled staff.’ (industry operator)

k. Weak unions in the industry

Unions do not have a strong foothold in the tourism industry. Part of this is the casual transient nature of the work and the lack of volume of permanent staff in job roles, which gives a union no opportunity to develop sufficient members to have an impact on negotiations with employers. Most employees in tourism are on individual contracts and union membership is very low, particularly in hospitality.

The main advantage of unions is to provide advocacy for its members and to be able to affect changes in working conditions. This lack of advocacy in tourism means that there is no voice on behalf of the workers to gain better terms and conditions of employment.
Industry would not go for agreeing to pay related to a qualification. This is linked to the union movement. Need an industry collective agreement - for something like that to work - at the moment it is pretty much individual contracts. Union activity is low - about 4-5%. There is such high turnover in the industry that unions haven't got their products right.’ (industry training organisation)

I. Differences between small and large businesses

There is a difference between the capability of small and large businesses. Larger businesses have more resources to put into building business capability and human resources. SME’s struggle more with limited resources. Career paths are generally more obvious in a larger business as well and potentially there is better pay and development. Again this is sector specific, a large travel company is more likely to have better conditions than a large hotel chain, as the hospitality industry still demonstrates weak labour market characteristics in general. There are clearly exceptions to this.

'It is the struggle of any small employer, the investment. There is a big difference between SME’s and large organisations, significant difference in service and product between the two. In the hotels there are progressive pay rates, training schemes and they offer career paths.’ (trainer)

'The majority of businesses are SME’s - the big companies do have the resources but the little companies don’t have the people resources.’ (industry training organisation)

m. Value placed on human resources has to come out of the back room

It is assumed by some, that people will always be there to do the jobs and provide the service to customers. Businesses prioritize other things first and worry about people later. Relying on the unemployed to fill jobs, as has been the case in the past, is currently not a reality in New Zealand with unemployment at such a low level. The industry needs to put human resources at the forefront to move the industry forward.

'Given tourism's reliance on people, that investment is critical. Tourism is last off the block. Under capitalized companies, there is money to convert the shed into a restaurant and they expect to get staff at bargain basement rates. It comes back to competitiveness, it never used to matter, there were unemployed people always available, when people left you could always find more. The calibre of the unemployed were better then too but that is not the case anymore with less than 3% unemployment. Unfortunately industry continue to act as though we have 8% unemployment.’ (industry operator)
‘People are the last part that people think about.’ (industry operator)

‘How do we make money in an environment with few people. HR has to come out of the back room. HR should be at the forefront - why would you think about it last. Managers say we are going out of business because we can’t get staff - managers grew up learning that it doesn’t matter if those people leave there will be people to replace them and it just isn’t like that anymore.’ (government organisation)

5.2.2 Attributes of employers and managers

a. Fears of employers affect standards

It is so difficult to get staff that managers are prepared to accept lower standards rather than uphold high standards of service, probably because they feel they have no choice. They are afraid to annoy an employee who may then decide to leave. If this happens the manager will then have to start the recruitment process all over again. Managers are afraid to tell staff what to do and how to do it better because the staff member will object to being told what to do.

‘It is what employers are prepared to accept. They are loath to inflict high standards because staff will move on, this management issue is impacting on standards. They will tolerate things because they want to go easy on their staff.’ (trainer)

b. Lack of good supervisory managers

The lack of trained supervisors and managers means they may not have the skill and knowledge to encourage development of others in the workplace. Supervisors, in some areas, are promoted because there is no one else to promote. They may not have had training themselves and their management practices may be limited. One example is cited of a supervisor appearing to be jealous and fearful of workers who have more skills than they do. One view is that there is not an overall skills shortage as such, but a lack of skilled managers and owners of businesses and that these people are letting the industry down. Again the point is made that managers have not got the skill and knowledge to do the job right. In the businesses where managers do know what they are doing, there is good staff retention.

‘The hospitality industry is unwilling to invest in training. Middle management become middle management because there is no one else, through attrition rather than skill. There are people who are bar managers because they are the last ones standing. They haven’t had training either so they are insecure in their positions so don’t give out a lot of
information or train themselves so they keep the workers down. People are fearful that others will find out that they shouldn’t be there. They often get burned out because they don’t delegate (because they are not trained to know how to do this) and do all the work themselves, will work very hard and do long hours to justify their position. Then they burn out and leave the industry. A restaurant manager in Wellington had been to a meeting and found out that the wage cost was 30% over what it should be, so he proudly told me that he had reduced the cost to 4% by cutting all the others hours and doing all the hours himself, he was very proud of this.’ (trainer)

‘It is the supervisory management layer that is involved in standards maintenance. There aren’t the people there to do it. The saying is a ‘fish rots from the head’ - managers and owners are not doing the right thing it will permeate down through the whole business.’ (industry training organisation)

‘They aren’t leaders or managers - they lack the intellectual rigour - it is not an attractive industry it never has been - really good people are those that come to specialized areas - people will do a marketing or IT at university and then will come to tourism by mistake rather than design - they fall into the industry. There is generally a lack of ability to move on through to supervisory roles - tourism is perceived as being slightly better than hospitality. Size matters - as an industry becomes more critical of itself and the sheer number of businesses improves things.’ (industry operator)

c. Lack of understanding of the full picture of business success

Inexperienced managers and owners of businesses, often without formal business education, do not have a good management tool box. Operators do not have effective management practices. Tourism management is criticized as operating at a low level. They may have some specific operational skills but not a well rounded view of operations management and certainly not strategic management. Human resource management is probably at the bottom of the list of priorities. One of the issues for businesses at the moment is that managers are working in the business, they are always in the midst of solving problems in the business. Being able to be strategic takes time and energy and there is not enough of that left over, after fighting fires.

‘People only see a little bit of the picture they don’t understand the whole picture. That may be because they picked up things by osmosis and they just picked it up, or maybe they haven’t been in the business before. You can see the ones that are good, they have retention and they have reasonable training programmes, even if informal. To me it seems so obvious but it is so hard to get people to understand - including the big hotel chains.’ (trainer)
‘There is no link between the job they are doing and income. There isn’t even that link with the owners. There are too many people who have gone into the industry without previous experience, who don’t know what they are doing. It is not even necessarily about the money, it is the attitude. Money to attract people to start with then it is the management of the people that contributes to retention.’ (industry organisation)

‘In most regions if you say lets get together to talk about marketing then you will have an RTO - now it is starting to happen around sustainability and the environment as well but if you suggest getting together to talk about business performance and people, they won’t show up for that.’ (industry organisation)

‘The cost of turnover, competition, bottom line profit, people are task focused - these are the issues so it takes someone who can work on the business rather than in the business to make a difference. People are also transitioning across industries so the levels of remuneration are not on a par with other industries.’ (industry training organisation)

d. Need to see the links between training, productivity and profitability

Some operators don’t see the link between investing in training and increasing profitability. Operators understand that there is not sufficient profitability in the industry but they do not link this to investing in people, increasing their productivity and how this will affect the bottom line. There is discussion that training needs to be sold to operators better so that they are more able to see the links and therefore commit to the investment. It has even reached the point that HR managers do not see that training is part of their job role and they see their role confined to recruitment and induction and dealing with compliance with employment law. National support organisations are now stressing the importance of increasing industry profitability and the links with increasing productivity. This is also a key objective of the NZ Tourism Strategy 2015 (MoT 2007). If there is greater productivity of workers it will increase profitability and one of the best ways to achieve this is to have well trained staff who are able to multi task and be multi functional and who understand the dynamics of the business environment in which they are operating.

‘You need to talk to small business operators and if they can see the link between what is being said about training and the bottom line they will jump at it. Smart operators really do know that but they are overloaded by all the things they have to do to make the business work. Businesses need to be able to make the link between training and productivity. Need to look at the way that training is sold/marketed/communicated so that businesses can see the link between training and productivity. Businesses are overloaded so they don’t see through the clutter.’ (industry training organisation)
‘An HR manager looks at their job as hiring, legal issues, very little about training and progression in the industry - there is such a lack of value put on training - it is the most amazing thing - they don’t understand the value to the business - it seems so obvious there must be a heap of dumb arse people out there.’ (trainer)

‘If your business isn’t making enough, you can’t pay enough, so you don’t deliver a great product which doesn’t make enough money. It is a downward spiral. An upward spiral is high value products, investing in staff, which generates profits and so on.’
(government organisation)

‘The NZ tourism strategy points that profitability in the industry is such an issue. There are too many people not making enough money. Addressing it is very important.’
(industry training organisation)

‘The only way forward is to increase the productivity of staff to increase the revenue and the only way to do this is by having skilled staff. The problem is that it is finding the skilled staff that is the problem.’ (industry operator)

e. Customer satisfaction and quality and the link to profitability

New Zealand is being advertised as a high quality destination delivering quality niche products and services to visitors. Yet the industry is characterized by low profitability, and all of the issues being discussed about human resource practices. In order for front line service to be delivered at the level that matches the promise, there needs to be investment in assuring that there is skilled service and sales skills that are backed up by excellent management practices in tourism operations.

The disconnection between the demands of high paying guests and low paid service workers is a striking problem. High paying guests expect to receive quality service from staff that have high levels of technical skills and professional attitudes. The likelihood, in today’s service environment, is that the high paying guest will be confronted with a low paid staff member who may have received little or no training and encouragement in their job and more than likely will not be able to deliver this high quality service. This is seen as being a political issue and one that the government needs to take a more active role in if they wish tourism to continue to thrive in New Zealand and continue to contribute so massively to foreign exchange.

‘It is getting tourism understood as an export industry that is just as vital as the other industries. We need to professionalize the industry. It is very difficult to achieve the
changes needed. Need to get tourism understood as an export industry of the same value. The intangibles of tourism make it difficult; we need to place an economic value on customer satisfaction - the government needs to take a leadership role and say we are going to be the best customer destination in the world - the drive needs to come from the top level - needs to be a political issue as well - not just an industry issue.’ (industry organisation)

‘We are saying that New Zealand is a high value niche player and needs to be so. We need more higher spending visitors, to do this you must have a product that people are prepared to pay for, a big chunk of this for New Zealand tourism is service and so if you don’t have a highly skilled workforce you can’t deliver the service.’ (industry organisation)

5.2.3 Attributes of staff

a. Type of people attracted to the industry

The type of people who are attracted to the industry could play a key role in understanding some of the dynamics that are currently affecting the industry. The perception of the industry as transient and casual, that you can get a job anywhere in the world, suits those people who are not ready to commit to a job. The job also suits students seeking work over summer vacation, or part time work to boost finances. The fact that in hospitality particularly, the work is often at night or weekends, means that it may attract young people who are prepared to work those hours. There is also the glamorous and dynamic perception of some sectors such as the airlines. Whether the reality of the work matches the perceptions could go some way in explaining some of the attrition from the industry.

‘People fall into this business, it is lax, if you are a misfit you fit in. Strange industry to be in, work hours etc. The kind of people the industry attracts are outgoing extraverts, night life, party aspect attracts young people. It has a glamorous side to it - travel the world, the bar night club thing - attracted to a job that has a lack of commitment when you don’t want to be committed.’ (industry operator)

‘NZ’ers are some of the greatest travelers. Lots of people want a ticket out of NZ and tourism is seen as an occupation that gives you access to other place, so the industry is attractive in its ability to suit transient people.’ (industry organisation)

b. Different work ethic now and the attitudes of workers today

Young employees are seen as exhibiting a different work ethic to the people who are likely to be employing them. There is much written about Gen Y including recent work in the
hospitality industry in New Zealand (Liaise HSI 2007b). The characteristics that people of this age group are said to exhibit include moving frequently between jobs and not being organisation loyal. Along with this is a potentially poor attitude towards work, which causes employers to feel frustrated. Employers also identified that in the current situation, where they must hire people without prior skills and knowledge, the right attitudes of the potential employee becomes centrally important. If the attitude is right then it gives the employer the chance to mould the individual and inculcate them with sufficient skill to do the job adequately, if not better.

‘The work ethic is different now. We hire for attitude principally - you can pick it. You can teach anyone to make beds, do costing or cook a main - I can teach them the technical skills but you can’t teach them a good attitude. Can’t teach them to take a personal pride in things, attitude has to be number one.’ (industry operator)

‘We are dealing with a generation that is not organisation loyal - they are quite transient - they shift at the drop of a hat - seemingly part of business as usual for Gen Y. Gen X and Baby Boomers were more stable - movement for them takes courage. Now you are lucky to get a year with someone.’ (industry training organisation)

‘Recruiting into tourism is 80-90% attitude - work ethic, consistency and people approach, communication. Pre employment training dusts off the attitudes. If the person doesn’t have the right attitude it won’t work. Need to be at the coal face, season in season out, and be able to stay motivated while there is chaos around you and it is the 50th complaint of the day. You have to be there in industry to understand that. Sometimes pre employment training means that the people think they are too good to do that job - people need to have the right attitude.’ (industry training organisation)

c. Lack of basic education in many who are entering the industry

Generally, entry to the industry is easy. In some sectors, pre employment training is required before entry into work. The industry attracts low school achievers who easily get jobs because of the shortage of available staff. The flow on effect of this is that these individuals quite quickly reach a barrier of progression into more senior roles. The current education system in both primary and secondary school appears not to prepare students with adequate literacy and numeracy. If the industry is reduced to accepting ‘warm bodies’ because that is all they can get there is a high likelihood that these prospective employees lack literacy and numeracy. This is very similar to the problems experienced in Samoa.
‘Scarcity of good quality personnel with a good basic standard of education. There is a lack of skills and the lack of potential to develop beyond a certain point.’ (industry operator)

‘Whilst pre employment training is desirable a good basic education matters more. Literacy, numeracy and communication are the most significant problems in new recruits.’ (industry operator)

‘It is so easy to get a job that they become the warm bodies of the industry. It is a critical situation but it is tied up with the economy, education standards in the school system etc. People have NCEA but they do not have a basic education - the compulsory component of education seems to have dropped by the wayside.’ (industry operator)

## 5.2.4 A licence to operate in tourism

The idea of a licence to operate in tourism was discussed with interviewees. The idea has been discussed in other countries (Watson and Drummond 2002). Responses to the idea of a licence to practice are very mixed. People interviewed who were in support organisations to the industry viewed it more favourably than industry operators. One idea is having a system such as a pre Qualmark check to ensure that owners and managers of businesses had the systems in place to ensure quality delivery and as part of this, training would be considered to be essential. Others suggested an actual Licence to Practice as an essential step to setting up a business. Others thought that such a concept would undermine creativity and entrepreneurship and that there are enough rules and regulations in New Zealand society anyway. The issue was raised as to who would administer the system if it were in place and that it might just be the people who are good at ticking boxes who gain the licence rather than those who are really able. The issue of management and the lack of quality in business management is seen as more of the problem.

The fact that businesses already feel heavily laden with compliance is also raised, however most of this compliance is around health and safety rather than ensuring that best management practices are followed or that there is a requirement to invest in training. New Zealand is compared with Australia where businesses are required to invest a percentage of turnover in training. This idea seemed to be more favourably received as opposed to a licence to practice.

‘I have thought for a long time that there should be a licence to operate in tourism. I get new immigrants coming to see me and I talk them through what they need to do from a
marketing perspective and talk about is there a market etc and at the end of the conversation they say yes I want to go ahead with this. They say ‘who do I have to go and see to get the Ok to do this?’ A lot of people are astounded that there is not regulatory or licencing authority to say I am fit and able to operate this business. You have to go to land transport or maritime safety, IRD, employment agreement but no one oversees your aptitude, your ability to run the business, the barriers to entry are very low and maybe this needs to change.’ (industry organisation)

‘Maybe rather than a regulatory authority it could be attacked a different way such as a pre Qualmark startup, do you have to be pre Qualmarked rated before you can put a DLE card into I-Site for instance? No you can’t come in here yet because you haven’t reached the stage yet. From customer satisfaction and safety standards it would be good to know how they rank.’ (industry organisation)

‘Australia has an employers’ levy that they have to pay - they must put that levy towards training - it is an excellent idea, take it out of the taxes 2% of your gross has to be invested. That would be a huge change.’ (trainer)

‘A licence system? We can’t afford not to. The idea to spend 2% of turnover on training and get it back as a tax credit.’ (trainer)

‘It is a pipe dream to make it a reality, how long would it take to make it work? Having trained people, lifting the standard in the workforce, make it regulated. For an established business they may be able to cope with a licence to practice, there is an ability to go down that line. For many businesses there would be huge resistance, look at banning smoking. I don’t know if legislation is the way to go, its not very kiwi, not supporting ingenuity and entrepreneurship.’ (industry operator)

‘In NZ the social rights, entrepreneurial rights, no 8 wire, NZ’ers believe that they can do whatever they like, if they lose their shirt then so be it, the industry needs entrepreneurs, particularly in the adventure sector. The new ideas are crucial. Anyone borrowing money from the bank has to put a business plan together anyway.’ (industry operator)

‘A licence to practice is not a bad idea but it won’t solve the problem. At the end of the day the licence to operate won’t solve anything, it is about supply and demand. Some employers are not suitable managers, they don’t have the leadership capability. There are too many rules in this country already.’ (industry operator)
‘That is not a goer. Low entry barriers are an issue certainly but the whole entrepreneurial thing is so important. Proven performance versus ease of doing business the latter will win. If there were tests or licences who will be the licensing agency? We need enterprise and entrepreneurship and the market will weed out the bad from the good. I do think we could be much more targeted about which businesses are supported and which aren’t, we should do more of that. We should slice off the bottom 20% of the industry.’ (government organisation)

‘I think an early level accreditation doesn’t work, you just might be good at putting things down on paper. I am less supportive of the upfront thing but the hurdles should be bigger and what sort of instrument will you use? With Qualmark we should get serious about it, for instance only supporting businesses that have it and only giving them the advantage. If we really want to change things there are regulatory levers that need to be pulled. People who are doing good stuff need to gain more market advantage that those that aren’t. At the moment we are relying only on market measures - it is too easy to enter. The government won’t be receptive to bureaucratic hurdles. We need more of an incentive system.’ (government organisation)

### 5.2.5 Conclusions relating to human resource issues in the industry

The overall perception of the industry as a career choice does not appear to be good, particularly at entry level and there are definitely issues relating to the industry’s ability to recruit at an entry level. Despite this, entry to the industry is easy, in some sectors with no skill or pre employment training being required before entry into work, therefore pockets of the industry, and particularly hospitality, are attracting low school achievers. This is a real problem for the industry with literacy and numeracy not being at the required level and the impact this has on individual’s ability to progress through the industry to a management level. The conclusion of the Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey (2006) that 43% of New Zealanders do not have sufficient literacy to participate in the knowledge economy is a sobering statistic.

The perception of the industry is one that is casual and transient, attracting people who are not yet looking for a real job. You can get a job anywhere in the world in tourism and hospitality and that casual aspect of it suits those people who are not ready to commit to a job. A job in tourism is also a ticket to the world, so for travelers the industry holds real appeal. Baum (2006b) clearly states the case of an industry with low status attracting employees who further perpetuate the perception of poor status.
The issue of seasonality and how this impacts on human resource practices is a major underlying issue in terms of industry profitability, pay rates, retention of staff and quality of the visitor experience. Managers and owners of businesses are very concerned about the lack of retention of staff but do not seem to see that addressing pay rates may change that. Lack of profitability forces operators to dumb down the pay rates. This comment is very telling ‘we don’t do formal appraisals because people will have expectations for pay increases’ (industry training organisation citing an industry operator).

These issues reflect the world wide scene and are well described in Riley (1993) and Baum’s (1993, 2006b) discussion of the work force as being in the semi or unskilled category with weak internal labour markets, where work is seasonal, part time and casual; ‘The ever present fluctuations in consumer demand creates the ever present incentive to deskill’ (Riley 1993, p55).

The New Zealand industry is also characterized by a lack of career paths. This has been clearly identified in other parts of the world (Pollack and Ritchie 1990, Watson and Drummond 2002). This is due to many reasons, one of which is the seasonality of the industry and the inability to retain staff to develop a career path. Issues are SME’s lack of job roles and larger businesses facing such high staff turnover that there is no time to focus on developing careers as the time is spent in the recruitment and induction phase and never moving past that. The Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy (2006) stresses that there must be a way for people to pursue a variety of steps and methods to achieve a path that will ultimately take them to a senior executive position.

There is a difference between small and large businesses and between industry sectors in their human resources practices. Sectors with strong labour market characteristics generally have clearer career paths and higher levels of retention. Larger businesses have more resources to put into building the capability of their business and the people working in them. Career paths are generally more obvious in a larger business as well and potentially there is better pay and development. SME’s potentially struggle more with limited resources.

The skills shortage is a key feature of tourism as well as other industries, so the pressure is on to compete with other industries to attract workers. This throws into sharp relief the labour market characteristics of some sectors of the industry, particularly hospitality. The parts of the wider industry with weak labour market characteristics cannot compete with other industries that offer better terms and conditions. Again this reinforces the work of Baum (2006b) and Riley (1993). This linked to the general perception of the industry, means
that the industry cannot attract the right calibre of people to it. ‘The industry is only as good as the people who work in it’ (industry operator). This is not a new problem however and has been discussed for some decades. The concern about attracting the right people in New Zealand was discussed by Collier (1999), the Tourism 2000 Conference, Warren et al (2003), Brien (2004) and the ensuing New Zealand strategy documents of the last 3 years. Brien (2004) points out that to attract people to the industry requires strategic planning and industry leadership.

The use of immigrant labour, to deal with shortages of local labour, works well as long as the immigrant labour is skilled and speaks sufficient English to be easily absorbed into the workforce. Aitken and Hall (2000) point out the foreign skills can add value to the service transaction. However if they are not skilled and have poor English, the industry is essentially just purchasing more problems. Visitors expect to see the ‘kiwi persona’ in the workplace and when they are greeted by immigrants with little English they feel their expectations have not been met; ‘A key deliverable is that it is delivered by kiwis. For interactive travelers what is the key experience, it needs to be by people who understand what a kiwi experience is’ (industry organisation). Tourism is a global industry however and as such people should be able to move around the world and take up roles within the industry with relative ease. This should be a benefit of a job in tourism.

It appears that in some businesses, managers and owners understand the link between investing in staff and staff retention and that there is a cost associated with this. The cost of not investing in staff is even greater. The reality of the current situation for many industry operators is that they feel under pressure. The fact that people move in and out of jobs within the industry and also out of the industry altogether is a feature of the industry that both serves the needs of employers in that they need staff to be casual, but it also creates the problem of a lack of commitment of staff. As Brien (2004) indicated, turnover rates between 48-110% are not uncommon in the hotel sector. Young employees are also seen as exhibiting a different work ethic, the Gen Y generation are seen as moving frequently between jobs and not being organisation loyal (Liaise HSI 2007b).

The lack of trained supervisors and managers in the industry is seen as a major issue as this has a flow on effect into how these supervisors train others. If they do not have the skill and knowledge to encourage development of others in the workplace then the problem of skills shortages is exacerbated. It is so difficult to get staff that managers will accept lower standards, for fearing of losing staff, rather than uphold high standards; ‘I don’t really buy into there being such a big skills shortage - what it takes is skilled leadership to make people stay’ (industry training organisation).
Managers in many businesses are fighting fires and trying to keep up with the cost of staff turnover and insufficient profit. Instead of working on the business they are working in the business. The industry is criticized as having too many inexperienced managers and owners, often without formal business education and the flow on effect this has on business success. The ability of operators to see the link between investing in training and increasing profitability is lacking. The expression, ‘The fish rots from the head’ (industry training organisation), powerfully reinforces that managers in New Zealand are not demonstrating the skill and knowledge to do the job right. The New Zealand Skills Strategy (2008) also notes that managers and management systems have to become more sophisticated in New Zealand and that we lag behind other OECD countries.

Understanding the links between training, productivity and profitability is one key to positive developments in the future. If the productivity of workers is increased it will increase business profitability and one of the best ways to achieve this is to have well trained staff who are able to multi task and be multi functional and who understand the dynamics of the business environment in which they are operating. This is further complicated by the needs of the 21st century business environment (Go 2005).

A danger that is expressed is that New Zealand is being advertised as a high quality destination delivering quality niche products and services to visitors, yet the industry is characterized by low profitability and unskilled staff. Again Baum (2006b) discusses that in order for front line service to be delivered at the level that matches the promise there needs to be investment in assuring that there is skilled service and sales skills that are backed up by excellent management practices. The industry needs to put human resources at the forefront to move the industry forward. The New Zealand Skills Strategy (Skill NZ 2008) reinforces the discussion around the lack of the appropriate skill set, with data that shows that New Zealand’s economic growth has been around labour utilization rather than labour productivity. This situation reinforces yet again the poor management practices in the industry.

To raise the bar of human resource practices in New Zealand, there is the option to create a licence to practice, or something similar, in an attempt to lift the standards. This could include requirements around management skill, expertise and development as well as requirements for businesses to train. One suggestion is a percentage of turnover to be spent on training and development. Watson and Drummond (2002) discuss this as an option being explored in Scotland and the potential to link this to quality assurance programmes. There is agreement in general that operators in New Zealand who are not meeting standards should not be supported and the barriers increased, such as the ability to participate in recognized
industry groupings or marketing off shore. Only the operators who are doing a good job should have access to support and development. However there is also the feeling that to impose more regulation will not be well received and in fact runs counter to the New Zealand entrepreneurial spirit held so dear by so many.

These fundamental issues that the industry faces show that there is a huge task ahead to ensure a vibrant, quality visitor experience is delivered by everyone. New Zealand issues reflect worldwide issues although the lack of management expertise seems to be particularly a problem in New Zealand.

5.3 Education and training and the industry

The findings in this section have been grouped into three categories:

- general issues relating to education and training
- pre employment training or off job training
- on the job training

5.3.1 General issues relating to education and training


Within the last few years there has been considerable work to analyse the problems facing the New Zealand tourism industry in terms of human resources. Support organisations to the industry can see the value of the research to assist the industry move forward and have been going to some lengths to produce strategic documents with a number of key objectives to potentially solve the current set of problems, particularly skills shortages. Industry operators appear to be less impressed with the strategies.

The Workforce Strategy’s (2006) implementation appears to have been stalled or subsumed within the work being done to implement the Tourism Strategy (MoT 2007). There is some concern about the implementation of either strategy because of the plethora of organisations involved in the industry and the fact that the implementation might get lost in bureaucratic paper shuffling. There appears to be a need for further discussion between all the parties to ensure effective implementation of the strategies.

‘Structure of tourism very complicated, national level organisations such as umbrella groups, national sector groups, all those national organisations are talking to the members and then at a regional level there are all of those organisations. It is hard to cut
through the clutter, lots of talking across each other. Industry coordination is a big issue, it is a complex and diverse industry and getting it to think as one is an ongoing issue - need to get the one industry concept going.’ (industry organisation)

‘There is a process underway to determine how it (tourism strategy) will be implemented - there is no one organisation that owns it, it is a bunch of organisations that have to work together for the implementation.’ (industry organisation)

‘What resources will be available to effect change? That is a question for government. If the sector is going to perform better and the strategy identifies how, who wants to do what? The implementation plan is taken to government with a funding request.’ (government organisation)

‘Workforce strategy? Employers honestly take no notice, we just get on with trying to make a profit. Tourism strategy? Employers are focused on business plans and profits, what is happening now. There are a few people who stand up and shout. There is a high level of cynicism from businesses about the strategy.’ (industry operator)

‘Now the workforce strategy has been incorporated into the tourism strategy. It was a real struggle to broaden the group of key stakeholders beyond the group identified. If the ITO’s were doing their leadership role well they would pull together all the stakeholders in the sector. This is quite distinct from their role of being a delivery agency.’ (industry training organisation)

b. Industry is better qualified than it was

The industry is perceived as being better qualified now than it was. There is far more opportunity to be trained in both an off the job and on the job context. People are entering the industry with qualifications or involved in on the job training through industry training organisations.

‘The industry is desirable, attracting the staff is not the issue. With tourism relevant courses and with tourism being considered a strong industry there are more people aware of tourism and wanting to be involved and employed in the industry. There are more people with relevant qualifications to enter the industry. It is a better qualified industry than 10 years ago.’ (industry organisation)

c. Advantages of being trained

Everyone agrees that it is better to be trained than not trained. Exactly what that training looks like is another matter. The advantages of being trained are understood to add value to
the effectiveness of service delivery and to management’s ability to do their job well. An employee that has enhanced technical skills, through training, as well as sound generic skills such as communications and IT, should do their job better. The ability to multi-task and be multi-functional is seen as a centrally important skill in today’s work environment and this is essential to being well trained.

“If staff know what they are doing they can cope with questions and demands because they have been trained to deal with it - floor staff should be able to deal with stuff - on the job training is also essential because of individual business requirements.’ (industry operator)

“There is an improvement in quality and productivity, it requires constant learning, it is absolutely critical. If you stay treading water your competitors have over taken you. Training and development must be about multi-skilling and multi-functioning. The companies that are doing well are multi-skilling their staff - kind of like hotel trainee managers. The ability to utilise staff across a range of areas makes them more effective - unless it is a specialist area the roles should be cross functional.’ (industry training organisation)

d. Different attitudes in industry towards training

Some operators think staff training and development is important and others do not. The businesses that do not care about training potentially do not care about the customer and the quality of the service delivery. Some operators are just in it for a short term financial return and probably would not care about training staff. Attitudes to training also vary from sector to sector and those that have customer safety as a key part of what they deliver, tend to accept training as an essential part of what they have to do.

‘Industry will have lots of different attitudes. Go back to the fundamental that people are in business to make money. They will spend what they have to spend to run their business and then to make a profit. Training fits in to the ‘have to do to run the business’. Some tourism suppliers understand the value of staff and training and others have no idea. You can see it in the business and the ethos and how they value their customer. Good businesses will value it, understand it seek it out and require their staff to do it. Others who are only in it for the short term to build something and flick it on for a profit and they don’t get it.’ (industry organisation)

‘True of the restaurant sector who don’t commit to training. They want the arms and legs to get through the season, yet it is so important. Some sectors have got it right, some don’t. Adventure tourism have trained staff - but this is about compliance. What we are
identifying here is, do they see that staff should be trained for customer satisfaction or are they being trained because they have to do it. This could be attached to the New Zealand psyche - fly by the seat of your pants - they don’t take a long term strategic approach.’ (industry organisation)

e. The number 8 wire attitude - so why do we need training

The lack of commitment to training may be a reflection of the ‘Number 8 Wire’ mentality. Kiwis are famous for their ingenuity and self-sufficiency, all they need is 'a piece of Number 8 wire'. No 8 wire is a particular gauge of wire that is used as fencing wire around New Zealand farms.

Training and development may be against the notion of ingenuity and self-sufficiency. Being required to train is against this free spiritedness. Being required equals being told what to do and this does not sit well in a society that rewards those who are creative and entrepreneurial. This also links with McClure’s (2004) comments about the dramatic landscape of New Zealand being mythologised to create Extreme NZ the fresh, young, exhilarating and raw. Free spiritedness and courage is centrally important to what it means to be a kiwi.

‘As a people we have this belief that we can do anything … The number 8 wire attitude - why do we need training. University students can go and do anything. This is a great attribute about our people but maybe it makes the problem as well.’ (industry organisation)

f. Fear and cost of investing in training

Businesses are scared to spend the money on training because they know that staff will be leaving anyway, managers have decided that in advance, and they are therefore afraid that they will waste their money on someone who is going to leave. Therefore they don’t bother to invest. They are caught in a cycle of cost of turnover, the lack of retention, the lack of profitability, the cost of turnover and so on. The downward cycle continues.

The fact that training also takes time and that it is an investment can also be a barrier for small businesses that are already stretched to keep afloat. There is no fat in the system to make the training more feasible. If a business is barely keeping afloat investing in training is seen as impossible.
‘Retention, the cost of turnover, the cost of training - it is on the tip of most peoples tongues about what they are facing – “what if I train them and they leave?”’ (industry training organisation)

‘There is a time factor of putting it into training - even though in the long run it benefits people there are a lot of managers out there who are too busy and involved in the business itself to train staff and you have to invest in it - even though it benefits people immeasurably there are lots of managers out there who are too busy to take the time to train their staff - lots of SME’s. Twenty or less staff, husband and wife business - they are reacting all the time.’ (industry training organisation)

‘At the moment people are faced with people leaving and so they are scared to invest in external training.’ (trainer)

‘People are hiring directly from school but you have to skill them up. Maybe they don’t have a choice but it’s what happens next is the problem because they don’t think they will stay they wont train.’ (trainer)

**g. The fire in the belly to train is there but the question is how**

A view put forward is that industry operators are in fact willing and interested in training but they cannot see how to do it or in fact why to do it. The barriers are too great and they do not see how to access the trainers who could potentially assist them. They need to understand more clearly that the cost of not training is greater than the cost of it. Also, industry needs to see more clearly the purpose of training, it needs to be explained and there need to be role models to lead by example.

‘The question needs to be why? What do you want to see happen in your business? If people are clear about this, then training will happen. What is the purpose and is it matched to where they want to be. It needs to be strategic. Most people are positive about training their staff, the desire is there but they don’t know how to do it, the fire in the belly is there. This is when they look for external providers - ITO’s and providers. It all needs to be rolled into their business plan. Some say that they cannot afford training - there is a cost but there is a cost in not doing it. Even small businesses know that they should be doing it - people recognize the need because they see the gaps. There is not enough leading by example.’ (industry training organisation)

**h. Need to create a staff culture that is learning based**

In order for training to happen in tourism businesses it needs to be built into the culture of the place so that everyone in the business who is in a supervision role takes up the mantle
and incorporates training into their everyday work life. If it is incorporated into daily life then it is integrated into business practice and is not seen as something external and complex to manage. The onus is on managers to make this happen.

“You need to create a staff culture that is learning based. I like to think that people learn from me but mainly I am dealing with setting and developing expectation and training those who can have a direct effect on quality, such as supervisors and then supporting supervisors to train others. I can’t train them all. I need to trust that staff in senior positions are going to be able to do that and take the concepts I have got and pass them on.’  (industry operator)

### 5.3.2 On the job training

#### a. Training in industry needs to be linked to performance management

The current model of industry training is not seen as a particularly effective model. Two factors have to be in place to ensure that on the job training is effective in the workplace, particularly in large businesses. There needs to be a good human resource management structure and completing on job training needs to be linked to performance management. In other words when an individual is committed to a training programme it needs to be monitored through performance appraisal to ensure that it is seen as an essential part of the job. If this process is not in place it is too easy to not bother with the training and then it is more than likely that it will slip by the wayside. The point is also raised that there should be a cost to training as well. If it is free it may not be taken seriously.

“In many workplaces there is a lack of an HR model. Line managers can just pull trainees off the programme. You need good performance management and a powerful HR dept for training to be effective. It is difficult to get people to do things in their own time, there needs to be a better model in place. The employees are going to have to have a better model, the employer needs to be able to monitor the progress of the trainee. You have to have a carrot and stick approach. If it is not having to be paid for it is highly unlikely that they will complete, it is so easy for them to give up.’  (industry operator)

#### b. Training needs to be tailored to suit the needs of the business

Training for employees in tourism businesses needs to be matched to individual business needs and this could vary from business to business.

“No easy answer. What works? Has to be tailored to the needs of the business. The same training is not applicable to each business.’  (industry training organisation)
‘For SME’s it is difficult to tell them what to do. Have to ask industry what is their goal, begin with the end in mind, if they say they don’t want to achieve anything, they are not our customers, you need to ask what do employers want?’ (industry training organisation)

‘Training is best engaged with when it is matched to the team, the unit and the person as long as it is structured. Some people are highly motivated and others need to be nursed through it. Some people are internally motivated, some are externally motivated it depends on each individual as to what will work.’ (industry training organisation)

c. **ITO funding drives workplaces to do the training themselves**

ITO’s receive funding from the government for on the job training in the form of Standard Training Measure (STM) allotments, just as education and training providers receive Equivalent Full Time Student (EFTS) funding. ITO’s then pass this resource onto industry operators directly in forms of subsidies or payments when industry trainees report credits towards national qualifications or indirectly through brokering training or providing resources. The method depends on the ITO and their policies and procedures.

This allocation of funding has forced industry to become involved in training themselves whether or not they have the capability to do so. Industry operators are not going to turn their backs on government funding to train staff, yet it can increase their workload and unless they have suitable staff to become workplace trainers and assessors it can become a burden. The funding model is criticized as not necessarily serving the industry the best.

‘Since ITO funding has happened, funding drives workplaces to do it themselves. Whether this is the right model, I don’t know. Providers have a big role to play in this. Bigger organisations can focus resources on employees but SME’s can’t, they don’t have the resources to do that. Funding and the way it is set up it is too expensive for the industry to use providers, industry needs to set up partnerships. If the qualification was funded differently it would be easier. The subsidy from ITO’s matters, every hour an employee is out of work that is lost productivity.’ (industry operator)

d. **Training is not the core business for industry and this can create quality issues when industry embark on their own training**

Tourism businesses are not in the business of training and it is often difficult for a business to engage in training either because of lack of time or lack of expertise. They have had to take up the training mantle (in order to be funded) in addition to their core business. This creates its own set of problems. Being a trainer and an educator is a learnt skill that does not come
naturally to everyone. It is a big assumption that supervisors can suddenly become quality trainers.

‘It is a real struggle for businesses to do workplace training because it is not their core business.’ (industry operator)

‘One third of my time is spent focused on training and development, that is a lot of time when it is a small group of people in the company and there is high turnover. Other businesses won’t be able to do this - one of the issues is that further up the levels (NZQA) there is a point where businesses need to say this is not our business - have to question why they would do it.’ (industry operator)

e. Need a mix of on the job training and pre employment training

The nine out of ten scenario is to have a mix of pre employment training and then on the job training. Some sectors follow this model more than others. If it is a matter of compliance, pre employment training is considered to be essential. The bonding of travel agents and the requirements for raft guides and seakayak guides to be certified and registered, with their professional bodies to be able to lead client groups, means that training is essential.

A view expressed by several interviewees, is that industry should do the skills training and education, and training providers should do the knowledge and theory training that underpins the skills required for the job. Both forms of training are seen as highly desirable. On the job training is essential to provide what is specific to each individual company and cannot be covered in a pre employment context and the underpinning knowledge is better covered in an off the job context. There is also mention of the need to develop people to think and grow, to educate them in a more meaningful way, to move them further. The current scenario, described as ‘four out of ten’, is one where there may be little of either type of training.

‘The best possible situation which is the 9/10 scenario. Young people leave school with good literacy and numeracy then they do a one year pre employment programme that prepares them for the career they want to go into. Four out of ten is the reality at the moment. Whilst we do have pre employment training these people tend to go into specialist areas such as travel and marketing but there is a huge raft with no interest no education.’ (industry operator)

‘Depends on the sub sector, because tourism is such a broad sector with so many sub sectors, need a mix of on the job and pre employment. Need some theory and
introduction and then on going coaching and development. In any job you need some theory - how things should be, you need introduction and you need on going coaching and development on the job.’ (industry organisation)

‘A combination, need the foundation stones and then the experience in the industry. What you learn in industry is different from what you learn in pre employment training. The institute training needs to cover all bases. The skills that need to be taught need to be in general areas, applicable to all facets of the industry. Once you are in the workplace you need to have an intense induction programme and then specific technical training, skills needed to meet the expectations of visitors.’ (industry operator)

‘Each business will have specific need. Providers should be delivering the knowledge and industry the skills.’ (industry training organisation)

### 5.3.3 Pre employment training - off job training

#### a. Pre employment training is vital

People interviewed, acknowledged that pre employment training was highly desirable, if not achievable. The quality of service might improve if people were pre employment trained. In the current situation, many people are not trained before they get a job. A pre trained staff member may encounter resentment of other staff about their skills.

‘Pre employment training is imperative - must have trained staff - if people will do pre employment training it is great. Reality is that in the market place today you can get a job without a qualification. Pre employment training gives them the base skills to take to the employer.’ (industry operator)

‘Trained students are mana from heaven - the danger for the students is that management will be jealous of the skills gained - they may be kept down in a box so they are not a threat.’ (trainer)

#### b. Apprentice model as a type of training

The New Zealand government initiative to introduce the Modern Apprentice (MA) scheme to the country for young people aged 16-24 has meant that many young people are moving directly from secondary school into apprenticeships in tourism and hospitality businesses. The reintroduction of the apprenticeship model into New Zealand is not without its issues. Apprenticeships used to be common practice in New Zealand, up until the late 1980’s but were phased out with the introduction of the NQF. Although, on one hand, the MA scheme
is seen as a really good model, there are issues with its implementation in some sectors, particularly in hospitality.

‘The Aussie model of apprenticeship, 4 days work, 1 days training. A year full time at college is not the right way, it is not realistic enough. You need timing and you really only pick it up in industry.’ (industry operator)

‘The major problem with the current apprentice model is that the current chefs in industry are not familiar with the model. This generation did a course at a polytechnic, completely external to industry and they don’t understand that part of their job is to train people and don’t understand how the apprenticeship system really works. We have lost a generation of apprentice chefs. It is a cultural thing that we have to rebuild.’ (trainer)

c. Secondary schools are becoming involved in what has been traditionally tertiary training territory
The involvement of secondary schools in training for industry is a relatively new development in New Zealand. With changes to the funding for secondary schools it is more attractive now to keep students in school who otherwise would have left at a much earlier age and gone on to jobs or vocational training in Polytechnics. Now the schools are creating vocational courses themselves and some are hiring industry professionals to teach the courses. As a result of this, students can directly enter the work force from school, bypassing vocational courses at a tertiary level. There is variable quality in the training being delivered by some schools. Some schools are criticized for using teachers to teach vocational subjects who have had no experience in that vocation. Geography teachers teaching retail travel and home economics teachers teaching cookery.

‘Secondary schools are doing the basic skills stuff but in a lot of secondary schools the teachers don’t necessarily have the skills or industry experience. Those who do have the experience have good outcomes for their students - they know what industry wants and the basic skills that are required.’ (trainer)

d. Plenty of supply in training provision but a lack of quality
There has been a general proliferation of training provision in the country but this has not necessarily improved the quality of people entering the industry. There is also a trend towards pre employment training courses being shortened and this has not improved the situation either. The result is poor quality graduates who do not have the skills to multi task in a busy industry environment. The calibre of students is also being questioned.
‘The people attracted to the industry are at the bottom rung of the education ladder. Quality of the staff coming through is not as good. Training has been fast tracked. People have unrealistic expectations of what they are going to get, used to be 3 year courses or a year and now it is 12 weeks.’ (trainer)

e. Education and training providers need to change the way they do business

Education and training providers need to look at new ways to sell what they can offer to industry. The traditional methods of delivering programmes are not necessarily effective. Communication between industry and providers needs to be examined and potentially changed to a more dynamic model.

There is criticism that providers are stuck in an old model of training that is no longer effective and does not deliver the outcomes that industry want and need. Tutors are also criticized as not being of the right calibre and characterized as having a ‘civil service, feet up on the desk mentality’. The expectations of both providers and industry, of each other, are also criticized as unrealistic, with both sides having expectations that cannot be realized. Misconceptions grow as the interaction and connection diminishes.

‘I was on an industry advisory committee and I was talked at - gave feedback and they argued with it. Industry can’t come along to training providers and ask them for things that they are not able to provide. What might be more effective for dialogue is a larger skills and workforce forum with discussion where everyone can come together and take from it what they want to, but getting engagement from industry is so hard. Industry are going to have to step up - they say it is their biggest issue (HR) but they don’t act like it.’ (government organisation)

‘Providers need to get their acts together establishing that relationship. I always sense that there is a commitment from providers to do it. There is not yet a good model to do it effectively.’ (industry training organisation)

‘The calibre of tutors makes a huge difference, the calibre of what they are doing is not good enough. There need to be active relationships between industry and training providers. Industry feedback is good about certain providers. There has to be an open view. There is expectation from some providers that students will be taken from their programmes rather than earning respect, got to have the right people in the provider environment.’ (industry training organisation)

‘ITO’s have filled the training gap because the relationship between industry and providers has not been good. The perception for most of industry is that providers would
f. Providers need to take the pressure off industry for training and build better relationships

Industry operators are stressed with just keeping their business operating. They are not focused on the issues of training. Training providers could play a more active role in supporting industry with training for industry employees. Traditionally providers have focused on pre employment training rather than training for industry on the job. Providers need to sell themselves and their value to the industry, better than they are at the moment.

It is important to build better and stronger relationships between providers and industry with more of a partnership model with industry, providers and ITO’s working together for the good of ensuring quality. The current situation has elements of being competitive and critical. There are, however, examples of partnerships working well in some instances.

‘Providers need to take the burden off industry. Need to fund providers to do the courses for industry, levy the industry so they have to spend money on training. There has to be a transition, you can’t expect a stressed industry to be able to take up the training mantle. At the moment it is an impossible situation.’ (industry operator)

‘We really need to partner more. Industry says, “we need this, just give us the solution”. If I could trust what a provider could do I wouldn’t go to the market for trainers.’ (industry training organisation)

‘ITP’s need to get out there and make themselves known to the value that they can supply to an industry. ITP’s need to mobilize and get out there with industry and need to assert their position. “This is what we can do for you”. ITP’s are under utilized in terms of their capacity and benefit that they can bring to an industry. Providers have to take ownership of it, that is where the focus has to be. Poly’s need to change the model of what they do. Everyone is a sales person for the business.’ (industry training organisation)

g. Tension between ITO’s and providers

The current funding model is creating competition between ITO’s and providers. They both need students. ITO’s are not supposed to deliver training themselves but they do broker the training on behalf of industry and they are the conduit to training provision for most operators. ITO’s in many instances do not engage providers to deliver the required industry training. They are more likely to engage a consulting company who can respond quickly to
requests for training provision. Some ITO’s work closely with providers to deliver off the job components of qualifications, whereas others do not. ITO’s are currently the face of training for most industry operators. The relationship between providers and industry used to be closer, now the ITO’s have bridged the gap.

‘Providers are being pushed out by ITO’s whereas in the past there was a relationship with providers, not any more. The government is a bit confused about what they are achieving with ITO’s and providers. There is always a tension between ITO’s and providers.’ (industry training organisation)

‘Industry isn’t rocked by qualifications. They want training that fills the solution gap and that is where ITO’s come in. If providers can provide needs based solutions that would be great but the funding model isn’t set up for that. They will go to a consulting company to fill the gap.’ (industry training organisation)

‘Between providers and ITO’s it has become more competitive - ITO’s are walking the concrete - they can influence training provision and providers are defensive about that.’ (industry training organisation)

‘Most employers don’t care where they get the training from - whereas the current government policy is focused on who they get it from. It is all patch stuff - irrelevant to employers and employees - they think that is a Wellington game - industry don’t get it - it just gets in the way.’ (government organisation)

‘We want ITO’s and providers to work together to provide the training - TEC came back saying there need to be clear rules to avoid conflict so they know what their patch is.’ (government organisation)

h. Industry needs to maximize on the funding given by the government to pre employment training

The government is currently investing in the tourism and hospitality industries by subsidizing pre employment programmes being offered at institutes throughout the country. The government funds ITP’s, universities and PTE’s based on predetermined numbers of students who will be studying at their institutes in particular programmes. If the ITP fails to fill the programmes, to the level identified in the institutes investment plan, the money allocated to that programme will be invested elsewhere, potentially to other industries that have more buoyant enrolments. The tourism and hospitality industries are probably not aware of this investment and do not see it as an investment in tourism and hospitality as such, yet it definitely is.
‘Employers say we train ourselves and that is what works - what they don’t realize is that they are turning their backs on a 75% skills subsidy. They don’t appreciate what they are leaving on the table. The investment in training (given to institutes) is a significant investment in our industry - how can we make sure we keep it and leverage off it. They don’t understand the education system. They either take the trained person or decide to do it themselves because ‘I will get what I want if I do it myself’ mentality.’ (government organisation)

‘The industry needs to maximize on this funding (that comes through EFTS funding). It is an investment in the industry that the government is making in pre employment tertiary learning we don’t use this strategically with industry.’ (industry training organisation)

i. Large disconnection between the needs of industry and university education in tourism

There is a sense of disconnection between university education and the industry and where it fits into serving the needs of industry. Industry do not find it easy to see the value in what is being taught and researched at a university level. There is a lack of understanding of the relevance of higher levels of education to meet current industry needs.

‘With academic training I really struggle with it, employers must really struggle with it, there is such a vast disconnect. Academia in a tourism context seems to be following a self indulgent research driven interest driven agenda. It is really difficult to find real industry strategically relevant research.’ (government organisation)

j. Need a better strategy and framework for how training is delivered to meet the needs of industry

The current model of delivery of training is not really working effectively. There are potentially too many ITO’s with duplicating qualifications. More collaboration is required to produce a more effective environment for education, training and development.

‘There need to be discussions between industry, providers, TEC and ITO’s. Need a strategy and a framework, there are too many ITO’s, too many unit standards. Each ITO doing their own thing. The latest version of qualifications and unit standards are a pain. There is ridiculous duplication and a plethora of unit standards.’ (industry operator)

‘In the ITO world and with the funding available it has been directed at levels 1-4 of the framework - but it needs to step up a level. Management training needs a far greater connection to what is going on in the real world. There needs to be a working model of
delivery that will get working managers engaged. I think that there is a greater level of disconnect between workplace and providers the further up the levels you go, it is not connected enough.’ (industry training organisation)

5.3.4 Conclusions relating to specific education and training issues in the industry

In general terms the industry is better qualified now than it was in previous years. There are a greater number of people attending courses and programmes at many levels and there is far more opportunity to be trained in both an off the job and on the job context. The advantages of being trained link closely to staff retention, increased productivity and increased profitability. This is confirmed in the three planning documents pertinent to this research, the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy (2006), the New Zealand Tourism Strategy to 2015 (MoT 2007) and the New Zealand Skills Strategy Discussion Paper (2008). The latter government document clearly states that there is a need to raise labour productivity by making sure that each individual in the workforce produces more per hour.

Businesses that do not care about training potentially do not care about the customer and the quality of the service delivery. McClure’s (2004) description of the mythologizing of the New Zealand landscape and the pioneering knack of making do, leading to technological innovation, shows the glorification of the number 8 wire ideal and confirms entrepreneurs can do precisely as they wish and so are potentially unlikely to commit to training.

Some businesses are also scared to spend money on training because they know that staff will be leaving anyway and they are therefore afraid that they will waste their time and money, so do not bother to invest. ‘What if I train them and they leave’ (industry training organisation). They need to understand more clearly that the cost of not training is greater than the cost of it. The other side of the coin is that many in industry are in fact willing and interested in training but they can not see how to do it (as well as why in some cases). The barriers are too great and they do not see how to access the trainers who could potentially assist them. The fact that training takes time and that it is an investment is a barrier for small businesses that are already stretched. There is no fat in the system to make the training more feasible. On the job training needs to be matched to the individual business needs and this varies from business to business.

If it were possible to only hire staff that were pre employment trained this would improve the quality of service delivery. ‘Pre employment training is hugely important. It avoids the ghastly mistakes’ (trainer). Some sectors do this better than others and clearly if it is a matter
of compliance, pre employment training is considered to be essential before an employee is hired. It is necessary to recognise that there are different sectors within the tourism industry with different training needs. There is also a need for strategic thinking about the delivery of education and training (Pollack 1986). Brien (2004) also discusses this in a New Zealand context and talks about the need for strategic human resource management.

New Zealand is currently using a variety of training models in different contexts, all supported and funded by the government. In fact, one key thing that needs to be better recognized by the industry is the level of investment of the government into pre employment education. Industry operators may well not see that this is an investment in the industry per se. The Skills Strategy states ‘the government can directly influence the quality and types of skills it invests in - a key aim of the tertiary education reforms’ (Skill NZ 2008, p20). The government also invests in ITO’s to develop training in the workplace.

Despite this investment there does not appear to be a clear plan with a coherent overview and in many ways the current model is competitive in nature with all participants competing for the individuals to train. New Zealand has reintroduced the apprenticeship model and although, on one hand, it is seen as a really good model there are issues with its implementation. Secondary schools are also in the business of training for industry. With changes to the funding for secondary schools it is more attractive now to keep students in school who otherwise would have left at a much earlier age and gone on to jobs or vocational training in Polytechnics. There has been a general proliferation of training provision in the country but this has not necessarily improved the situation. The quality of people entering the industry is not perceived to have improved; ‘It has definitely got worse, the increase in training providers has meant more graduates entering the industry but the quality of graduates has decreased’ (trainer). The current focus on training for job roles, rather than educating people for careers is not working to produce staff with the requisite skill and knowledge to function in the 21st century business environment. Tribe’s (2002) concern about this narrow focus and the lack of development of the whole person in vocational courses is certainly evident in the New Zealand education and training scene. The university system sits outside this vocational environment, with its focus on higher education and research but this has not diminished the divide between academic research and the applied requirements of the tourism industry who are looking for practical solutions to business problems (Page and Connell 2006).

Currently there are not strong and functional relationships between industry and education and training providers, at whatever level they are involved; ‘I think it is dysfunctional on both sides. There are expectations on both sides, training providers that that industry can tell them what
their needs are and area able to do that and industry have completely unrealistic expectations of providers’ (government organisation). This is reinforced in the literature as being a problem over decades, clearly New Zealand is no exception to this (Botterill 1996 cited in Go 2005, p486, Sawhney and Prandelli 2000 cited in Go 2005, p486).

In New Zealand, education and training providers could have a much more active role in supporting industry with on the job, or off the job training for industry employees.
Communication between industry and providers needs to be examined and potentially changed to a more dynamic model with staff in institutes being more involved with working with operators to find training solutions. There is criticism that providers are stuck in the model of training that might have worked in the past but is no longer effective and does not deliver the outcomes that industry want and need; ‘For many chefs, polytech’s are a retirement job, feet under the table don’t have to visit industry, and in many cases they are frightened of industry. Are they in the civil service mentality or are they passionate about what they are doing and is it fit for purpose ‘ (trainer). Relationships between ITO’s and providers is also not the best. There is essentially a situation of competition between ITO’s and providers.

Industry has become involved in training themselves whether or not they have the capability to do so. Tourism businesses are not in the business of training and it is often really difficult for a business to engage in training either because of lack of time or lack of expertise. Better strategic planning is also advocated with a more comprehensive strategy relating to human resources with fewer industry training organisations duplicating their efforts.

## 5.4 Conclusions

A range of human resource issues have been analysed in this chapter with a range of themes identified. The themes are all supported by direct quotes from the interviews.
Characteristics of the industry, attributes of managers and employers and attributes of staff are detailed. A licence to practice is also discussed. Conclusions relating to human resources in the industry are then provided with links to literature. Education and training is then examined with themes categorized. General issues are described, on the job training and pre employment training are then analysed. The chapter concludes with overall conclusions about education and training linked to the literature. The conclusions show that there are many similarities between a developed and developing world context. Relationships between key participants in human resource development are not functioning particularly well and the industry is not investing well in people. Key findings are highlighted in the final chapter.
Chapter 6
Overall Conclusions
From the Findings in Samoa and New Zealand

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the key findings of the research. Several key findings will be examined in more detail as they are considered to be central to future human resource management, particularly relating to education and training in the context of Samoa and New Zealand.

6.2 General human resource issues in New Zealand and Samoa

The research findings relating to human resource practices and issues in New Zealand and Samoa reinforce world wide trends as described in Chapter 2. There are a number of common themes that cross the developed/developing world context. This may be in part a result of New Zealand and Samoa both being island states in the Pacific. New Zealand is considerably more developed, larger, more industrialized and more western than Samoa but both countries can be viewed on a continuum of development. Samoa provides a starker example of many of the human resource issues that can be found in the more developed and wealthier society of New Zealand. Samoa like other island states, is characterized by MIRAB and TOURAB (Apostolopoulos and Gayle 2002) with a highly subsidized economy with dependence on foreign aid and support being central to their situation (Burns 1999, Twining Ward & Twining Ward 1998).

The detailed findings from the field work are analysed in Chapters 4 and 5 and there are key factors that are evident in both country contexts. As a starting point, it is essential to recognise the diversity of tourism and that it is not possible to generalize about the whole of tourism. It is also essential to recognize the differences between sectors and their labour market characteristics (Baum 1993, 2006b, Riley 1993).

The findings of the research reinforce the poor perception of tourism and hospitality as a career choice (Baum 1993, 2006b) and that the industry generally has low status (Westwood 2002, Keep and Mayhew 1999), probably lower in New Zealand than Samoa, much of this rooted in the notion of service (Baum 2006b). Entry to the industry is easy, many staff in both places have a low basic education and the attitudes of some workers are seen as wanting (Baum 2006b). Seasonality impacts hugely on human resource practices with poor
pay rates, lack of retention of staff, transience in the industry and out of the industry and the flow on effect that this has on the quality of the visitor experience. Employers in both contexts have a fear that if people are trained they will have expectations of higher pay (Baum 2006b). Employers believe they cannot afford to pay more and are scared to make the investment in training as it costs as well (and in Samoa it may not be readily available) and then staff will want better conditions and pay. Some employers therefore do not advocate training and development of staff. This reflects the inherent contradiction that exists in the industry. Quality service requires a skilled and trained workforce, training and development is an investment that employers must make and (some) employers know that training will increase staff motivation, commitment to the business and productivity but they are reluctant to invest because of the transience of staff. This is exacerbated by the fact that the more highly skilled an individual is, the more attractive they are to other employers, therefore training is benefiting the competition (Baum 2006b).

Tourism is very important to the Samoan and the New Zealand economies and there is little doubt about the significance of the foreign exchange earnings or the opportunities for employment in the various sectors of the tourism industry. It is equally clear that there is considerable variation in human resource practices between sectors. There is also a perceived lack of awareness in the general population of the value of tourism particularly in Samoa. This is a theme in other countries as tourism has emerged as a significant industry (Collier 1997). Samoa is currently experiencing a range of negative interactions between tourists and local communities. This is most likely directly related to the rapid growth of tourism and the fact that visitors are more visible than in the past.

The skills shortage is a key feature of tourism at this point in time (New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2007, Skills Strategy 2008, Baum 2006b, Collier 2006). In Samoa it is not a shortage of people that is the issue but the shortage of people with the right skill set. The lack of experiential intelligence (Baum 2006a) of people working in the industry mirrors the social distance between guest and host. In New Zealand it is a lack of ability to attract people to the industry and this throws into sharp relief the labour market characteristics of some sectors of the industry, particularly hospitality. However with the decrease in the pool of the staff with the right attributes in New Zealand, increasingly those entering the industry also share a social distance from the guests they serve. This means there are examples even in a developed world context of the lack of ExQ, (Baum 2006a) thus increasing the problem of the skills shortage. The use of immigrant labour to deal with skills shortages is a feature of New Zealand but not really Samoa, however the Samoan labour force are being used to fill the gaps in New Zealand and Australian tourism so they suffer the consequences of the need for immigrant labour.
Both contexts show a lack of trained and experienced supervisors and managers in the industry and this is seen as a major issue. In Samoa, this is partly linked to the social and cultural structure and values of Samoan society but in both countries it is principally to do with the quality of people entering the industry and the ability to attract the right sort of people to work in tourism. This also links to a lack of career paths compared with other industries (Pollack and Ritchie 1990) and that again links with seasonality and lack of retention of staff, lack of productivity of staff and poor business performance. This is particularly evident in New Zealand at this point in time.

This all creates a downward spiral of action and reaction that mirrors many of the problems that tourism faces world wide in terms of human resources. In order for front line service to be delivered at the level that matches the promise there needs to be investment in assuring that there is skilled service and sales skills that are backed up by excellent management practices (Baum 2006b). This lack of good management practice and the lack of management skill and expertise resulting in poor business practice is a major issue in New Zealand with the number of SME’s and their lack of profitability. The idea of a licence to operate in tourism, in New Zealand, or at least some barriers to entry into the industry has been mooted. There is agreement that operators who are not meeting standards should not be supported and the barriers for participation should be raised.

The industry in both settings (and in fact the rest of the world) needs to put human resources at the forefront to move the industry forward (Baum 2006b). In both countries there is a link between concerns with service and product quality and the lack of comprehensive planning about human resources in the tourism industry, despite the plethora of planning documents in both contexts. Also policy and government response is reactive, responding once problems have been identified rather than developing proactive policy and strategy. The lack of a comprehensive framework for human resources and a comprehensive strategy for the future (despite the range of strategic documents that have recently been written) mirrors what is espoused in the literature on the subject (Pollack and Ritchie 1990, Jafari and Ritchie 1981, Baum 1993, 2006b, Baum and Szivas 2008, Watson and Drummond 2002).

Developments generally had been ad hoc and fragmented in both Samoa and New Zealand. Organisations within the industry tend to talk past each other, exacerbated by the diversity of the industry and the corollary lack of cohesive and united planning processes.

Specific issues for Samoa lie in the government caution about tourism. The level of Samoan ownership in tourism sets the country apart from other island states in the Pacific and adds to the authentic visitor experience. Perhaps the greatest strength in terms of maintaining cultural integrity for Samoa is customary land law, controlling land ownership and keeping
it Samoan, although this is now potentially changing with the proposed new Land Reform Bill, giving matai greater control of decision making about the sale of land. The country is dealing with issues of cultural and environmental sustainability and the role that tourism plays in relation to that. Samoa needs foreign investment but this must be tempered with maintaining culture and traditions because it is this, as well as the pristine natural environment, that creates Samoa’s unique place in Pacific tourism. All of this is central to understanding tourism human resource requirements. Samoan hospitality and the graciousness of the people in service roles are key human resource strengths, just as in New Zealand the face of New Zealanders in front line service roles is also seen as a strength that should not be compromised. In Samoa there are issues of a lack of shared experiences, linked with the western model of hospitality adopted in Samoa, and significant social distance between host and guest (Baum 2006a).

### 6.3 Issues relating to education and training

Education and training is based on what a nation can afford and sustain, whether in a developed or developing country context. The barriers to delivery are highlighted in the developing country context of Samoa. Yet education for tourism is not only vital to support the industry but also to impart a knowledge and understanding of the impacts of tourism on society (Lewis 2005). The resources available to deliver training of any kind in Samoa are limited both in human and physical resource terms and its effectiveness needs to be measured in this context. As Conlin (1993) noted, island states do not have the ability to build a base of skilled workers through education and training. The limitations in terms of human resources are much more sharply seen in Samoa than in New Zealand which has the infrastructure and resources, human and financial, to better provide for education and training for tourism.

In an ideal world, in both contexts, the best combination of education and training for tourism is both pre employment education and training and subsequent on the job training and development;

‘I don’t know if there is a best form of training but there has to be a mix of classroom theory based learning and good relevant experience. Training on the job isn’t just about experience there must also be a transferal of skills. There is no one place for the adding of skills and insights to people. I am not convinced that workplace training alone will do the trick - it doesn’t get you past what is existing - it just brings everyone to where you are now - so how do you continually improve. There is a benefit of theory training off the job
to get people thinking - as when they are in the workforce it is head down and bum up.’
(New Zealand government organisation)

There appears to be considerable variation in both Samoa and New Zealand as to the value that is placed on staff being trained and developed in the workplace and whether pre employment training is seen as essential for entry to the industry. This varies from sector to sector. In New Zealand the lack of commitment to training is also linked to the ‘Number 8 Wire’ mentality where the requirement to train is linked to control and is therefore viewed negatively. There are also the issues that businesses are scared to spend money on training because of staff transience. Ultimately training for employees in tourism businesses needs to be matched to the individual business needs and this varies from business to business. The most desirable option is to hire people who have had pre employment training but this is currently not achievable because of the lack of available trained staff and in Samoa, it is also linked to the availability of trainers and educators.

There is a striking similarity in both countries in the inherent lack of respect for teachers and educators by the industry. This has a flow on effect into the way in which off the job training is valued in general. There is a general sense that education and training must add value to the human resources situation, but there are questions about the way in which the learning is delivered and about the gap between what is taught off the job and the reality of the on the job requirements. There is a lack of understanding about what is actually happening in the training environment and what constitutes suitable training as well as an expectation of the ability of the education and training provider to produce a product that is industry ready. This raises the issue of what is a realistic expectation that industry operators can place on education and training providers. Progress towards improvement of training products is also seen as slow and uncoordinated and dependent on single people rather than strategic collective decision making. These views are exacerbated in the context of Samoa where there is really only one education and training provider. In New Zealand there is more variation in views depending on location and individuals.

Communication between industry and training providers appears to have become increasingly distant, dysfunctional or disconnected. In Samoa the normal mechanisms for communication, between both parties, seems to have dwindled considerably in the last few years. The distance is resulting in perceptions developing that may well not be real or fair. Similar views were expressed in New Zealand. This is particularly alarming given the work of Lewis (2005) who asserts that effective consultation with stakeholders is vital in the development of a sound curriculum.
In New Zealand the way in which funding is allocated to education does not necessarily work the best to ensure strong and functional relationships between industry and education and training providers. However it is understood that it is important to build better and stronger relationships with more of a partnership model instead of a competitive and/or critical model than is more the norm at the moment. Partnerships are vital between clusters of industry groups and tertiary education organisations. Links need to be better forged between businesses and tertiary education providers (Skill NZ 2008, p31).

In New Zealand the government’s current subsidization of both pre employment education and training and ITO training in the workplace, is not fully meeting the needs of either industry or education and training providers. It places more stress on an already stressed environment by expecting industry to be trainers themselves when they have limited capability to do so, particularly in a SME context. There needs to be a more strategic examination of the existing system of funding as well as the number of industry training organisations with the overlap of qualifications provided by different ITO’s and all the parties working more collaboratively to meet the workforce needs.

### 6.4 Education and training - specific to Samoa

There are significant issues in terms of resources. The cost of training an indigenous workforce is high relative to the resources of island governments. They therefore rely on aid (Burns 1999, Hall and Page 1996, King 1996). Vocational training is costly and in New Zealand for instance the fees for vocational programmes are high. In Samoa the students are paying little. Resources are not being allocated to the school at NUS IoT in an effective manner and there is no delegated financial authority. The recent merge of the Samoa Polytechnic and the National University is fraught with issues, new systems are in place that are not clearly understood and staff do not feel valued or that they can speak up about requirements. Charles (1991) noted that in the Caribbean, although tourism education occurs at a tertiary level it is often underfunded and has low status. Institutional strengthening is a key factor for the success of human resources. Programmes in tourism need to gain more respect from their institutions in order to gain necessary resources. The linkage between education, training and the level of quality service is not well understood (Conlin 1993).

On the job training is delivered in an ad hoc and piecemeal manner which is not necessarily meeting workforce needs. Increased on the job training is seen as essential to get service to the right level. Ideally there would be a mix of both pre employment and on the job training. This links back to the lack of suitably trained individuals in supervisory management roles.
who are able to provide good on job training (in both contexts). The calibre of people coming through the ranks is not good enough, likewise for those who are entering training at NUS. The programme entry criteria are not necessarily being enforced and this, coupled with the lack of resources to properly deliver the programme, has affected the standards in the programme. The curriculum is long overdue for redevelopment as well. Despite the efforts of the NZAID programme to create a valid and relevant curriculum for Samoa, there must be quality assurance in place to consistently monitor and improve the programme. This requires suitable systems to be in place and individuals to monitor them. The role of SQA and their ability to monitor quality at NUS, or for NUS to implement their own rigorous quality assurance, is important for the future.

Burns (1999) discusses that the process of developing training in the Pacific is reactionary and uncoordinated and is too heavily reliant on foreign aid. The education and training that was put in place in Samoa in 1997 has brought some benefits to the country partly through the number of graduates who have taken up job roles in industry but the lack of ongoing aid and support to the NUS IoT has resulted in variable quality of both teaching and graduates. This reinforces the fact that foreign aid is still critical to ensure ongoing viability of training programmes. In many ways, since the end of the NZAID project in 2001, very little progress has been made to improve the programmes or to ensure the quality of the facilities. It has taken the arrival of APTC for there to be a sense of moving forward. It has taken more foreign aid to provide momentum for future developments.

Black and King (2002) also noted the poor quality of basic education in the Pacific. In Samoa, student’s lack of English to speak with visitors presents a considerable problem. Attitudes are also an issue. Industry operators conclude, perhaps incorrectly, that it is the fault of the training provider for not instilling the correct attitude in the students, or skill and knowledge for that matter. This again raises Baum’s (2006a) work on social distance and ExQ as well as the work of Ritzer (2004), Warhurst (2000) and Nicholson et al (2003) discussing emotional intelligence and aesthetic labour. ExQ becomes a vital component in; ‘understanding the training and development needs of hospitality workers from less developed countries whose experience and cultural backgrounds are not in close proximity to that of the hospitality sector within which they work’ (Baum 2006a, p126). This makes technical learning more difficult than it would be for someone from a shared culture, plus there is the issue of the design of the curriculum and whether it in fact meets the needs of a developing country context. There are social and cultural differences in the training needs of developing countries (Jafari and Ritchie 1981, Baum 2006a). This effectively means that a curriculum designed for Samoa must consider all these factors and ensure that there is sufficient time
spent in developing skill and knowledge and that experiential intelligence is nurtured and developed. The curriculum designed for Samoa did not consider all these factors.

The introduction of APTC is a major new development and has been a government to government initiative and like most decision making in developing countries, it is top down (Liu and Wall 2006). It is likely that this will be just another aid project. As Liu and Wall (2006) point out, the dominance of external capital can marginalize local people. This is a concern with APTC in that it is another example of a western model of education and training being imposed in a developing world context, where foreign trainers are also being imported to deliver the training. Given the knowledge of the lack of ExQ of many of the students studying in Samoa, it is likely that there will be limits to the effectiveness of the APTC training, despite the amount of money invested in it by the Australian government. It may well meet the short term needs of the Australian government (to meet the skills shortage in Australia) but whether it meets the ongoing needs of the Samoan people is another matter. However, writers analyzing the Pacific suggest that there is an advantage in collaborative and strategic relationships in training and education for tourism and that Pacific island countries benefit from being strategic and not taking a reactionary approach (Burns 1999). The APTC initiative is at some level a collaborative arrangement so in the short term at least, it would be expected that there will be positive effects from the APTC.

### 6.5 In both contexts

In an ideal world, education and training would have a balance of theory and practical with a strong industry connection for work experience and input from industry (Tribe 2002). Experiential intelligence would be developed and social distance diminished as a consequence (Baum 2006a). Education and training providers would be initiators with industry with good relationships with industry operators and organisations. The students would be selected on sound entry criteria and the teaching staff would have good teaching skills, have access to up to date resources and be provided with good professional development supported by sound quality management systems. All of this would exist within a structure that would be managed at an individual country level with an overarching, holistic human resource management strategy, led by one organisation.

There are a number of key points that are worth extracting from these conclusions for special attention. These are in the New Zealand context: Training versus education, the suitability of training programmes, the competitive environment of ITO’s and providers, the lack of effective strategic human resource development and the ad hocism of the industry in terms of human resources. In Samoa it is very similar with training versus education and the
question over the suitability of training programmes, the lack of strategic thinking, the number of organisations and fragmentation of the industry and the issue of lack of ExQ and social distance.

In the context of both New Zealand and Samoa, the tension between training for industry job roles versus providing an education that prepares people for careers is evident. Perhaps this is a result of the current skills shortages and the lack of suitable staff to fill job roles that makes this so strikingly obvious. Currently vocational education and training in tourism in both countries is very much focused on skills and knowledge required to do jobs. It is not focused on developing the individual in a holistic manner and it is certainly not about developing philosophical practitioners (Tribe 2002). Training programmes that are developed to train people for vocational roles in industry settings are firmly embedded in the business transaction (Go 2005). Tribe (1999) discussed the stakeholders involved in the development of curriculum and describes two sides to development, on one side the industry and its various organisations and groups and on the other side those who are more interested in a liberal view of curriculum such as community and sector groups and environmentalists. He concludes that both sides should be represented in curriculum in order to develop philosophical practitioners. It is evident that only the former group of industry representatives are stakeholders in the current curriculum development in both New Zealand and Samoa.

Lewis (2005) also points out that pitfalls of importing western models of education into island states without taking notice of the local environment, reiterating findings of Theuns and Go (1992) and Tribe (2003) who discussed the problems with the development of courses that are geared to western hospitality in island settings. Lewis (2005) also stresses that tourism education in SIS must respond to the wider issues of tourism that affect the whole society, again stressing the importance of a broader curriculum in order to address these needs. She believes that the improvement of society and the lives of locals, as a result of tourism, is a key difference between tourism curriculum in a developed country.

Without a holistic view of curriculum it is more than likely going to result in a lack of clear career paths and potentially is one of the contributing factors in the lack of good supervisory managers in tourism and hospitality. Current education and training is focused on specific jobs, mostly at entry level. Programmes are short in duration for the most part and it is entry level jobs that have the main focus in training institutes. There is not enough focus on the career with matching education linked to it. It is primarily quick stop job skilling that focuses on the technical skills required to do the job. The other dimensions of education and training, such as developing emotional intelligence or experiential intelligence, simply do not...
feature. The gap in developing these aesthetic, emotional and experiential dimensions is striking. They are crucial in a SIS setting. For any curriculum to be effective it must contain learning that develops these dimensions. When employers discuss the lack of empathy and the poor attitudes of their staff they are in large part identifying the lack of these critical dimensions. These issues have resonance in both Samoa and New Zealand.

The fragmentation of the industry and the ad hocism relating to human resource practices (Baum and Kokkranikal 2005) and the ambivalence about people in the industry as well as short termism (Baum 2006b) is central to the current state of affairs in both New Zealand and Samoa. There is no overarching leadership in either context for human resource management. The proliferation of organisations involved in tourism, in New Zealand in particular, makes effective decision making almost impossible (Brien 2004). There is no single organisation that has the overall care and responsibility for people working in tourism. The fact that there are three organisations charged with implementation of the Tourism Strategy 2015 (MoT 2007), with delegations to a range of other organisations for specific parts of it, shows this lack of cohesion.

This could be the time to reexamine human resource management for the industry. The structure of tourism in both Samoa and New Zealand and the importance placed on human resource management at a national level should be analysed. The current structural model is not providing the leadership and the vision to improve the situation. The Irish system, under the leadership of Failte Ireland, is a model to be further scrutinized to establish its value to countries such as New Zealand and Samoa. As Baum (2006b) points out, Failte Ireland’s model of an NTO could well work well in other countries. In Ireland, human resources is one of the three key divisions of the NTO and the government is involved in ensuring that human resource development is a principal focus in the development of Irish tourism. This is a unique structure that contains the elements for the successful development of people in tourism, to ensure a vibrant and quality tourism experience. The role of government in leading human resource practices is crucial, as Baum and Szivas (2008) point out, key players are local, national and transnational governments. At this point neither the New Zealand or Samoan government are taking a clear leadership role in terms of people development.

To reflect back now on the key questions that form the intellectual puzzle of the research and whether the research has answered the questions. Are people valued in tourism? Is education and training valued and effective? Are people being developed in a manner that meets the needs of society and the tourism industry? In developing countries is the model for developing education and training culturally appropriate, or a neo colonial transplant?
The answers to this intellectual puzzle can indeed be found in the findings and conclusions of the research. In the contexts of both New Zealand and Samoa people are understood to be important in the delivery of the tourism experience yet this does not necessarily translate into people being valued or developed within stable and viable career structures. The image of people being ‘in the back room’ is a potent one and explains a lot about the true value of people. It is overwhelmingly essential to find the means to ensure that the importance of people comes out of the back room and to the forefront of planning and development in order for there to be real progress in human resource development in tourism and hospitality and for the quality of the visitor experience to improve.

Is education and training valued and effective? The research has shown that it is not as effective or as valued as it should be. For a range of reasons, that have been discussed already, the industry is one that employs people regardless of their education and training and invests in development in the workplace in an ad hoc manner. The quality of education and training is also variable and very much dependent on individuals within training roles despite the quantity of education and training options available. The focus on technical skill development rather than a focus on holistic development of individuals dumbs down the quality of the people in both an off the job and on the job context. This is not simplified by the complex structure of education and training in the New Zealand context.

There are key dimensions that are currently missing in education in terms of developing experiential and emotional components in individuals. These dimensions can be seen as critical in developing countries where western hospitality has been imposed on indigenous cultures. Unfortunately the education and training that has been provided in developing countries appears to have ignored these critical dimensions and the programmes are in effect neo-colonial implants where many assumptions have been made about the ability of people to participate within the western paradigm.

As a result of these missing dimensions in education and training, the lack of value placed on people being trained and educated to work in tourism, mixed with the inherent complexities of the tourism industry and the ambivalence of decision makers in tourism, it is realistic to say that people are not being developed fully enough to adequately benefit society or the tourism industry. Therefore it is fair to conclude that there is a crucial need to reexamine human resource development within the structure of tourism in both New Zealand and Samoa to ensure quality tourism in the future.
6.6 Conclusions

Comparing New Zealand and Samoa has been a worthwhile exercise. It has reinforced the academic literature by illustrating that many of the issues relating to people in tourism and hospitality, and particularly their development through education and training, are occurring globally in both the developing and developed world contexts. By using in depth interviews and interpretative analysis, the research has uncovered a depth of knowledge about these issues that should not be ignored by those conducting research into this area. Future research should follow Lewis (2005) and Tribe (2002) in promoting effective consultation with the full range of stakeholders and a balance of theory and practice in tourism and hospitality education and training. In particular, future research could follow the APTC progress in Samoa and the Pacific generally and the impact this will have on migration from these countries to Australia (and New Zealand) and the effectiveness of curriculum considering Baum’s (2006a) work on ExQ. From a New Zealand perspective, future research could examine alternative industry structures for better human resource management (Failte Ireland 2008) as well as following the success of industry organisations and their pursuit of an integrated industry-training approach.

This thesis identified key issues in education and training for the tourism and hospitality industries. By exploring these issues, the thesis has offered an in-depth discussion through the use of the two case studies, New Zealand and Samoa. It has identified a number of similar issues between the two countries and has highlighted the areas where improvement is much needed. In doing so, this thesis provides a springboard for future research into the area of education and training provision for these growing industries. This thesis has achieved its main aim; the research questions did not set out to find solutions but instead to identify the major issues. As such, the thesis has provided useful insights and in-depth analysis which, although not necessarily generalisable across the globe, provides confirmation of many of the concerns expressed in the academic literature. These illustrate the necessity of not only promoting better collaboration between stakeholders (i.e. Lewis 2005) but the very current need for this collaboration to be vigorously implemented by education and training providers, government and industry organisations and associations, and tourism and hospitality businesses alike with analysis of the limitations of current education and training being central to the implementation. A pressing need is to bring human resource development to the forefront in both strategic planning and operations management, and for industry participants to understand the essential need and value of this for the success and viability of the future of tourism and hospitality.
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Appendix A
The Six Goals of the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy 2006

1. Labour supply is not a constraint to growth in the tourism sector. There are enough people to do the work required, to the standard required to consistently deliver a world class visitor experience.

   This is to be achieved through: campaigns and promotion as well as securing labour supplies from schools and non traditional labour pools as well as immigration.

2. The people who work in the industry have appropriate skills and the personal attributes to deliver a quality experience. There are education and training systems in place to recognize and deliver the skills and knowledge required to resource the tourism and hospitality industry.

   This is achieved through: collaboration with TEC, NZQA and ITO’s. Training providers to align policy funding and delivery to the needs of the industry, improve effectiveness of industry input to qualifications, reduce proliferation of qualifications, ensure providers are outcome driven, ensure portability and credibility of qualifications, explore ways to integrate Qualmark, tourism standards and qualifications, implement a programme of training needs analysis for the sector, encourage the uptake of training or SME.

3. People with experience and expertise are retained within the tourism and hospitality sector because they have opportunities to grow and build satisfying careers.

   This is achieved through: improvement of pay and wages, research staff turnover, promote the importance of retention as a key priority for the industry, facilitate training so that people understand the factors that influence staff retention, map out available career pathways.

4. Businesses in the tourism and hospitality sector have the right information, management systems and processes in place to maximize the contribution of their people.

   This is achieved through: investigating the availability of training needs assessment models that aligns training plans with business objectives, link work based and tertiary training opportunities with the needs of tourism businesses, create a best practice toolkit for employers on recruitment and retention.

5. A supportive legislative and regulatory environment promotes the tourism and hospitality sectors growth.

   This is achieved through: advocacy relating to legislation, tax policies, compliance costs and economic incentives to encourage people into the industry.

6. The tourism and hospitality industry has the structures and mechanisms in place to address its future workforce and skill needs on an ongoing basis.

   This is achieved through: formalizing the role of the leadership group in overseeing the implementation of the strategy, developing processes to identify, monitor and report about workforce issues.
Appendix B
Hospitality Standards Institute 2007a

The following characterises the hospitality sector in New Zealand:

- 6.4% of total NZ employment is in hospitality - about 136,000 people.
- Not all of these employed are designated to fall within the direct employment in tourism as cited in the TSA (hence the higher numbers than recognized in the TSA).
- Employment is spread across businesses of all sizes with SME’s (less than 20 employees) accounting for 52% of employment.
- 80% of employment is in businesses of less than 50.
- The proportion of people employed with vocational qualifications increased from 18% in 2001 to 22% in 2006.
- The proportion with degrees increased from 6% to 10%.
- There is an increase in workers born outside the country, this increased from 1:4 to 1:3 from 2001 to 2006.
- Employment is expected to increase to 2011 but slower than in past years: 13,500 new positions compared with 23,000 between 2001 and 2006.
- The largest number of jobs to be created are in service and sales roles and managers.
- Of the 136,000, only half had school qualifications and 20% had no qualifications.
- The industry is still predominately dominated by low skilled workers.
- Pre employment education beyond secondary school is still not seen as an essential requirement for entry to the industry.
Appendix C
Interview Questions for Samoa Interviews

The key question areas to form the basis of the interviews.

To industry participants
- What is your view about the current state of tourism and hospitality in Samoa?
- What are the general issues that face the industry currently?
- What are the issues facing Samoa specifically in terms of human resources?
- Where have your staff been trained?
- What is your view about the training needs for Samoa?
- What can you tell me about the options for training in Samoa?
- How relevant is current training to meet the needs of industry?
- How has the training that is being currently offered in Samoa improved your staffing situation?
- What do you think would be the best way to train staff?
- What gaps are there in current training?
- How should the gaps best be filled?

To support organisations
- What is your evaluation of the effectiveness of tourism and hospitality education and training programmes?
- What are the issues for tourism and hospitality education and training in Samoa?
- What gaps are there in the training and how could they be filled?
- What issues are there for the ongoing viability of tourism and hospitality training in Samoa?
- What recommendations and improvements would you make?
- Who should be responsible for training in Samoa?
- Who are the current stakeholders in education and training in Samoa?
- What can you tell me about the implementation of the Tourism Development Plan’s HR objectives?
- What is your view about local versus international qualifications in tourism and hospitality?
Appendix D
Interview Questions for New Zealand Interviews

What do you believe are the most significant human resource issues facing the tourism and hospitality industry currently?

How important do you think it is to have a trained workforce in tourism and hospitality across all sectors?

What do you believe is the best form of training to meet the needs of the industry?

How important do you think training is to business success?

What do you think needs to happen to ensure training happens in the tourism industry?

What is your view about the value of pre employment training for the tourism and hospitality industry?

What is your view of the relationship between industry and training providers?

What is your view about the possibility of an integrated training plan across Australasia including the Pacific Islands to address skills shortages?

What do you know about the Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Strategy and its implementation?

What is your view regarding legislation to ensure training as a requirement for entry to the industry and progression in career paths in the industry?